X chromosome-dependent disruption of placental regulatory networks in hybrid dwarf hamsters

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Embryonic development in mammals is highly sensitive to changes in gene expression within the placenta. The placenta is also highly enriched for genes showing parent-of-origin or imprinted expression, which is predicted to evolve rapidly in response to parental conflict. However, little is known about the evolution of placental gene expression, or if divergence of placental gene expression plays an important role in mammalian speciation. We used crosses between two species of dwarf hamsters (*Phodopus sungorus* and *P. campbelli*) to examine the genetic and regulatory underpinnings of severe placental overgrowth. Using quantitative genetic mapping and mitochondrial substitution lines, we show that overgrowth of hybrid placenta was primarily caused by genetic differences on the maternally inherited *P. sungorus* X chromosome. Mitochondrial interactions did not contribute to abnormal hybrid placental development, and there was only weak correspondence between placental disruption and embryonic growth. Genome-wide analyses of placental transcriptomes from the parental species and first and second-generation hybrids revealed a central group of co-expressed X-linked and autosomal genes that were highly enriched for maternally-biased expression. Expression of this gene network was strongly correlated with placental size and showed widespread misexpression dependent on epistatic interactions with X-linked hybrid incompatibilities. Collectively, our results indicate that the X chromosome plays a prominent role in the evolution of placental gene expression and the rapid accumulation of hybrid developmental barriers between mammalian species.

Introduction

Developing mammalian embryos depend on the extra-embryonic placenta for a broad array of functions including hormone production, immunity, and as a conduit for maternal nutrients and gas exchange (Reik *et al.* 2003; Levy 2007). Normal intrauterine development in humans and mice depends on the tightly controlled placental expression of a diverse set of genes (Constancia *et al.* 2002; Levy 2007; Plasschaert and Bartolomei 2014). Placental gene expression has also likely played an important role in the evolution of mammalian development (Haig 1996; Capellini *et al.* 2011; Kaneko-Ishino and Ishino 2019). Indeed, much of the phenotypic diversity across mammalian species is thought to have evolved by changes in gene expression during critical stages of development (King and Wilson 1975; Carroll 2008; Sears *et al.* 2015). However, relatively little is known about the broader genomic organization, functional integration, and evolution of placental gene expression networks across species (Al Adhami *et al.* 2015).

The placenta is characterized by two unusual regulatory phenomena that likely play critical roles in its evolution. First, the placenta is highly enriched for genes showing monoallelic expression due to epigenetic silencing of one parental allele (i.e., genomic imprinting, Morison *et al.* 2005; Hudson *et al.* 2010; Babak *et al.* 2015). Genomic imprinting is thought to have evolved to help resolve fitness conflicts between maternally and paternally-inherited alleles (i.e., kinship or parental conflict theory, Haig 2000). While perhaps only ~100-200 autosomal genes show strongly imprinted expression across tissues (Babak *et al.* 2015), disruption of genomic imprinting has emerged as an important cause of congenital disorders in humans (Hirasawa and Feil 2010; Lee and Bartolomei 2013) and as a potential driver of reproductive barriers between species (Crespi and Nosil 2013; Wolf and Brandvain 2014). Second, many mammals achieve dosage compensation in extra-embryonic tissues through imprinted paternal X chromosome inactivation (i.e., imprinted XCI, Xue *et al.* 2002; Morison *et al.* 2005; Heard and Disteche 2006; Al Nadaf *et al.* 2012), representing a striking deviation from random XCI found in most somatic cells of placental mammals (Lyon 1961; Dupont and Gribnau 2013). The X chromosome in general, and imprinted XCI in particular, has been shown to play important roles in placental development (Hemberger 2002; Mcgraw *et al.* 2013).

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Moreover, the mouse X chromosome appears enriched for genes preferentially expressed in the placenta (Khil *et al.* 2004).

Resolution of genetic conflict may explain the origin of genomic imprinting in mammals (Haig 2000). However, theory also predicts that once imprinting is established adaptation among interacting genes can drive the evolutionary expansion of regulatory networks of similarly imprinted genes (Hemberger 2002; Wolf and Hager 2006; Wolf and Brandvain 2014; Patten *et al.* 2016; O'Brien and Wolf 2017). Given the relative scarcity of autosomal imprinting overall (Babak *et al.* 2015), the X chromosome is expected to harbor the majority of genes showing imprinted (maternal) placental expression in species with imprinted XCI. Thus, co-evolutionary interactions between the maternal X chromosome and maternally expressed autosomal genes should be relatively common within placental regulatory pathways. Despite these predictions, the overall importance of the X chromosome to the evolution of placental gene expression remains unclear. Many molecular genetic studies on the placenta have focused on established disease models or targeted genetic manipulations of imprinted autosomal genes (e.g., gene knockdowns or knockouts, Sanli and Feil 2015), revealing fundamental insights into the mechanisms and functional consequences of genomic imprinting in the placenta and other tissues. In parallel, meta-analyses of expression data have revealed that clusters of imprinted autosomal genes appear to fall within larger networks of co-expressed genes that include both imprinted and bi-allelically expressed loci (Varrault *et al.* 2006; Al Adhami *et al.* 2015). The extent and functional relevance of such regulatory networks remain unclear, but the emerging model of genome-wide networks of imprinted and non-imprinted genes represents a conceptual shift from the view of imprinting controlled primarily through local cis-regulatory effects (Patten *et al.* 2016).

Parent-of-origin effects for abnormal embryonic and placental growth are common in mammalian hybrids (Vrana 2007; Brekke and Good 2014), suggesting that hybrid systems may provide powerful models for understanding how the evolution of gene expression impacts placental development. Here, we focus on crosses between two closely related species of dwarf hamsters (*Phodopus sungorus* and *P. campbelli*) that yield strong parent-of-origin growth effects in reciprocal F_1 crosses (Brekke and Good 2014). Extensive placental overgrowth and disrupted embryonic development occur in hybrid crosses when the mother is *P. sungorus* (female *P. sungorus* x male *P. campbelli*; hereafter S×C), often resulting in hybrid and maternal death during birth. The reciprocal cross (female *P. campbelli* x male *P. sungorus*; hereafter c×s) results in normal embryonic development, although adult hybrid males are smaller (Brekke and Good 2014) and completely sterile (Safronova *et al.* 1999; Bikchurina *et al.* 2018). Intrinsic postzygotic reproductive isolation (i.e., hybrid inviability or sterility) generally tends to be asymmetric in reciprocal crosses between closely-related species due to incompatible interactions at sex-linked or imprinted loci (Turelli and Moyle 2007). Although the genetic architecture of hybrid placental dysplasia has not been determined in dwarf hamsters, massively overgrown F_1 hybrid S×C placenta do show extensive disruption of gene expression pathways that are highly enriched for embryonic growth and genomic imprinting (Brekke *et al.* 2016). Building on these previous works, we combine quantitative genetic and transcriptomic analyses to test the hypothesis that the X chromosome plays a central role in the evolution of placental gene expression, embryonic development, and reproductive barriers between species.

Materials and Methods

Animals and experimental crosses

Experimental animals were drawn from established colonies of wild-derived *P. campbelli* and *P. sungorus* at the University of Montana (Brekke and Good 2014), which were originally established by Kathy Wynne-Edwards (Scribner and Wynne-Edwards 1994). Colonies were maintained as outbred, though overall inbreeding levels are high (Brekke *et al.* 2018). All breeding experiments were done in compliance with the University of Montana Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee regulations (animal use protocols 039-13JGDBS-090413 & 050-16JGDBS-082316).

We performed two genetic crossing experiments to evaluate the role of the mitochondrial and nuclear genomes in the genetic basis of asymmetric hybrid placental and embryonic overgrowth. First, we generated conplastic mitochondrial introgression lines wherein c×s hybrid females were crossed to *P. sungorus* males for ten additional backcross generations. This crossing scheme should recover hamsters that are ~99.9% *P. sungorus* across the nuclear genome but retain the mitochondria of *P. campbelli* (*P. sungorus*^{mtC}). Tenth-generation *P. sungorus*mtC females were crossed to *P. campbelli* males to test for F_1 overgrowth (S^{mtC}×C), thereby mimicking the overgrown S×C hybrid across the nuclear genome while substituting the *P. sungorus* mitochondria for *P. campbelli* mitochondria. Second, we crossed F_1 c×s hybrid females to *P. campbelli* males to generate a backcross (BC) panel of late-term embryos and placentas. In the context of genetic elements with sex-limited inheritance or expression, these backcross hybrids have the same paternal contribution found in overgrown S×C F_1 hybrids, while varying the species origin of maternally inherited alleles.

All advanced crosses were conducted through c×s hybrid females as S×C F_1 hybrids generally do not survive birth (Brekke and Good 2014) and c×s males are completely sterile (Safronova *et al.* 1999; Ishishita *et al.* 2015; Bikchurina *et al.* 2018). For both crossing experiments, females were sacrificed at late gestation and offspring placentas and embryos were collected, weighed, and snap-frozen on dry ice. Embryos were developmentally scored following Brekke and Good (2014) to ensure

that all offspring were in the final four days of gestation corresponding to Theiler's Stages 24-27 (Theiler 1972). Developmental abnormalities such as embryonic fluid accumulation (edema) and embryo loss (reabsorption) were noted, and embryo and placenta weights were assessed with stepwise model selection and adjusted for variation in edema, litter size and Theiler stage using simple linear models (JMP12).

Genotyping

We genotyped 189 backcross individuals (91 females and 98 males) and our original colony founders (14 *P. campbelli* and 11 *P. sungorus*) using double digest restriction-site associated DNA sequencing (ddRAD-seq; Peterson *et al.* 2012) with minor modifications. Genomic DNA was extracted from frozen embryos with a Machery-Nagel Nucleospin Tissue DNA extraction kit (catalog number 740952) following the manufacturer's protocol, except that 5μl RNase-A was added to the column and incubated for 15 minutes at room temperature. We then digested 1μg of genomic DNA using the high-fidelity restriction enzyme SbfI-HF (New England BioLabs, catalog number R3642L), followed by MspI (New England BioLabs, catalog number R0106L) both with the CutSmart buffer (New England BioLabs). Libraries were prepared with a dual barcoding scheme incorporating both Illumina indexes and in-line barcodes to uniquely identify each sample (Peterson *et al.* 2012) and size selection of adapter-ligated fragments (200-500bp) was done with Agencourt AMPure XP beads. Both the size selection and PCR amplification were done prior to sample pooling to assure more even representation across samples. Combined sample pools were sequenced on 50% of an Illumina HiSeq 2500 lane in rapid-run mode and then on 50% of a lane of Illumina Hiseq 2500 in normal mode at the University of Oregon Genomics and Cell Characterization Core Facility. All samples were sequenced in both lanes and combined for subsequent analyses. We also independently determined the sex of embryos using a PCR assay of the Y-linked Sry gene as described previously (Brekke *et al.* 2016).

RAD libraries were cleaned and demultiplexed with Stacks (v1.20; process_radtags (parameters -e sbfI --renz_2 mspI -r -c -q; Catchen *et al.* 2013). An initial list of unique RADtags (unique sequences drawn from the pool of sequenced reads) from both read pairs was generated using ustacks (-H -r -d) using data from one female founder from each species. RADtag reference libraries were then generated using cstacks (-n 4). Reads from all the colony founders were aligned to the RADtag reference library with bwa-mem (v0.7.9a; Li and Durbin 2009) and single-nucleotide variants (SNVs) were called with the GATK HaplotypeCaller (v3.1-1, -stand_call_conf 30; Depristo *et al.* 2011; Van Der Auwera *et al.* 2013). All SNVs that were polymorphic within a species in our colony were filtered out using GATK selectVariants (v3.1-1). Backcross individuals were genotyped at the ascertained SNVs sites using GATK UnifiedGenotyper (v3.1-1; -stand_call_conf 30; Van Der Auwera *et al.* 2013).

We also used an exon capture experiment to anchor placental-expressed genes onto the *Phodopus* genetic map (described below). We designed custom hybridization probes to target 9,756 fixed SNVs between *P. campbelli* and *P. sungorus* ascertained from species-specific transcriptomes (Genbank BioProject JNA306772 and DDBJ/EMBL/GenBank Accessions GEVA00000000 and GEVB00000000; Brekke *et al.* 2016). Exon boundaries were annotated for each transcript with a local BLAT search (Kent 2002) against the golden hamster (*Mesocricetus auratus*) draft reference genome (The Broad Institute Genome Assembly & Analysis Group, MesAur1.0). For each gene, we selected 1-2 SNVs located furthest from inferred exon boundaries and included probes matching both alternative bases to avoid species bias. Capture baits were manufactured by MYcroarray (MyBaits-1 Custom Target Capture Kit).

We selected a subset of 94 individuals (44 males and 50 females) from the backcross panel and prepared Illumina sequencing libraries following the Meyer-Kircher protocol (Meyer and Kircher 2010). Ten cycles were used during the indexing PCR step. The indexed libraries were then combined into four pools and target enriched following the MyBaits-1 Custom Target Capture protocol and using mouse CoT-1 DNA supplied by the manufacturer as a blocking agent. The four captured pools were then reamplified with 20 PCR cycles, quantified with a Kappa qPCR quantification kit (catalog number KK4824), and pooled for Illumina sequencing. Enriched libraries were initially sequenced at the University of Montana Genomics Core on an Illumina MiSeq 75bp paired-end sequencing, and followed by one lane of Illumina HiSeq 2500 100bp single-end sequencing at the University of Oregon Genomics and Cell Characterization Core Facility. Raw sequence reads were adapter trimmed with Cutadapt (v1.6; -O 5 and -e 0.1; Martin 2011) and quality filtered with Trimmomatic (v0.3.2; LEADING:5, SLIDINGWINDOW:4:15, MINLEN:36, and HEADCROP:13; Bolger *et al.* 2014). Filtered reads were then aligned to published transcriptome assemblies (Brekke *et al.* 2016) and the targeted SNVs were genotyped with GATK HaplotypeCaller (v3.1-1; -stand_call_conf 30.0 -stand_emit_conf 30) and filtered (selectvariants --restrictAllelesTo BIALLELIC -select "QD > 10.0") so that only high-quality genotypes were used for estimating the location of each gene.

Quantitative genetic analysis

We constructed a genetic map using RADtag SNVs identified between the *P. campbelli* and *P. sungorus* colony founders and the program R/qtl (v1.45; Broman and Sen 2009). Putative X-linked RADtags were identified based on patterns of segregation in males and females (i.e., markers that were heterozygous or homozygous *P. campbelli* in females and always homozygous *P. campbelli* or *P. sungorus* in males). To estimate the map, we removed two backcross individuals with low sequencing coverage, identified putative X-linked markers based on Hardy-Weinberg expectations, and dropped all autosomal markers

that were genotyped in less than 177 individuals (95%). We formed linkage groups and ordered the markers on each linkage group with the ripple(), compareorder(), and switch.order() functions until each linkage group was a short as possible. Then we sequentially dropped each marker to see if the likelihood of the map improved. Once all poor quality markers were removed, we repeated the ripple(), compareorder(), and switch.order() functions until the likelihood was maximized. The linkage groups in the final map were ordered by descending length in centiMorgans (cM).

We then used R/qtl to test for single quantitative trait loci (QTL) associated with the variation in backcross embryo and placental weight using the extended Haley-Knott method with imputation (Haley and Knott 1992; Feenstra *et al.* 2006). Next, we incorporated sex as a covariate and re-estimated QTL for both phenotypes. For all of single-QTL scans, we used 10,000 permutations to estimate genome-wide significance thresholds for autosomes and 337,364 permutations for the X chromosome. Finally, we used the QTL identified in the first two analyses as additive cofactors and re-scanned for additional QTL that are contingent on the presence of the earlier identified QTL (Broman and Sen 2009). We used 1,000 permutations for autosome-autosome interactions, 1,687 permutations for autosome-X interactions, and 113,815 permutations for X-X interactions to establish significance thresholds. QTL intervals were established based on 95% Bayesian confidence intervals, and the proportion of phenotypic variance explained by QTL was estimated as 1-10^(-2/n LOD) (Broman and Sen 2009).

Expressed genes were then integrated onto the genetic map by comparing captured SNV genotypes to RADtag genotypes. Following Brekke *et al.* (2019), we counted shared genotypes between each RADtag and each gene across all individuals, placing genes at the location of the RADtag with which they shared the most genotypes. In the event of a tie between multiple RADtags, the gene was placed at the proximal map location (i.e., lower centimorgan) and only genes sharing at least 90% of genotypes with at least one RADtag were placed on the map. Due to the low number of recombinants and the high number of genes, these RADtag-anchored positions represent coarse genetic locations for each gene. Instances where multiple genes were associated with a single RADtag were treated as a single, unordered linkage block. Once integrated, likely genotyping errors in the capture data were identified using calc.errorlod() and the highest errors were extracted with top.errorlod() and a very strict cutoff of 1 such that even moderately questionable genotypes were identified. The genotypes of these sites were removed and then filled in with the fill.geno() function using the imputation method, which imputes the missing genotypes from the surrounding sites for each individual. These corrected genotypes were used for evaluating imprinting status of select candidate genes (see below).

Gene expression analyses

We chose 24 placentas from our backcross mapping panel for genome-wide expression analysis using RNA-seq (Wang *et al.* 2009), including six males and six females with large placentas (0.232±0.010g) and six males and six females with normal-sized placentas (mean = 0.140±0.008g). RNA was extracted from whole frozen placenta with an Omega Bio-tek E.Z.N.A. Total RNA Kit I (catalog number R6834) including a DNase digestion following the manufacturer's protocol. All RNA samples were checked for quality and concentration on the bioanalyzer and all samples used had RNA integrity numbers (RIN) greater than 8.0. RNA-seq libraries were constructed from 2 μg of input RNA with the Agilent Sure-Select Strand-Specific RNA-seq Kit (catalog number G9691B) following the manufacturer's recommendations. Libraries were amplified with 14 cycles of PCR, and pooled based on a Kappa qPCR Quantification Kit (catalog number KK4824). The pooled libraries were sequenced with two lanes of Illumina HiSeq2500 100bp single-end sequencing.

RNA-seq data were processed as described previously (Brekke *et al.* 2016). Briefly, Illumina adapters were trimmed off reads with Cutadapt (v1.6; -O 5 -e 0.1; Martin 2011) and quality trimmed with Trimmomatic (v0.3.2; SE -phred 33 LEADING:5 SLIDINGWINDOW:4:15 HEADCROP:13; Bolger *et al.* 2014). While an initial draft of the *P. sungorus* genome has been generated using Illumina shotgun sequencing, current annotation and assembly quality remains insufficient for reference-guided transcriptome analyses (Bao *et al.* 2019). Therefore, reads were aligned with bowtie2 (v2.2.3; Langmead and Salzberg 2012) to a published de novo placental transcriptome assembly (Genbank BioProject JNA306772 and DDBJ/EMBL/GenBank Accessions GEVA00000000 and GEVB00000000; Brekke *et al.* 2016), and filtered for potentially chimeric transcripts using draft genomic resources by excluding 1,422 'genes' with exons that multiply mapped to different contigs. To evaluate expression level, we created a table of counts at the gene level using featureCounts (v1.4.2; Liao *et al.* 2014), which counted fragments (-p) and discarded reads with too long an insert (-P) or are chimeric (-C) or have a mapping quality (-Q) below 20. This table of counts was normalized with the TMM method (Robinson and Oshlack 2010).

We used the WGCNA package (version 1.68; Langfelder and Horvath 2008) to infer weighted gene co-expression networks using expression data from previously published parental and F_1 genotypes (Brekke *et al.* 2016) and the newly generated backcross. This network approach uses adjacency correlation matrices to identify hierarchical clusters of co-expressed genes (Zhang and Horvath 2005), enabling the reduction of complex clusters into representative expression profiles (i.e., module eigengenes) defined as the first component of a principle component analysis. A scale-free topology index was determined by soft thresholding, which was then used to automatically detect signed, Pearson correlated modules via dynamic cutting.

For each module, we tested for correlations between the module eigengene and placental and embryonic weights. For modules showing significant correlations after correction for multiple testing, we then retested associations using a more stringent ANOVA model that controlled for developmental stage and sex.

Each module was assessed with a binomial exact test (R/stats package 3.6.1) for enrichment of candidate imprinted genes previously identified based on patterns of allele-specific expression in the placenta (Brekke *et al.* 2016) and for X-linked genes. Network connectivity was determined through pairwise correlation between genes, with p-values corrected with the qvalue package (version 2.18.; Storey *et al.* 2019). Hub genes were defined as the top 5% most connected genes in each module. Overlap between F_1 and backcross modules was determined by comparing gene lists to get counts of shared genes. We also evaluated module conservation by comparing how strongly each gene was correlated to each module across data sets. To connect module conservation to phenotypes, we compared the concordance between each gene and placenta weight across F_1 and backcross datasets using a bivariate correlation (JMP12).

Genotypes at each gene placed on the genetic map were inferred by evaluating genotypes at flanking RAD markers. If a gene was placed in the same linkage block (cM location) as a RADtag, the marker genotype was used for the gene. Likewise, if the gene was placed between two markers with the same genotype, the concordant marker genotypes were used for the gene. If flanking RADtag genotypes were discordant, the genotype at the gene was treated as unknown. We then tested for expression interactions between the X chromosome and diploid autosomal genotypes within the backcross as follows. Autosomal genotypes were imputed for the 23 BC individuals with transcriptome data. Expression interaction (EI) scores were then calculated for all mapped autosomal genes by comparing the difference in fold change in expression of that gene for the two possible autosomal genotypes (i.e., homozygous for the *P. campbelli* allele or heterozygous) dependent on the genotype of the maternal X chromosome (*P. campbelli* or *P. sungorus*). To generate EI scores, normalized gene expression count tables generated during WGCNA were used to calculate log2-fold changes between alternative maternal X chromosome genotypes and the two genotypes at each autosomal locus. We excluded unmapped autosomal genes and genes with imputed genotypes for fewer than 3 individuals each of the four X-by-autosome genotypic classes. We calculated the absolute value of EI scores, where a value of 0 indicates no difference between the two autosomal genotypes when inheriting different maternal X chromosomes and a value of 1 indicates a one-fold difference in expression between the two autosomal genotypes (i.e., a candidate X-autosome expression interaction). We also considered a polarized version of the statistic where positive values reflect greater change when maternal X and autosomal alleles genotypes were discordant.

$$EI = \left| \log2(\mu\ expression_{X_{cam}Gene_{CC}} - \mu\ expression_{X_{sun}Gene_{CC}}) - \log2(\mu\ expression_{X_{cam}Gene_{SC}} - \mu\ expression_{X_{sun}Gene_{SC}}) \right|$$

Results and Discussion

The quantitative genetic basis of extreme parent-of-origin hybrid overgrowth

If hybrid placental overgrowth is caused by deleterious interactions between the maternal *P. sungorus* mitochondrial genome and the *P. campbelli* nuclear genome, then crossing conplastic *P. sungorus*mtC females to *P. campbelli* males should recover normal development. Alternatively, if heterospecific mitochondria have no effect on hybrid growth, then SmtC×C hybrids should be similar in size to overgrown S×C hybrids. In support of the second hypothesis, SmtC×C placentas were found to be extremely large and not statistically different from S×C hybrids (Figure S1; $F_{4,213} = 106$, $P<0.001$, ANOVA, Tukey test reveals that S×C and SmtC×C are similar to each other but different from all other cross types).

Next we generated a backcross panel of 189 late-term embryos and placentas sampled from 38 litters. Using 1,215 ddRAD SNVs, we constructed a 1,231.7 cM genetic map comprised of 14 major linkage groups (Figure S2 and Table S1). The karyotype of *P. sungorus* is comprised of 14 chromosomes (2N=28; Romanenko *et al.* 2007), suggesting that each of our major linkage groups correspond to an individual chromosome. The X chromosome was inferred to have the shortest overall genetic distance (35.5 cM or 2.9% of the genetic map), while it appears medium-sized in ranked karyotype analyses (i.e., middle 30%; Gamperl *et al.* 1977; Romanenko *et al.* 2007) and comprises ~10% of the haploid female karyotype (Haaf *et al.* 1987). The *Phodopus* X chromosome is metacentric with an Xp arm that has been described as heterochromatic (Gamperl *et al.* 1977) and non-recombinant in females of both species and in c×s F_1 hybrids (Bikchurina *et al.* 2018). Our inferred genetic map was consistent with strong repression of recombination on one end of the X chromosome in c×s females, albeit not complete repression as suggested in recent study that quantified signals of mismatch repair through immunolocalization of MLH1 (Bikchurina *et al.* 2018).

Using this genetic map, we then tested for QTL associated with variation in backcross embryo and placenta weights (Figure 1). We observed a single QTL of large effect for placental weight on the X chromosome, with 52.3% of the observed variation in backcross placental weight determined by the genotype of the maternally inherited X chromosome (Figure 1C). We estimated a QTL peak at 31.1cM with a 95% Bayesian confidence interval between 29.6cM and 32.6cM. This X-linked QTL localized near the proximal boundary of where we also observed repressed recombination (Figure S3), although the entire X chromosome exceeded a permutation-based significance

threshold (P = 0.01). Male and female embryos inheriting a maternal *P. sungorus* X chromosome genotype at this QTL showed an ~60% increase in average placenta weight (Figure 1C inset, $F_{1,179}$ = 178.4, P < 0.0001, ANOVA). No additional placental QTL were uncovered when using sex, developmental stage, and litter size as covariates, nor when using the X-linked QTL as a cofactor.

No QTL for embryo weight were recovered in our experiment (P = 0.05 permutation-based significance threshold; Figure S4), despite considerable variation in backcross embryo weights (Figure 1A) and significant overgrowth of S×C embryos when compared to normally developing cross-types (Brekke and Good 2014). Severe embryonic swelling or edema is common in SxC hybrids (Brekke and Good 2014) and appears to drive overall differences in embryo weights between overgrown SxC hybrids and either species or cxs hybrids (stepwise best model: embryo weight ~ developmental stage + edema; adjusted r^2 = 0.40, $F_{2,182}$ = 61.6, P << 0.0001; adjusted embryo weight ~ cross type $F_{3,182}$ = 0.74, P = 0.5312, ANOVA; Figure S5). However, backcross placenta and embryo weights remained moderately correlated after adjusting for developmental stage and edema (Figure S6A; adjusted r^2 = 0.159, $F_{1,184}$ = 36.0, P << 0.0001, ANOVA), with males showing a stronger correlation than females (males: adjusted r^2 = 0.257, $F_{1,95}$ = 33.8, P << 0.0001; females: adjusted r^2 = 0.065, $F_{1,88}$ = 7.15, P = 0.0090, ANOVA). When we expanded our analysis of embryonic weights among genotypes to include the backcross, we also detected a small but significant increase in embryo weight in the overgrown crosses after controlling for age and edema (Figure S6B, adjusted r^2 = 0.176, $F_{4,376}$ = 21.1, P << 0.0001, ANOVA). These apparent differences in embryonic growth were likely too subtle to detect in our QTL mapping experiment.

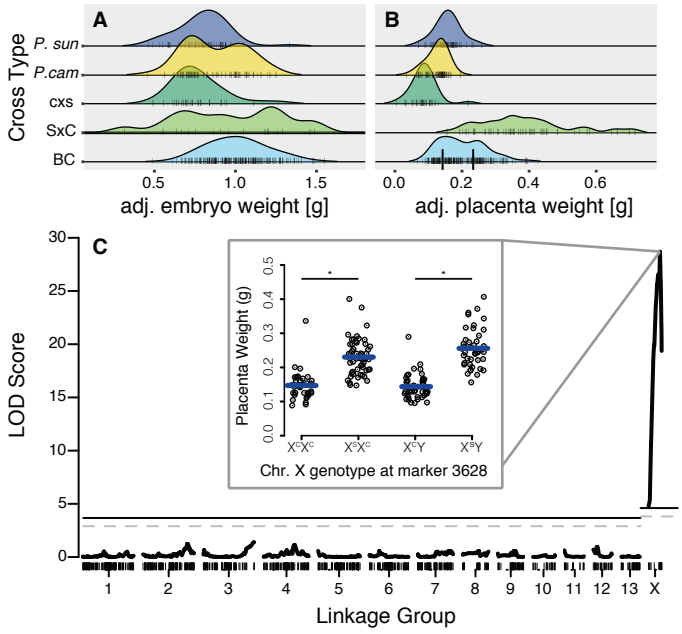

Figure 1. Phenotype Distributions and QTL for placental size. Late term embryo size adjusted for Theiler stage and edema (A) and placenta size adjusted for Theiler stage (B) for *P. sungorus*, *P. campbelli*, reciprocal F_1s, and 189 BC conceptuses. Genetic mapping experiment reveals a single QTL for placenta weight is found on the X chromosome (C). The *P. sungorus* X chromosome increases placenta weight by ~60% (inset, $F_{1,179}$ = 178.4, P << 0.0001, stars indicate significant differences assigned by a Tukey test). Placenta weights are grouped by the genotype at marker 3628. Genotypes are denoted with the maternal allele first followed by the paternal allele. Significance thresholds are denoted by solid (P = 0.01) and dashed (P = 0.05) horizontal lines.

A positive parent-of-origin correlation between hybrid placental and embryonic growth effects has been observed in some mammal hybrids (e.g., Vrana *et al.* 2000; Brown *et al.* 2012), providing a possible mechanistic link between the disruption of early development and extreme adult parent-of-origin growth effects observed in many mammal hybrids (Brekke and Good 2014). Our quantitative results underscore that the relationship between placental and embryonic growth may be weak early in development, especially given the difficulty of differentiating the effects of edema and other developmental defects from overall embryonic growth (Figures S5, S6). Consistent with this, parent-of-origin placental growth effects described in some mouse (Zechner *et al.* 1996; Kurz *et al.* 1999) and equine hybrids (Allen *et al.* 1993) also were not strongly correlated with hybrid embryonic growth. Regardless of the functional relationship between gross placental and embryonic growth phenotypes, our results show that the species origin of the maternal X chromosome is the major genetic factor responsible for placental overgrowth in *Phodopus* hybrids. Reproductive barriers between species often evolve through negative epistatic interactions between two or more loci, generally referred to Dobzhansky-Muller incompatibilities (DMIs; Dobzhansky 1937; Muller 1942; Orr and Turelli 2001, see also Bateson 1909). DMIs disproportionately involve X-linked loci, a phenomenon known as the large X-effect (Coyne and Orr 1989). Hybrid incompatibilities presumably occur between the maternally inherited *P. sungorus* X chromosome and *P. campbelli* autosomal loci (e.g., dominant, recessive, or imprinted incompatibilities). However, paternal loci were invariant in our backcross and thus paternal contributions to putative X-autosome mismatches could not be mapped in this experiment.

Large-X effects for placental dysplasia are perhaps not surprising given the central role that the X chromosome tends to play in the evolution of reproductive isolation (Coyne and Orr 1989; Turelli and Orr 2000; Masly and Presgraves 2007; Turelli and Moyle 2007) and the parent-of-origin dependent nature of placental hybrid inviability in dwarf hamsters (Figure 1) However, placental overgrowth has also been associated with widespread disruption of autosomal regulatory pathways (Brekke *et al.* 2016) that could manifest entirely from hybrid incompatible interactions between imprinted autosomal genes. Our mapping results rule out this possibility. Large effect X-linked QTL also underlie placental dysplasia in hybrid deer mice (Vrana *et al.* 2000) and house mice (Zechner *et al.* 1996; Hemberger *et al.* 1999). In all three rodent systems, the imprinted XCI occurs in the placenta and incompatibilities on the maternally inherited X chromosome emerge as a central genetic determinant of placental overgrowth in hybrids.

Networks of placental gene expression

We previously demonstrated extensive parent-of-origin dependent disruption of hybrid gene expression (Brekke *et al.* 2016), with hundreds of genes significantly up- or down-regulated in overgrown S×C hybrid placenta relative to both species (i.e., transgressive expression, Brekke *et al.* 2016). Examination of allele-specific expression revealed 88 candidate imprinted genes in the placenta overall, with 79 genes showing strong bias towards maternal expression (i.e., paternally imprinted). Notably, 68% of candidate imprinted genes (60 genes) showed transgressive expression in overgrown hybrids, suggesting an important link between misexpression of autosomal genes with biased parent-of-origin expression and placental overgrowth. Imprinted XCI was not disrupted in F_1 hybrids. In contrast to a predominantly autosomal regulatory phenotype in F_1 hybrid placenta, our backcross experiments indicated that S×C F_1 hybrid placental overgrowth was likely caused by genetic incompatibilities exposed on the maternally inherited *P. sungorus* X chromosome (Figure 1C).

Motivated by these parallel observations, we sought to identify groups of co-expressed genes associated with overgrowth phenotypes exposed in both of our first and second generation hybrid models of placental overgrowth. We first used our published late-term placental expression data from the parental species and reciprocal F_1 hybrids to construct weighted gene co-expression networks, removing one female SxC sample removed during filtering (n=39 placental transcriptomes, 5 males and 5 females per cross-type, Figure S7). We placed 11,392 genes (including 70 candidate imprinted genes) into 29 signed clusters, or 'modules,' of non-overlapping gene sets. For each module, expression values were summarized with an 'eigengene', or the principal component capturing the largest proportion of the variance in gene expression. We then assessed each module for mode of eigengene inheritance and association with placental phenotypes (Table S2; Figure S8). Two key gene networks emerged from this analysis. One module was comprised of 565 genes that tended to be highly expressed in S×C hybrid placenta relative to all other genotypes. The eigengene summary for this module was positively correlated with placental weights (Figure 2A), and included only one candidate imprinted gene (Figure 2B).

The other module was comprised of 1160 genes that tended to show lower summary expression in S×C hybrid placenta (Figure 2C). Expression of this downregulated set was negatively correlated with placental weights (Figure 2C), and included nearly half (44%) of the downregulated transgressive genes identified previously (Brekke *et al.* 2016). Eigengene expression for this module exhibited a stronger parent-of-origin mode of inheritance than the upregulated set (Figure 2C), and was positively correlated with candidate imprinted gene expression (Figure 2D). These findings mirror results from pairwise contrasts where overgrown S×C placentas showed an overall reduction in

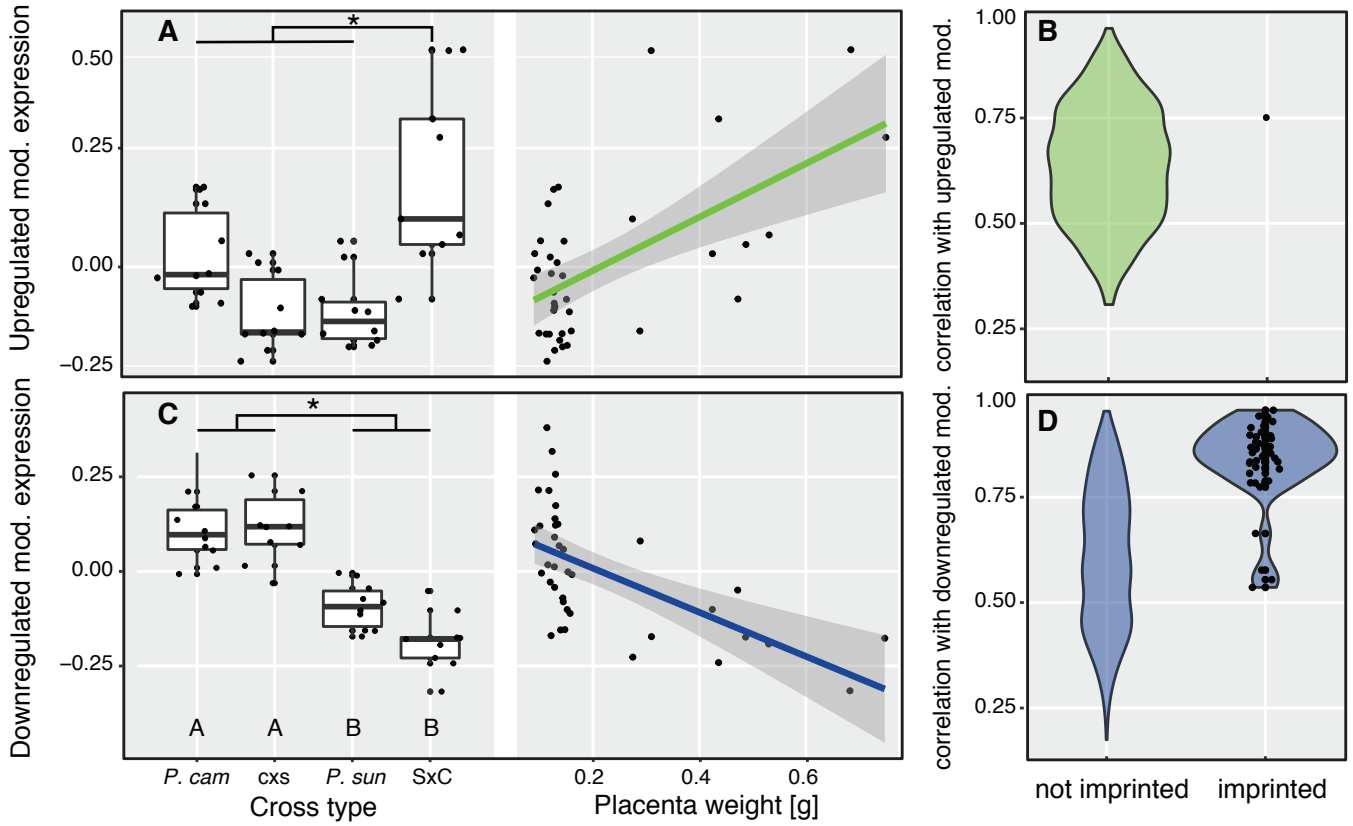

Figure 2. F_1 placenta size-associated gene expression modules. Eigengene gene expression values summarize the group of genes that are upregulated (A, B) and downregulated (C,D) in overgrown SxC placentas, shown as differing by cross type (transgressive expression) and placental size (association with hybrid incompatibility phenotype). The downregulated F_1 module is enriched for highly connected genes from the candidate set of imprinted genes showing maternal bias in Brekke *et al.* (2016) (D). Data points rendered only for imprinted genes in B and D.

the expression levels of several putatively imprinted genes (Figure 3; Brekke *et al.* 2016). Indeed, the downregulated module included ~50% of the candidate placental imprinted genes overall (36 of 70 genes, Table S2, P << 0.0001).

To test for links between our backcross QTL mapping experiment and emergent patterns of placental expression in F_1 hybrid models, we next analyzed 24 transcriptomes from backcross placentas (12 large placentas including six males and six females; 12 normal sized placentas including six males and six females; 11,396 genes placed in the network). One large placenta female was removed during outlier filtering (Figure S9). WGCNA analysis of the backcross transcriptomes revealed seven modules that were correlated with placenta weights. No clusters were significantly associated with embryo weights after controlling for developmental stage and sex (Table S3). The recombinant genotypes within this backcross sample allow us to more clearly differentiate disrupted expression in overgrown hybrid placenta versus species differences (*P. sungorus* versus *P. campbelli*) or interspecific hybridization per se (hybrids versus parental species). Consistent with this, only about one-third of the core genes included in the upregulated and downregulated F_1 modules were captured in the seven placenta-associated backcross modules (563 of 1725 genes). However, most of these overlapping genes (>90%, 513 of 563) were derived from the downregulated F_1 S×C module (Table S3). Further, the backcross module that was most strongly associated with placental weights (432 genes) tended to show lower summary expression in overgrown backcross placenta (Figure 4A). This downregulated backcross module was also highly enriched for autosomal imprinting (33 candidate imprinted genes, P << 0.0001), X-linkage (25 genes, P < 0.01), and for genes in the downregulated F_1 S×C module (206 genes, P << 0.0001; Table S3; Figures 4, S10). In concordance with the overlap between gene lists, genes that were positively correlated with the F_1 downregulated module eigengene were also positively correlated with the BC downregulated module eigengene (Figure S11), indicating module conservation.

Connectivity within scale-free expression networks is commonly defined by the extent to which the expression level of a given gene is correlated with the expression of other genes. We found that candidate imprinted genes were much more highly connected than non-imprinted genes within the downregulated, placenta-associated backcross module (Figure 4B). Co-expression modules are usually characterized by a few highly connected "hub" genes (Ghazalpour *et al.* 2006; Mack *et al.* 2019). We found that the top 5% most connected (hub) genes in the downregulated module were involved in 60% (300) of the top 500 pairwise interactions (Figure 4C, hub interactions indicated by thicker lines and larger circles). Candidate imprinted genes were highly overrepresented as hub genes in this network — one third of hub genes (8 of 21, enrichment binomial exact test P << 0.0001) were candidate imprinted loci with maternally-biased expression, including the top five most highly connected genes (*Plxdc2*, *ProcR*, *Scara5*, *CD68*, and *Wnt4*). Indeed, nearly half (238) of the top 500 pairwise correlations (blue lines) involved at least one candidate imprinted gene (enrichment binomial exact test P << 0.0001).

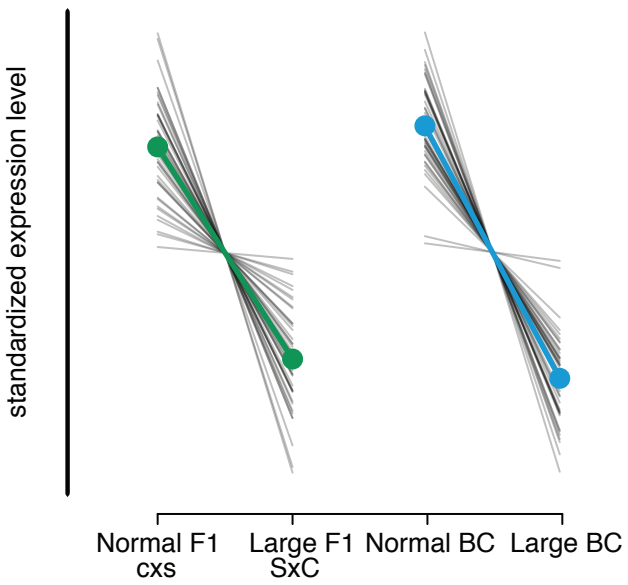

Figure 3. Reduction in candidate imprinted gene expression in overgrown F_1 and BC placentas. Each gray line represents the change in relative expression of a candidate imprinted gene in normal (non-dysplastic) and large (dysplastic) hybrid placentas. Both F_1 and BC experiments demonstrate reduced gene expression of genes showing parent-of-origin bias accompanying placental overgrowth (grand mean indicated by thicker line).

These highly-connected, downregulated genes represented many core biological functions of the placenta, ranging from broadly expressed genes involved in growth and development to those with specialized placental function (Table 1). In both rodents and humans, fetal-derived trophoblast cells shape the vasculature at the maternal-fetal interface, allowing for nutrient transport and immune modulation (Gris *et al.* 2019). Notably, nine of the most connected genes in the BC downregulated module had functions related to coagulation and/or angiogenesis. Endothelial protein C receptor (*ProcR*) is an important anti-coagulant receptor in the trophoblast coagulation cascade (Bouwens *et al.* 2013). Allelic variants that result in under-expression of *ProcR* are associated with fetal loss in humans (Cochery-Nouvellon *et al.* 2009), and there is some evidence that maternal and fetal *ProcR* genotypes can interact to either prevent or induce placenta-mediated adverse pregnancy outcomes (Sood *et al.* 2006). In a healthy rodent placenta, the coagulation initiating tissue factor is counterbalanced by anti-coagulation proteins produced in differentiated syncytiotrophoblast tissue (Sood *et al.* 2006). Development fails without the early expression of the coagulation cascade in the placenta (Isermann *et al.* 2003); however, low levels of anticoagulants later in development are associated with preeclampsia and pregnancy loss (Ebina *et al.* 2015). Several of the hub genes are known to contribute to differentiation of these critical placental layers. For example, *Wnt* signaling is broadly important in placentation and embryonic

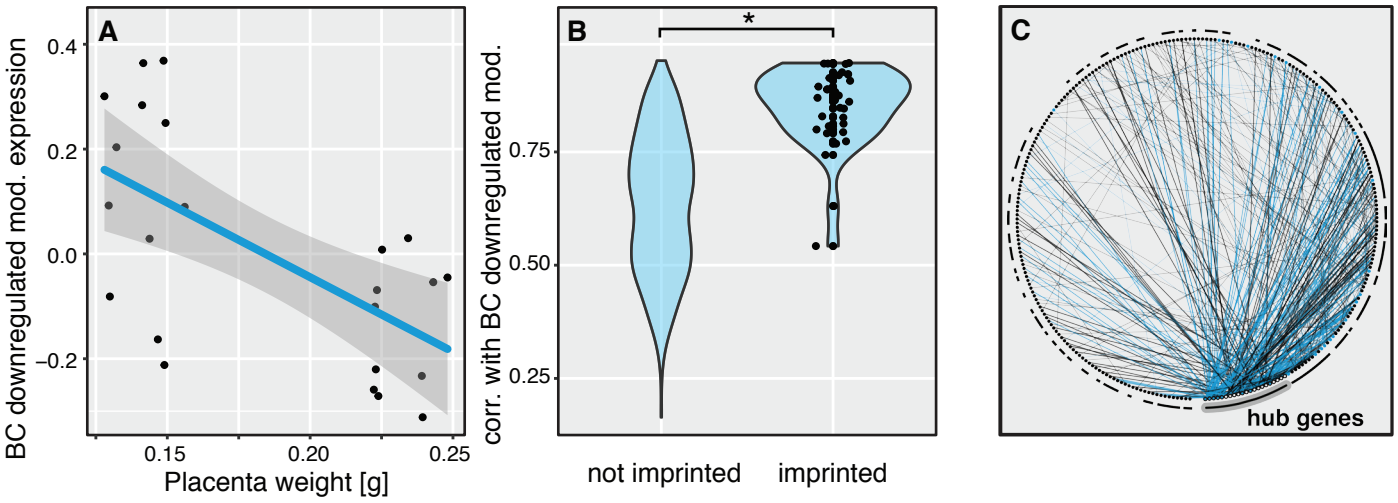

Figure 4. BC downregulated module is associated with placenta size and candidate imprinted genes. (A) Summary expression of the BC downregulated module is significantly associated with placenta size controlling for Theiler stage and sex ($p < 0.001$). (B) This module is enriched for highly connected, candidate imprinted genes ($\mu_{imprinted}$=0.8489±0.015; $\mu_{not\ imprinted}$=0.6370±0.008; Welch's two-sided T-test, $t_{49.315}$=12.255, P<0.0001). Data points rendered only for imprinted genes. (C) The top 500 pairwise connections within this network largely involve the top 5% most connected genes, with interactions involving hub genes have a thicker connecting line and a solid black circumference notation at the interaction partner. Interactions involving a candidate imprinted gene are indicated in blue.

development, and *Wnt4* specifically may be involved in signaling between the fetal and maternal placental layers (Sonderegger *et al.* 2010; Knoefler and Pollheimer 2013). Another such specialized hub gene, *Erv3*, is part of a family of genes co-opted from endogenous retroviruses and are involved in immunomodulation, fusion and differentiation of trophoblasts (Mangeney *et al.* 2007) and are increasingly recognized for their role in regulating placental gene expression (Pavlicev *et al.* 2015; Chuong 2018). Similarly, the Plexin domain containing 2 (*Plxdc2*) gene encodes an endothelial cell-surface transmembrane receptor (Cheng *et al.* 2014) that is often co-expressed with *Wnt* signaling genes (Miller *et al.* 2007). Other candidate hub genes play roles in cell-cell adhesion and differentiation (Wilson *et al.* 2007; Jang *et al.* 2016; Zakaria *et al.* 2019), immune function (Astarita *et al.* 2012; Li *et al.* 2013; Wang *et al.* 2013; Chistiakov *et al.* 2017), nutrient metabolism and delivery (Schmidt *et al.* 1992; Li *et al.* 2009; Malabanan and Blind 2016), and transcriptional regulation (Ferreira *et al.* 2019) (see Table 1).

Overall, our expression data suggest a strong connection between hybrid placental overgrowth, the maternally expressed *P. sungorus* X chromosome, and the imprinted expression of autosomal genes. Our candidate imprinted gene set included several genes known to be maternally (e.g., *Igf2*, *Mest*, *Peg3*) or paternally imprinted (e.g., *Axl*, *H19*, *Tfpi2*, *Wt1*) in mice, as well as several novel candidates including most of the hub genes (Table 1). Confirmation that these candidates reflect the evolution of novel parent-of-origin epigenetic silencing in *Phodopus* (e.g., through DNA methylation or other mechanisms) awaits detailed functional validation beyond the scope of the current study. Others have argued that contamination of maternal blood or tissue may often bias patterns of allele-specific expression in the post-embryonic placenta (Wang *et al.* 2011, but see Finn *et al.* 2014). We previously found no evidence for systematic maternal contamination of dissected placental tissue in *Phodopus* (i.e., paternal:maternal allele ratios were ~1:1 genome-wide), but it is possible that maternally-biased expression of some of these candidates reflects a large maternal contribution to overall placental expression levels. Indeed, hub genes such as *Wnt4* are thought to be directly involved in signaling between the fetal and maternal placental layers (Sonderegger *et al.* 2010; Knoefler and Pollheimer 2013). Regardless of the underlying regulatory mechanisms – epigenomic imprinting or fetal-maternal transcript sharing – our results suggest that X-linked and autosomal genes with maternally-biased expression play a central role in the evolution of placental development and the disruption of placental pathways in hybrids.

The existence of placental networks of maternally-biased gene expression is consistent with some predictions of the co-adaptation theory of gene expression, whereby maternal (or paternal) expression at one gene can select for maternally-biased (or paternally-biased) expression at other positively interacting genes (Wolf and Hager 2006; Wolf 2013; Wolf and Brandvain 2014; O'Brien and Wolf 2017). Such a co-evolutionary process should result in the broader integration of imprinted gene networks and the evolution of separate co-expressed networks of maternally and paternally expressed genes (Wolf and Brandvain 2014; Patten *et al.* 2016). Furthermore, we propose that the X chromosome, in particular, should play a central role in the evolution of maternally-biased placental networks in many mammalian species. The paternal X chromosome remains silenced in extra-embryonic tissues in rodents and some other placental mammals, resulting in imprinted XCI (Takagi and Sasaki 1975; Dupont and Gribnau 2013; Lee and Bartolomei 2013) and predominantly maternal expression of hundreds of X-linked genes in the placenta of males and females (Xue *et al.* 2002; Heard and Disteche 2006; Al Nadaf *et al.* 2010; Brekke *et al.* 2016). Functionally, imprinted XCI contributes the vast majority of maternally

Gene Name	No. interactions in top 500	Module Correlation	Imprint-ing status	Function (UniProtKB)	Clotting/ angiogenesis	Immune	Growth and development	References
Plxdc2	32	0.9259	candidate	cell surface signaling	maybe		yes	(Cheng *et al.* 2014)
Procr	28	0.9451	candidate	cell surface signaling, blood coagulation	yes	yes		(Sood *et al.* 2006; Bouwens *et al.* 2013)
Scara5	23	0.9218	candidate	iron transport, blood coagulation	yes		yes	(Li *et al.* 2009)
Cd68	20	0.9133	candidate	immune function		yes		(Chistiakov *et al.* 2017)
Wnt4	20	0.9451	candidate	developmental signaling			yes	(Sonderegger *et al.* 2010; Knoefler and Pollheimer 2013)
Ppard	19	0.9181		transcription factor; steroid hormone receptor			yes	(Schmidt *et al.* 1992)
Adm	18	0.9515		immune function	yes	yes		(Li *et al.* 2013)
Boc	18	0.9217		cell-cell adhesion, tissue differentiation			yes	(Zakaria *et al.* 2019)
Igsf11	17	0.8696		cell-cell adhesion, cell growth, neurogenesis			yes	(Jang *et al.* 2016)
Erv3	17	0.9463	candidate	tissue identity and immunomodulation		yes	yes	(Mangeney *et al.* 2007)
Tbc1d2b	16	0.8934		protein modification and transport			yes	(Manshouri *et al.* 2019)
Olfml3	15	0.8884	candidate	developmental signaling	yes			(Miljkovic-Licina *et al.* 2012
Lmcd1	13	0.9115		transcription factor			yes	(Ferreira *et al.* 2019)
Fn3krp	12	0.8801		protein modification/glycation	maybe	maybe	yes	(Karabag *et al.* 2007)
Numbl	11	0.879		cell-cell adhesion, neurogenesis			yes	(Wilson *et al.* 2007)
Ipmk	11	0.8049		lipid metabolism			yes	(Malabanan and Blind 2016)
F13a1	10	0.888	candidate	metal binding, blood coagulation	yes			(Muszbek *et al.* 2011)
Pdpn	10	0.8987		cell-cell adhesion, developmental signaling		yes		(Astarita *et al.* 2012)
Larp6	10	0.824		collagen biosynthesis, fibrosis			yes	(Stefanovic *et al.* 2019)
Gypc	10	0.8474		cell membrane stability, red blood cells	yes			(Wilder *et al.* 2009)
Fut4	10	0.8666		cell-cell adhesion, immune function	maybe	yes		(Wang *et al.* 2013)

Table 1. Hub genes in the downregulated, placenta-associated BC module. The top 5% most connected genes in the downregulated module, with connection defined as the number of times the gene was included in the top 500 strongest pairwise correlations in gene expression between genes in the module. Candidate imprinting status (Brekke *et al.* 2016) and function of the genes are indicated, with emphasis on placental functions of clotting and angiogenesis, immunity, and development.

expressed genes in the placenta, which as a consequence should favor the evolution of maternal expression at interacting autosomal genes. Although XCI appears to be random in the placenta of humans (Moreira De Mello *et al.* 2010) and some other mammals (Okamoto *et al.* 2011; Wang *et al.* 2012; Zou *et al.* 2019), male hemizygosity may still favor the evolution of maternal expression at interacting autosomal genes under some conditions (Wolf and Brandvain 2014). Additionally, the physiological integration of maternal blood supply and trophoblast-generated fetal vasculature is a particularly compelling biological context that should favor the evolution of coordinated maternal-fetal gene expression networks, regardless of the pattern of XCI. Given our data and these general predictions, the broader relevance of X-autosomal gene expression networks to placental evolution and development warrant further consideration.

Towards the genetic basis and architecture of disrupted placental expression

Our transcriptome analyses revealed a central link between the X chromosome and the disruption of autosomal regulatory pathways in the placenta. To integrate our expression and placental phenotypes more directly, we next tested for QTL that explained expression variation in the overall module eigengene. Despite a small sample size (n=23), the X chromosome was a significant predictor of downregulated BC module expression after permutation (Figure S12A). In principle, this signal could represent a predominant contribution of X-linked genes to the eigengene summary of expression within this parent-of-origin module, or a genome-wide trans-regulatory signal dependent on the species origin of the X chromosome. Only ~6% of genes in downregulated backcross module were X-linked (25 of 432, binomial exact test P = 0.006). These genes were significantly under-represented in the correlation network with only 7 of the top 500 pairwise correlations including an X-linked gene (56 pairs expected; binomial exact test P << 0.0001). It is also possible that the strong X-linked signal could be a correlated side effect of overall placental phenotypes on expression levels caused by X-linked hybrid incompatibilities. However, we found no significant QTL for the six other expression modules correlated with placental weight (Figure S12B,C), thus this signal is unlikely to be a consequence of a spurious phenotypic correlation.

These results strongly support the hypothesis that X-linked incompatibilities interacting with a hybrid autosomal background are the primary determinant of disrupted autosomal expression observed in both F_1 and BC hybrids, but the architecture of underlying X-autosome incompatibilities remain unresolved. The current genome assembly for dwarf hamsters is highly fragmented (Bao *et al.* 2019) and has not been arranged into an ordered physical map, limiting our ability to fully integrate our transcriptome and quantitative genetic analyses. To begin to

overcome these limitations, we used a custom exon capture experiment to anchor 3,616 placenta-expressed genes onto the *Phodopus* genetic map, including 159 X-linked and 34 autosomal imprinted genes (Table S13). An additional 212 X-linked genes were identified based on patterns of inheritance and orthology with mouse, but were not ordered on the genetic map (371 X-linked genes total). We placed approximately one-third of the BC downregulated network genes (162 of 432 genes) on to the genetic map, including 17 of the 21 hub genes (Table 1). Genes in this anchored network were distributed across 12 of the 13 autosomes and the X chromosome (Figure S14).

If there was a hybrid interaction between the X chromosome and a specific diploid genotype at an autosomal locus that influenced the expression of that gene, then individuals that inherited a maternal *P. sungorus* X should show a larger change in gene expression for one of the autosomal genotypes than the other. To test for such interactions, we calculated expression interaction (EI) scores by comparing the fold change difference in expression between the two possible autosomal genotypes of all mapped genes (i.e., homozygous for the *P. campbelli* allele or heterozygous) dependent on the genotype of the maternal X chromosome (*P. campbelli* or *P. sungorus*). Mapped genes from the BC downregulated module (n=124) showed higher EI scores on average when compared to genes not placed in any WGCNA module ($\mu_{downregulated}$=0.229±0.008, μ_{null}=0.165±0.006, $F_{1,870}$ = 14.13, P =0.0002, ANOVA). Next we used a linear model to assess the relationship between gene connectivity and EI score in the downregulated module. Hub genes disproportionately overlap with male sterility loci in hybrid mice (Morgan *et al.* 2020), suggesting that incompatibilities may be more common among highly connected genes. However, we found support for only a slight increase in EI score for genes that were the most connected to the module (Figure 5A, EI ~ module correlation; adjusted r^2 = 0.0243, $F_{1,122}$ = 4.063, P = 0.046). Interestingly, much of the signal for increased EI scores appeared to be driven by candidate imprinted genes rather than hub gene status per se (Figure 5B, Figure S15, EI ~ candidate imprinting status; adjusted r^2 = 0.059, $F_{1,122}$ = 8.75, P = 0.0037; EI ~ hub; $F_{1,122}$ = 0.005, P = 0.942), again underscoring the central role of genes with maternally biased expression within the downregulated module.

Finally, we polarized EI scores to evaluate specific X-autosome combinations with the downregulated module for candidate hybrid incompatibilities. Within the BC architecture, hybrid incompatibilities involving autosomal recessive or imprinted genes should manifest when the maternally inherited *P. sungorus* X chromosome was combined with maternally inherited *P. campbelli* autosomal alleles (all paternal alleles were *P. campbelli*). Consistent with this prediction, we observed positive polarized EI scores for imprinted genes within the downregulated module demonstrating that these expression interactions were driven largely by mismatches between the maternal autosomal and X chromosome genotypes (P = 0.043, Tukey HSD test; non-hub genes, imprinted vs null module, Figure S16A). Furthermore, we found that maternally mismatched imprinted genes in the downregulated module showed larger fold changes when compared to non-imprinted genes regardless of their status as a hub gene (P = 0.045, hub imprinted vs non-imprinted; P < 0.0001, non-hub imprinted vs non-imprinted, Tukey's HSD test, Figure S16B). Collectively, these patterns suggest that maternally expressed imprinted autosomal genes within the downregulated module are more likely to be involved in hybrid incompatible interactions with the maternal X chromosome.

One such maternally-biased hub gene was the highly expressed endogenous retrovirus hub gene *Erv3* discussed previously (Figure 5C). Individuals with an interspecific mismatch between the maternally inherited X chromosome

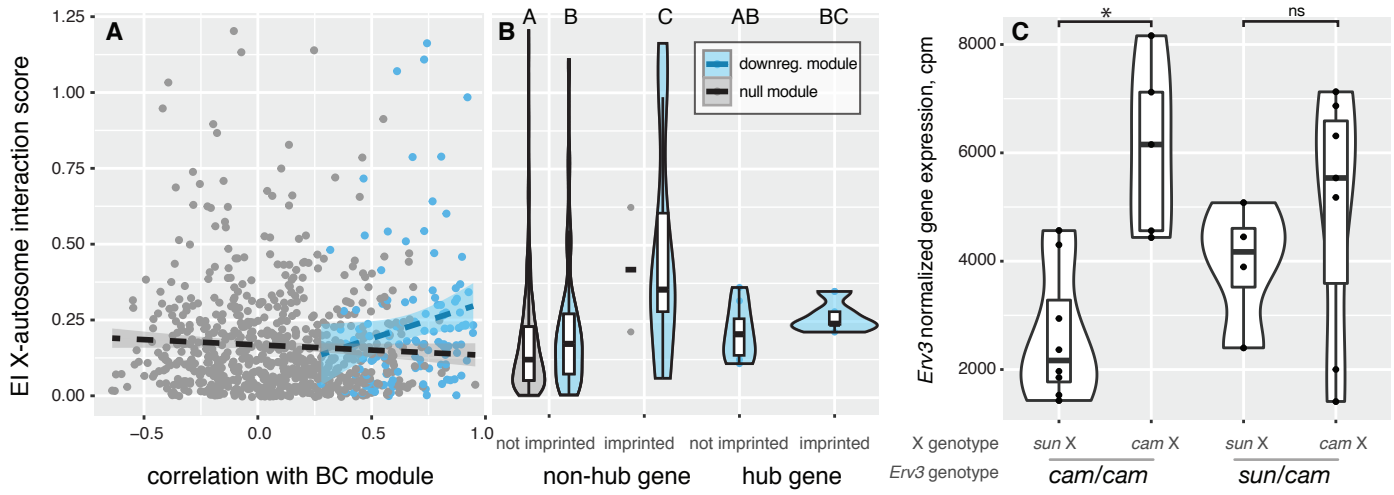

Figure 5. Expression Dobzhansky-Muller incompatibilities exposed in BC hybrids. Greater disruption in the gene expression with X chromosome – autosome mismatch (EI score) is slightly associated with genes more connected in the downregulated BC network module (A). The difference is explained by candidate imprinted genes, rather than highly connected hub genes (B). the EI expression pattern is illustrated with the placental endogenous retrovirus gene *Erv3*, where mismatch between maternal X genotype and maternal *Erv3* genotype results in a greater reduction in gene expression. Letters and star indicate significant differences at p<0.01, assigned by Tukey HSD.

(*P. sungorus*) and maternal allele at *Erv3* (*P. campbelli*) showed nearly a one-fold (0.9x) decrease in expression compared to individuals with matching maternal genotypes. As with most other mapped candidate imprinted genes (Figure S17), *Erv3* retained maternally-biased allele-specific expression in heterozygous BC suggesting no disruption of imprinting status.

X-linked incompatibilities also underlie parent of origin placental overgrowth in deer mice (Vrana *et al.* 2000), and house mice (Zechner *et al.* 1996; Hemberger *et al.* 1999), but the connection to the broader disruption of placental regulatory pathways has been less clear. Studies in deer mice have linked the X chromosome with disrupted imprinted placental pathways, including the autosomal imprinted gene Peg3 (Duselis *et al.* 2004; Loschiavo *et al.* 2007). X-linked incompatibilities are also the primary cause of hybrid placental overgrowth growth in some hybrid crosses of house mice (*Mus musculus* x *Mus spretus*; Zechner *et al.* 1996; Hemberger *et al.* 1999), but no direct link between disrupted expression of candidate imprinted genes and placental overgrowth (Shi *et al.* 2004; Zechner *et al.* 2004). However, a recent genome-wide study on the same *Mus* hybrid system showed transgressive autosomal expression in undergrown hybrid placentas (reciprocal F_1 crosses were not performed), including disruption of the imprinted *Kcnq1* cluster (Arévalo *et al.* 2020). In these experiments, males showed more severe placental phenotypes and disrupted gene expression, which is hypothesized to involve interactions with the imprinted X chromosome (Arévalo *et al.* 2020) . Artificial insemination between more divergent *Mus* species (*Mus musculus* x *Mus caroli*) resulted in massively abnormal placenta showing local demethylation and overexpression of an X-linked retroelement (Brown *et al.* 2012). Similarly, loss of genomic imprinting was correlated with fetal overgrowth produced from assisted reproduction between divergent cattle breeds (Chen *et al.* 2015; Chen *et al.* 2016). Most of these works have focused on F_1 crosses or candidate gene approaches, limiting further insights into the role that X-autosome interactions play in the broader disruption regulatory pathways in hybrid placenta. Building on these previous works, we show that X-linked hybrid incompatibilities underlie the disruption of placental growth, with widespread effects on the misexpression of imprinted autosomal pathways.

Gene expression plays a central role in organismal development and morphological evolution (King and Wilson 1975; Carroll 2008; Sears *et al.* 2015), but the overall importance of regulatory incompatibilities to species formation has remained unclear (Butlin *et al.* 2012; Guerrero *et al.* 2016). In mammals, considerable progress has been made in linking disruption of specific epigenetic regulatory mechanisms on the X chromosome (e.g., meiotic sex chromosome inactivation) to the evolution of hybrid male sterility during the relatively early stages of speciation (Bhattacharyya *et al.* 2013; Davis *et al.* 2015; Larson *et al.* 2017). However, it has remained unclear if other developmental pathways are also predisposed to disruption in animal hybrids (Coyne and Orr 2004; Brekke and Good 2014). We suggest that placental development may represent a second developmental hotspot for the evolution of postzygotic reproductive isolation through the widespread disruption of gene expression. Similar to hybrid male sterility (Good *et al.* 2008), the X chromosome also appears to play a central role in the genetic basis of mammalian hybrid inviability caused by placental dysplasia (Figure 1, Zechner *et al.* 1996; Hemberger *et al.* 1999; Vrana *et al.* 2000). Through these parallel systems of hybrid sterility and inviability, a trend is emerging where sex chromosome evolution and genetic conflict within regulatory systems appears to fuel divergence within these key developmental processes (Crespi and Nosil 2013; Larson *et al.* 2018), ultimately leading to the formation of reproductive barriers between species. Striking parallels also exist in plants, where hybrid seed inviability evolves rapidly (Garner *et al.* 2016; Coughlan and Matute 2020) and has been linked to the intensity of parental conflict (Coughlan *et al.* 2020) and the disruption of imprinted gene expression in the extra-embryonic endosperm (Wolff *et al.* 2015).

Conclusions

By combining quantitative genetic mapping of placental overgrowth with placental transcriptomic data, we uncovered genome-wide networks of gene expression that were disrupted as a consequence of incompatible genetic interactions with the X chromosome. These data indicate that genetic interactions between the X chromosome and networks of imprinted and non-imprinted genes appear to be critical for proper placental development in hamsters. Qualitatively similar placental (Zechner *et al.* 1996; Hemberger *et al.* 1999; Vrana *et al.* 2000) and expression (Duselis *et al.* 2004; Loschiavo *et al.* 2007; Arévalo *et al.* 2020) phenotypic patterns have been demonstrated in other hybrid rodent systems. As a consequence, we argue that the X chromosome plays a central role in the evolution of placental gene expression networks and the rapid accumulation of hybrid developmental barriers between mammalian species.

Competing Interests

The authors declare they have no conflict of interest.

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Data availability

Raw sequencing reads are archived at NCBI under BioProject PRJNA306772. Accession numbers for individual libraries are provided in Table S5. Supplementary data are provided in file Data S1.

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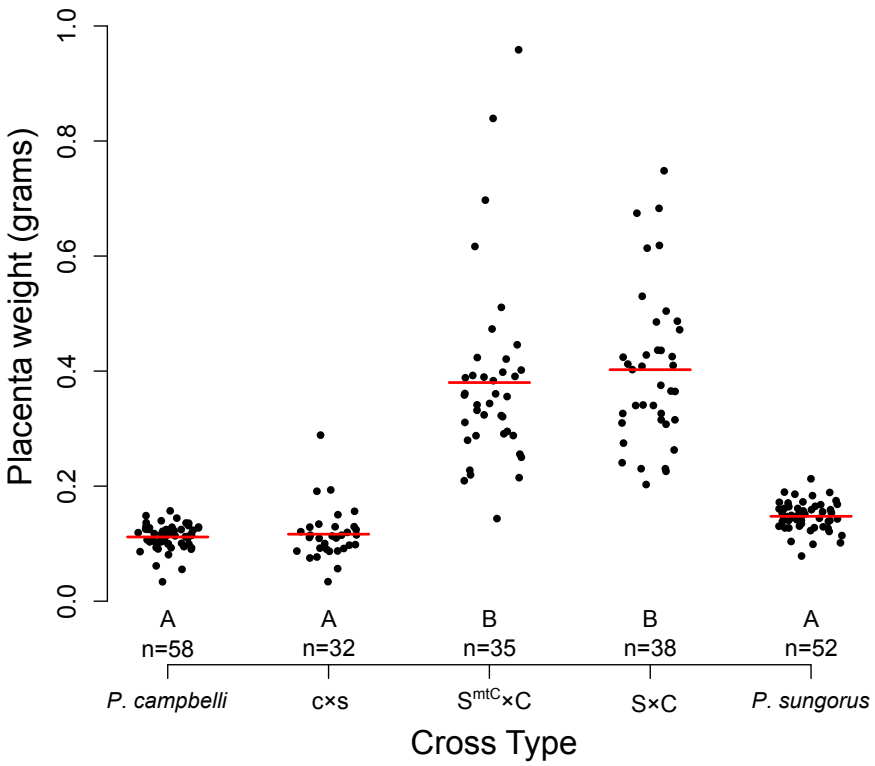

Figure S1. Mitochondria have no effect on placenta size. If an interaction involving the *P. sungorus* mitochondria causes overgrowth, the placentas from the S^{mtC}×C cross should be similar to the parental type. Instead they are indistinguishable from S×C hybrids ($F_{4,213}$ = 106, P<0.001, ANOVA). Data for *P. campbelli*, c×s, S×C, and *P. sungorus* from Brekke and Good (2014). Statistically significant groups 'A' and 'B' were assigned with a Tukey HSD test.

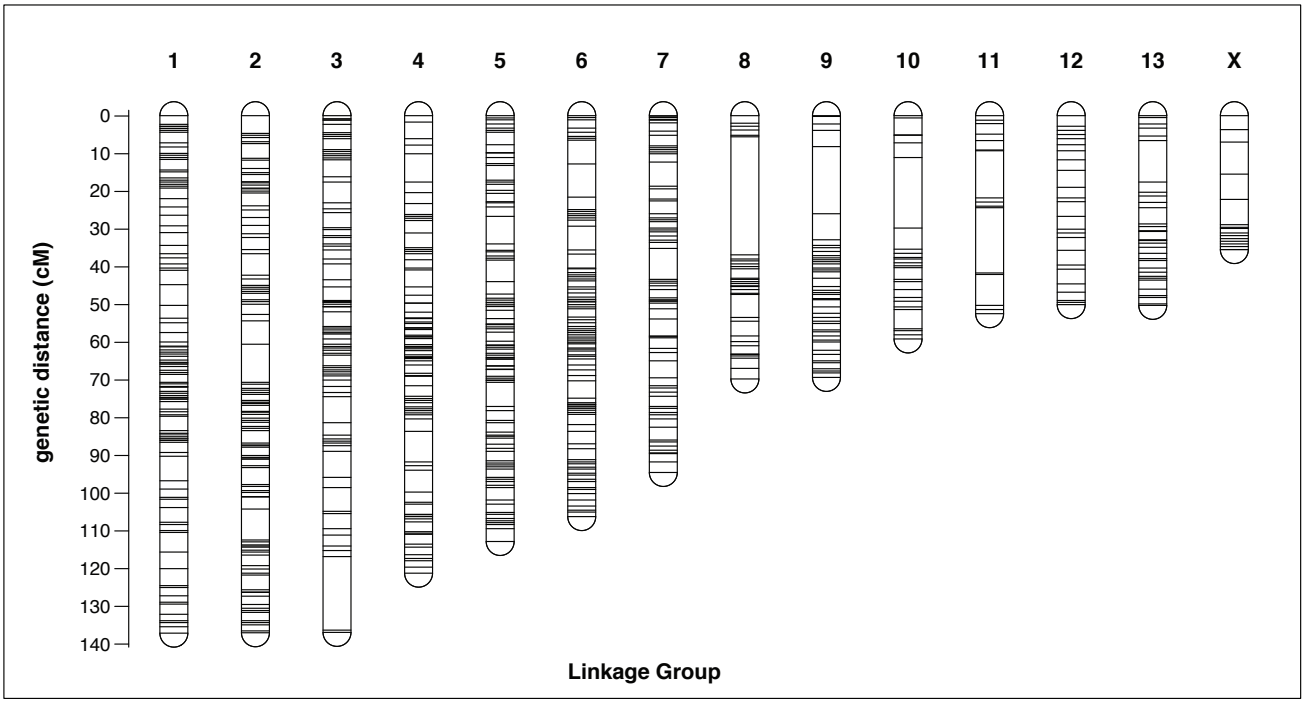

Figure S2. Genetic map of *Phodopus* dwarf hamsters. This map includes 1,215 RAD markers and spans 1,213.7cM across 13 autosomal linkage groups and the X chromosome. Linkage groups are numbered by decreasing length. The sequence of each marker and their exact locations in centiMorgans can be found in Supplemental Table 1. Specific locations of genes can be found in Supplemental Table 2; visualized with R/LinkageMapView (Ouellette *et al.* 2018).

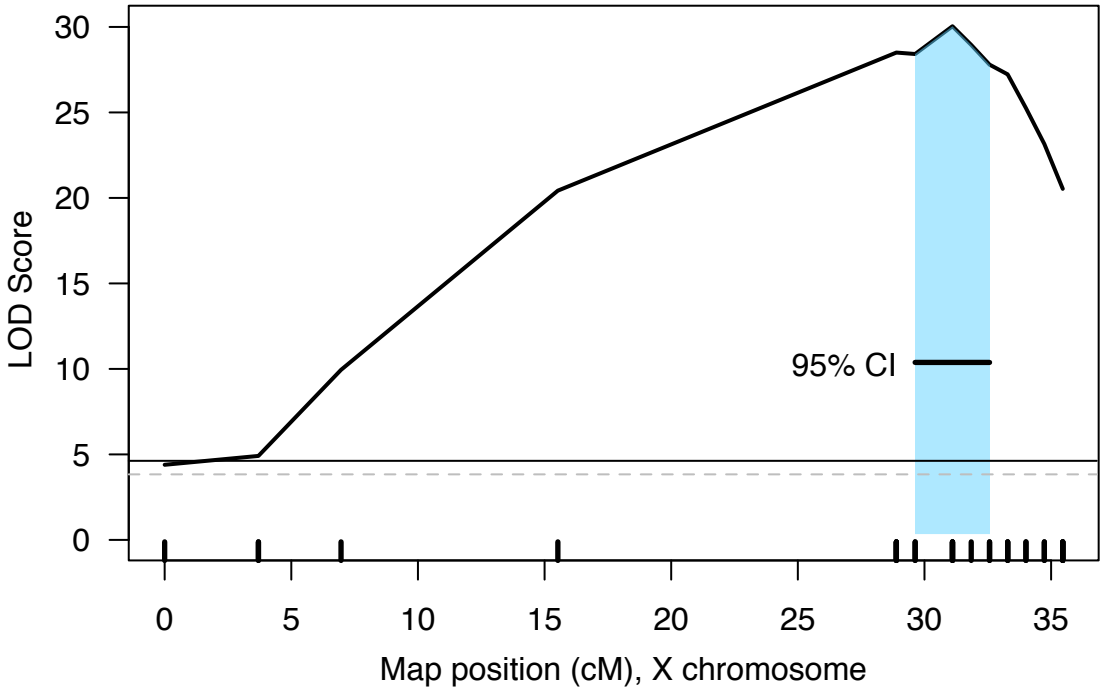

Figure S3. QTL interval on the X chromosome overlaps with increased marker density. Placental weight QTL likely corresponds to region of reduced recombination on the map. Solid line indicates permutation-based P = 0.01 significance threshold, dashed line indicates permutation-based P = 0.05 significance threshold.

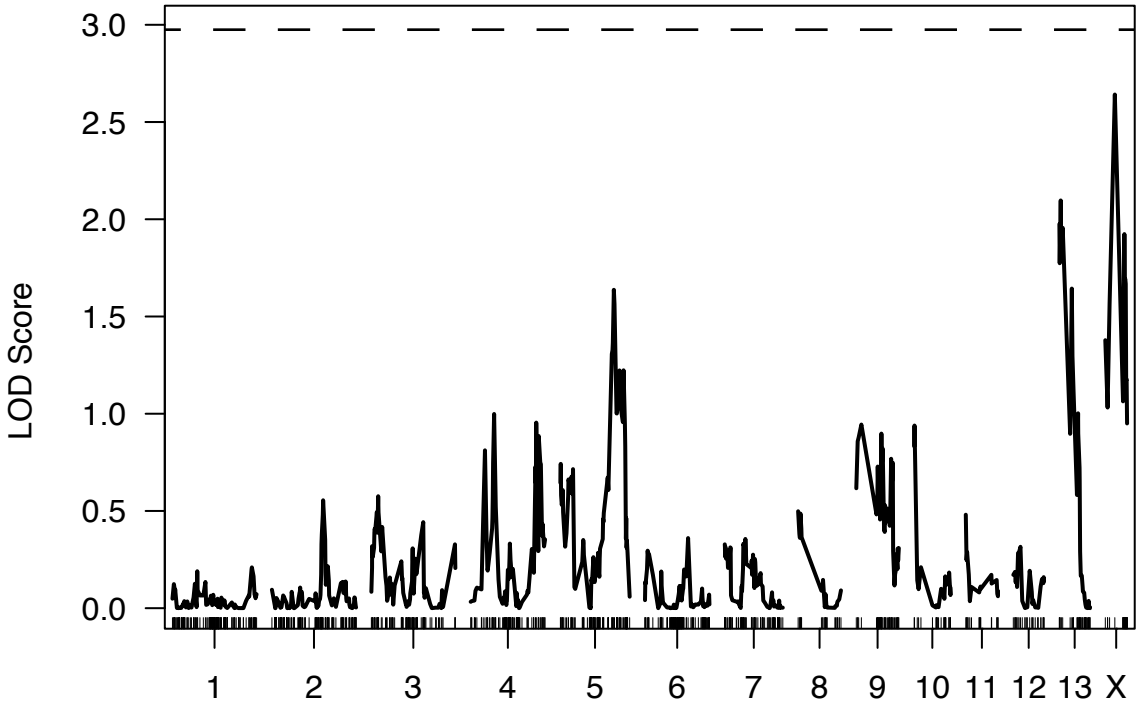

Figure S4. No QTL for embryo weight detectable in the BC mapping experiment. No peak passes the permutation threshold when controlling for Theiler stage and edema, P = 0.05 permutation threshold indicated with dashed line.

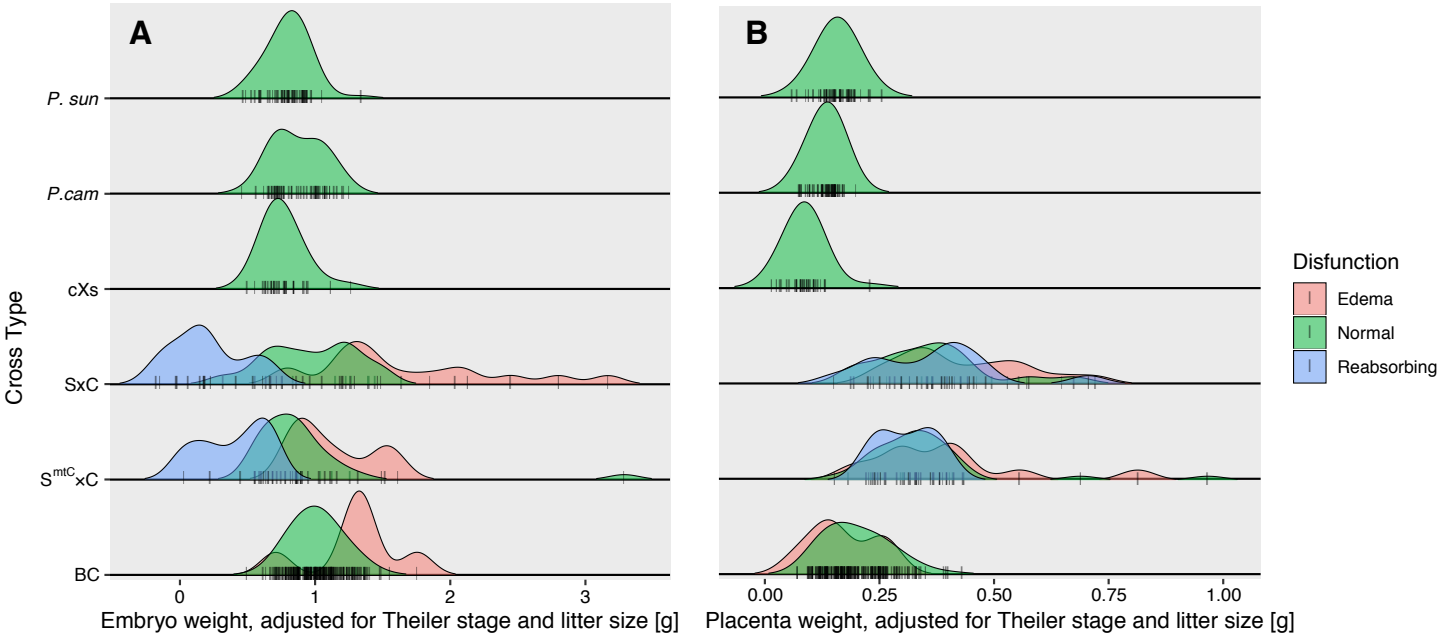

Figure S5. Edema and reabsorption explain much of the variance in embryo size, but not placenta size, in interspecies hybrid hamsters. Reabsorption (blue) and edema (red) shift embryo size away from the mean in *P. sungorus* x *P. campbelli* (SxC) F_1, SxC mitochondrial introgression, and BC hybrid hamsters (A), but have little effect on placenta size (B).

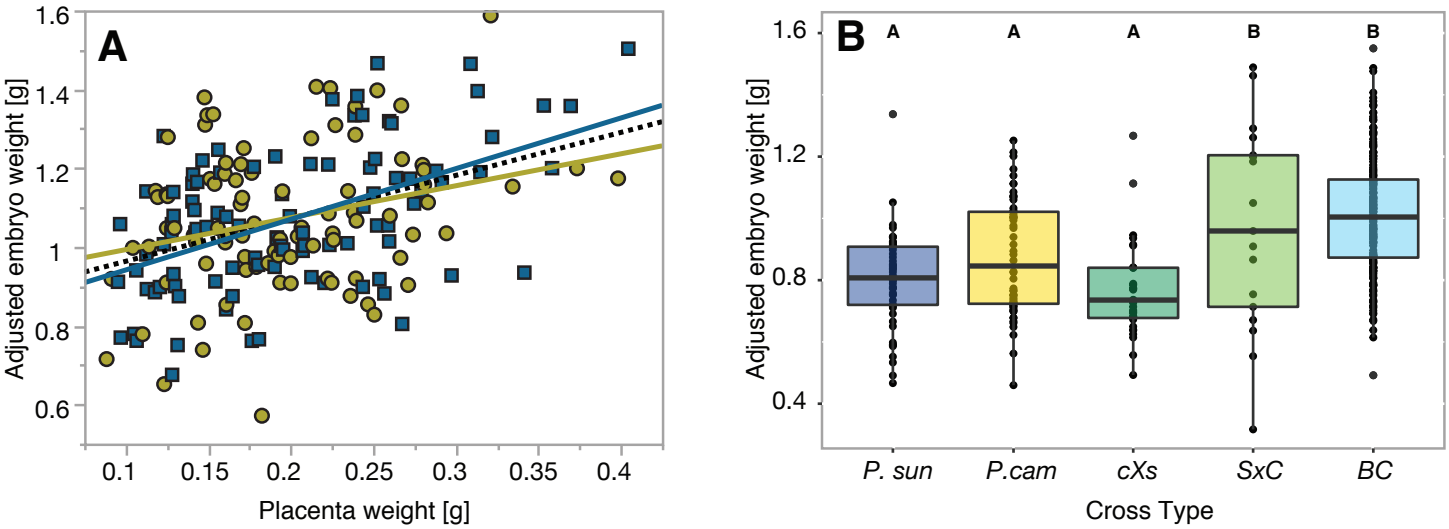

Figure S6. Embryo weight in the BC. Embryo weight is positively associated with placental weight in the BC, more strongly in males (blue, adjusted $r^2 = 0.257$, $F_{1,95} = 33.8$, $P << 0.0001$) than females (yellow, adjusted $r^2 = 0.065$, $F_{1,88} = 7.15$, $P = 0.0090$). When BC embryo weights are analyzed along with F_1 hybrids, the overgrown SxC F_1 and BC hybrids show a slight but significant increase in size controlling for stage and edema (adjusted $r^2 = 0.159$, $F_{1,184} = 36.0$, $P << 0.0001$, ANOVA)

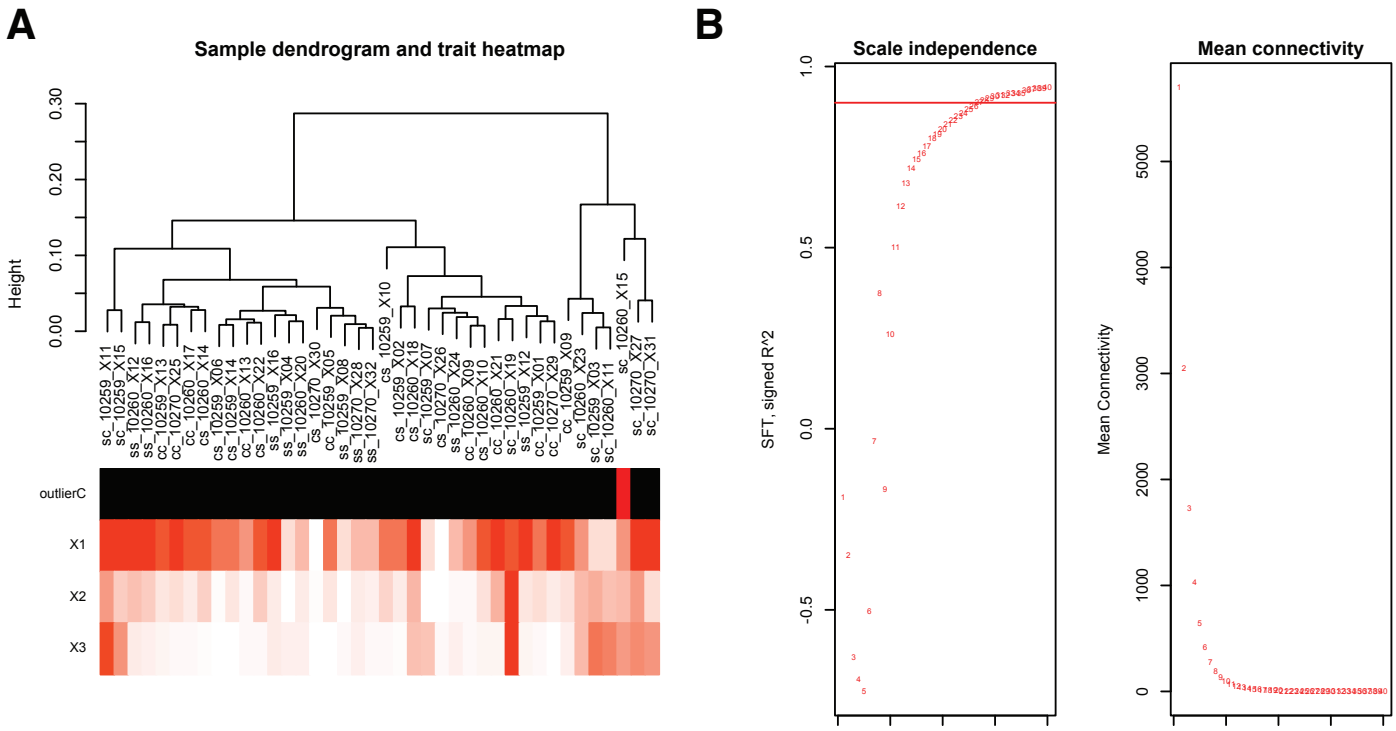

Figure S7. Standard WGCNA output, F_1 data. (A) Outlier identification of sample to be removed in red. (B) Dynamic thresholding.

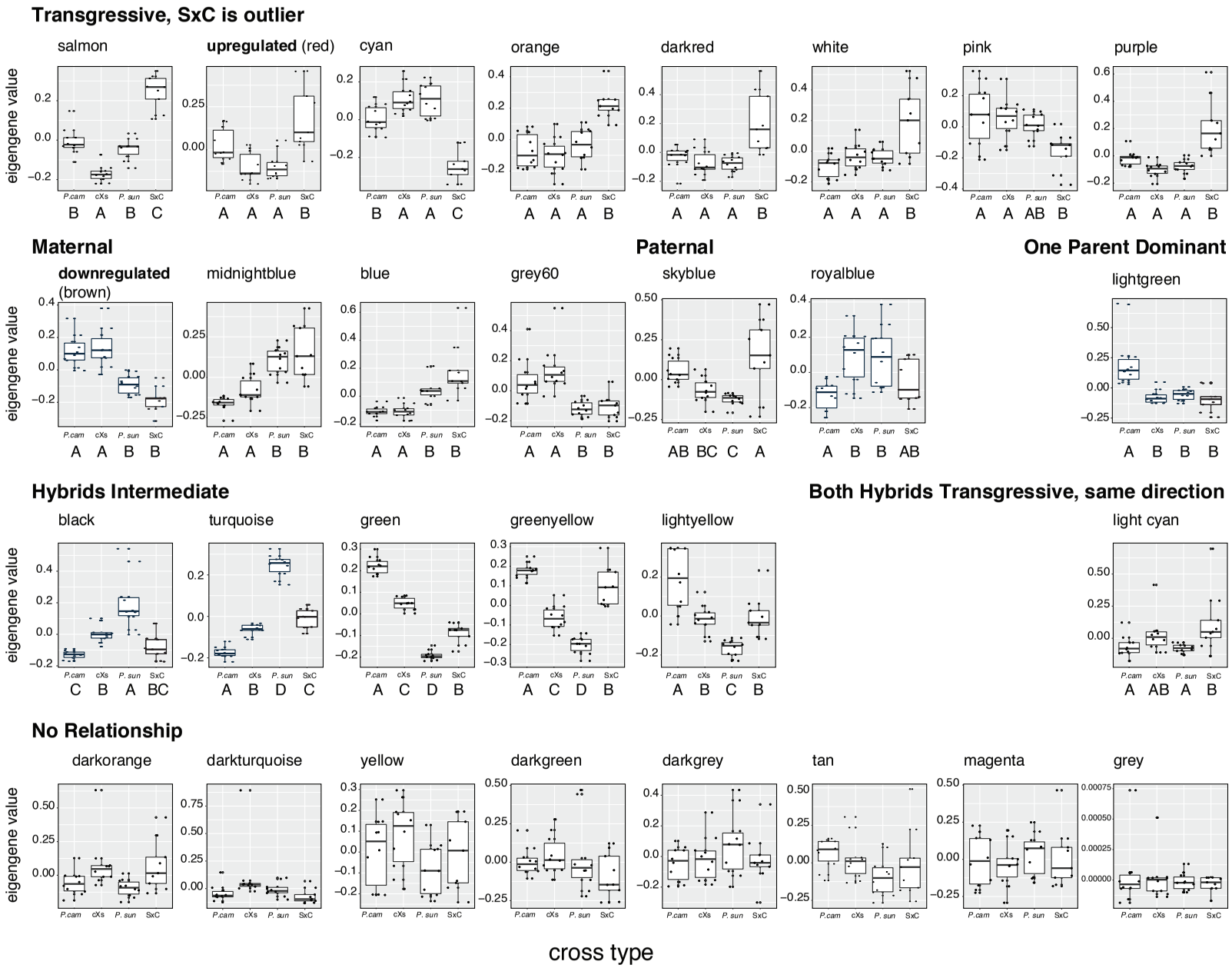

Figure S8. Assignment of inheritance patterns of modules in network. Summary values of module expression (module eigengene) tested with an ANOVA to identify parent of origin and transgressive expression. Color names are arbitrarily and randomly generated by the program, and have no additional meaning. Letters indicate Tukey HSD assigned significance groups at $p<0.05$.

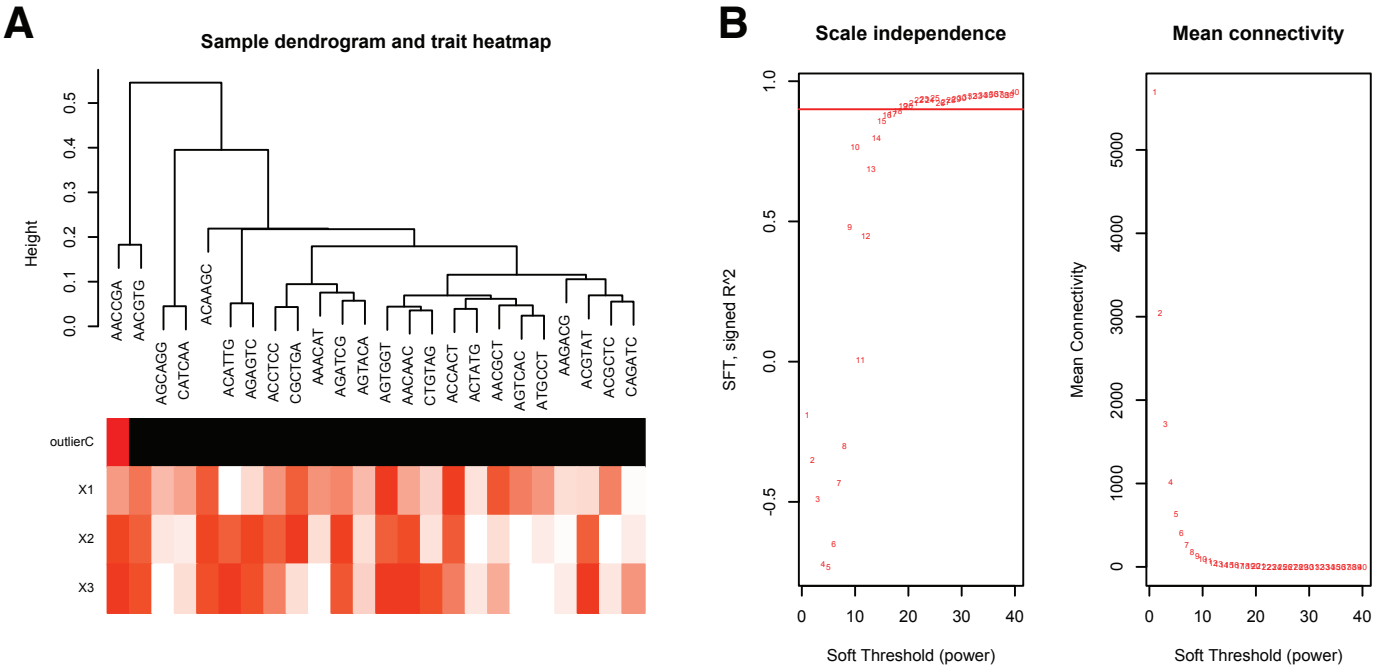

Figure S9. Standard WGCNA output, BC data. (A) Outlier identification of sample to be removed in red. (B) Dynamic thresholding.

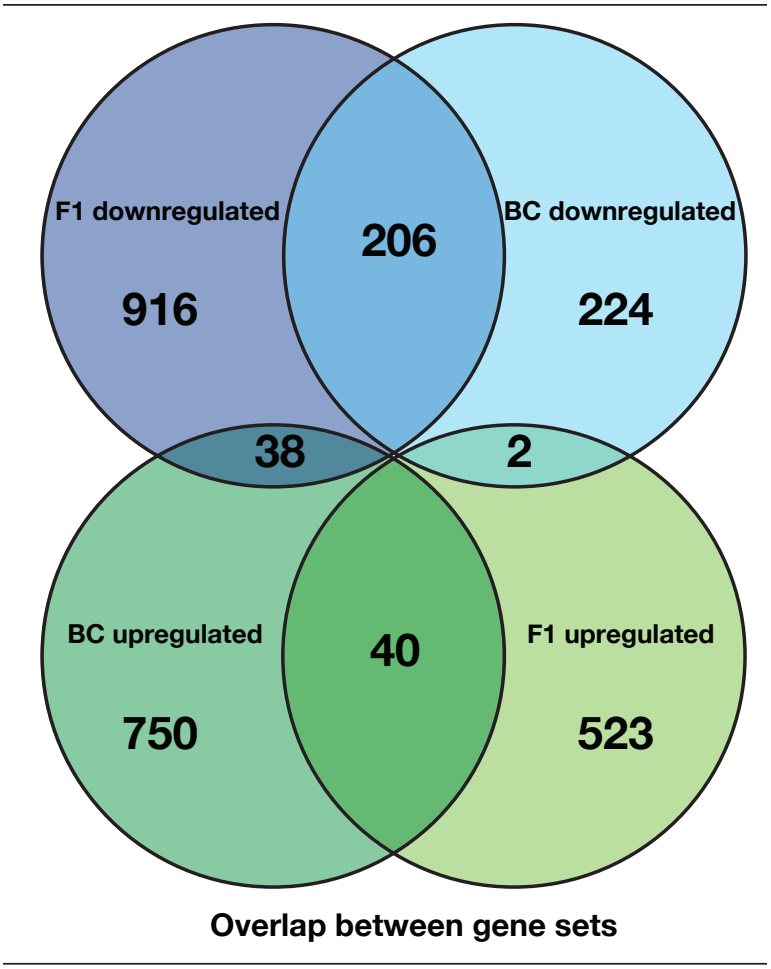

Figure S10. Count overlap between key F_1 and BC modules. Venn diagram showing counts of genes shared between F_1 and BC downregulated and upregulated placenta modules. The downregulated modules share the most genes (206).

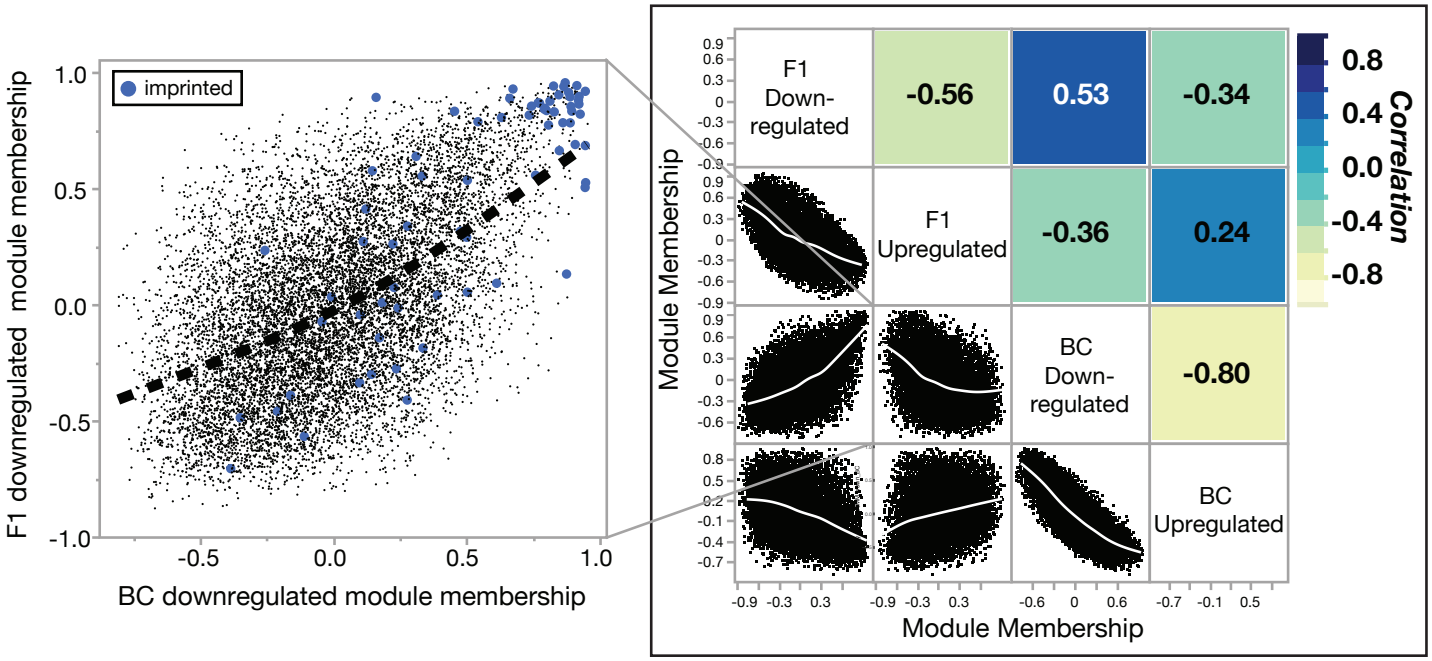

Figure S11. Correlation between key F_1 and BC modules. Each gene in the network has a correlation to each module eigengene, whether that gene is placed in the module or not. We can assess how similar two modules are by asking whether genes are generally showing the same bivariate correlation to each module. Not only are the downregulated and upregulated modules within each data set negatively correlated with each other (F_1, Pearson's R = -0.56, p<0.0001, BC, Pearson's R = -0.80, p<0.0001), the F_1 and BC downregulated modules across experiments are positively correlated with each other (Pearson's R = 0.53, p<0.0001). Notably, the same candidate imprinted genes share high connectivity/module membership with the network in both data sets (blue dots, inset).

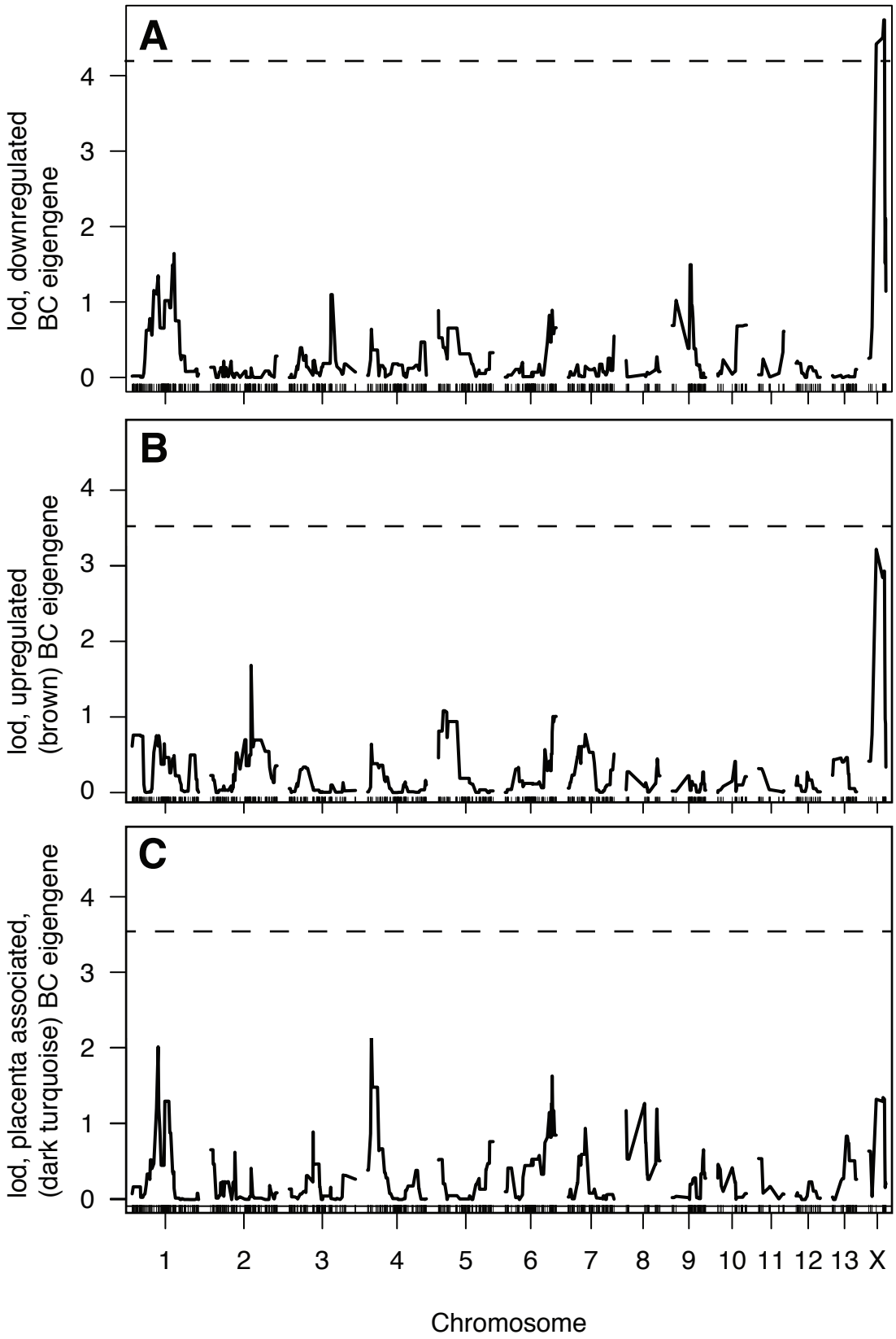

Figure S12. eigenQTL in BC hybrids. Using the module summary eigengene as a phenotype to explain the genetic basis of gene expression patterns in 23 BC hybrids, we find that the downregulated module has a single QTL on the X that passes a p=0.05 permutation threshold (QTL peak at 31.1cM, LOD=4.739) (A), but that the others tested do not (B,C). Dashed line indicates permutation-based P = 0.05 significance threshold.

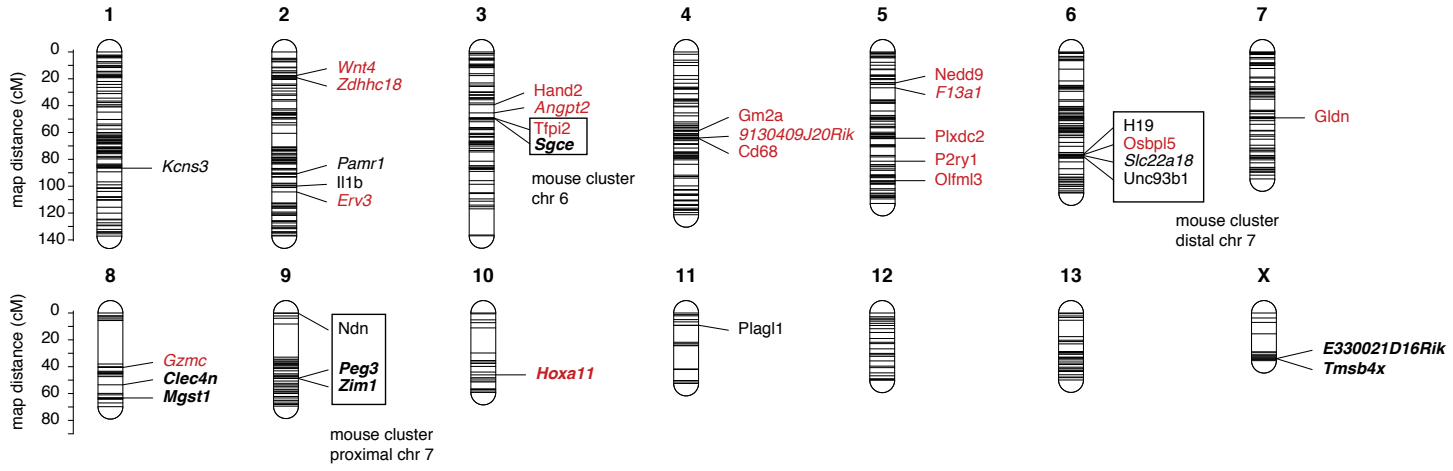

Figure S13. Candidate imprinted genes placed on the genetic map. Candidate imprinted genes that are in the BC downregulated network are indicated in red, and clusters with probable homology to imprinted clusters in *Mus* are indicated with boxes. Visualized with R/LinkageMapView (Ouellette *et al.* 2018).

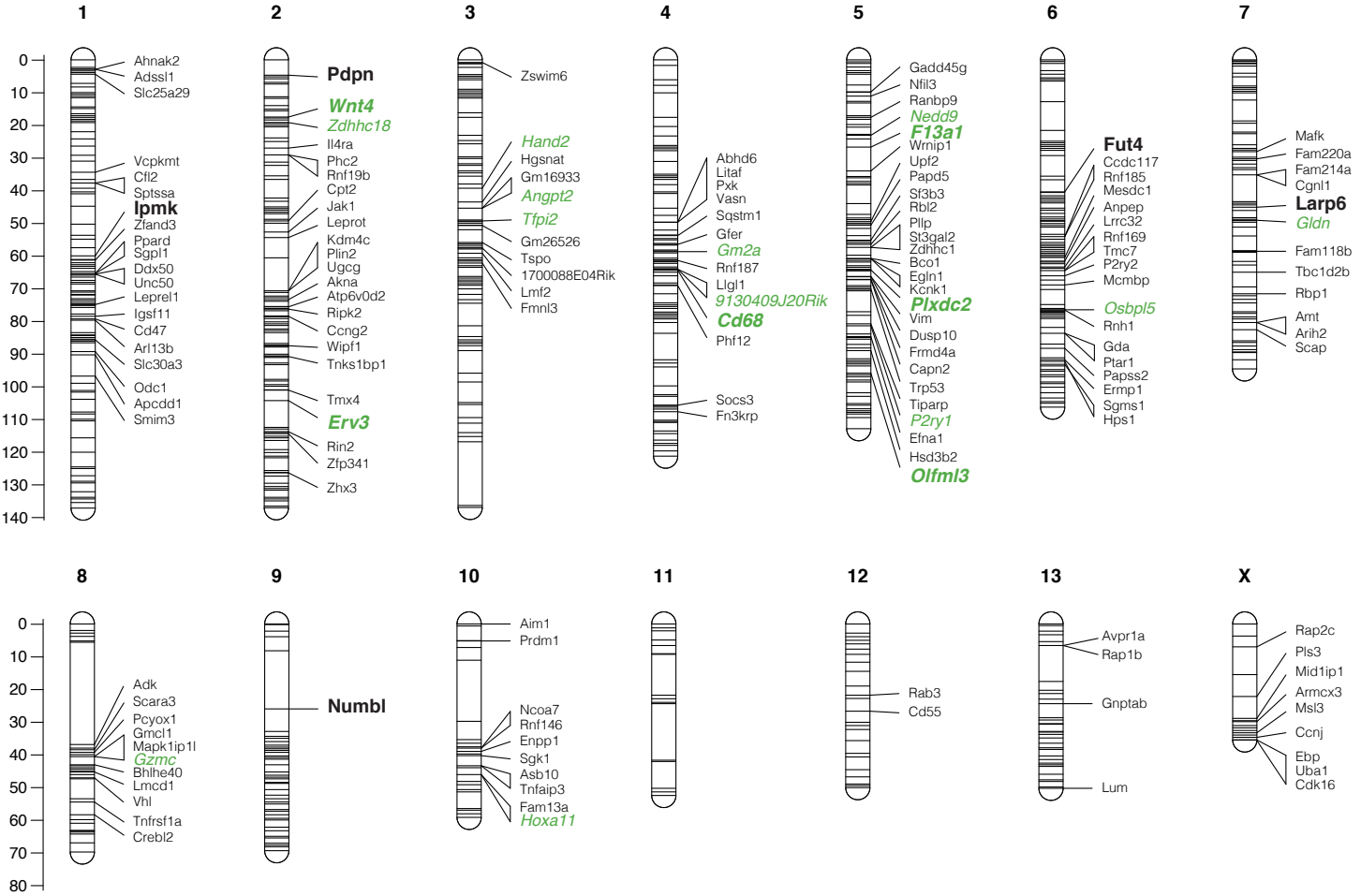

Figure S14. BC downregulated module placed on the genetic map. BC downregulated network hub genes are in bold, and candidate imprinted are indicated in green. Visualized with R/LinkageMapView (Ouellette *et al.* 2018).

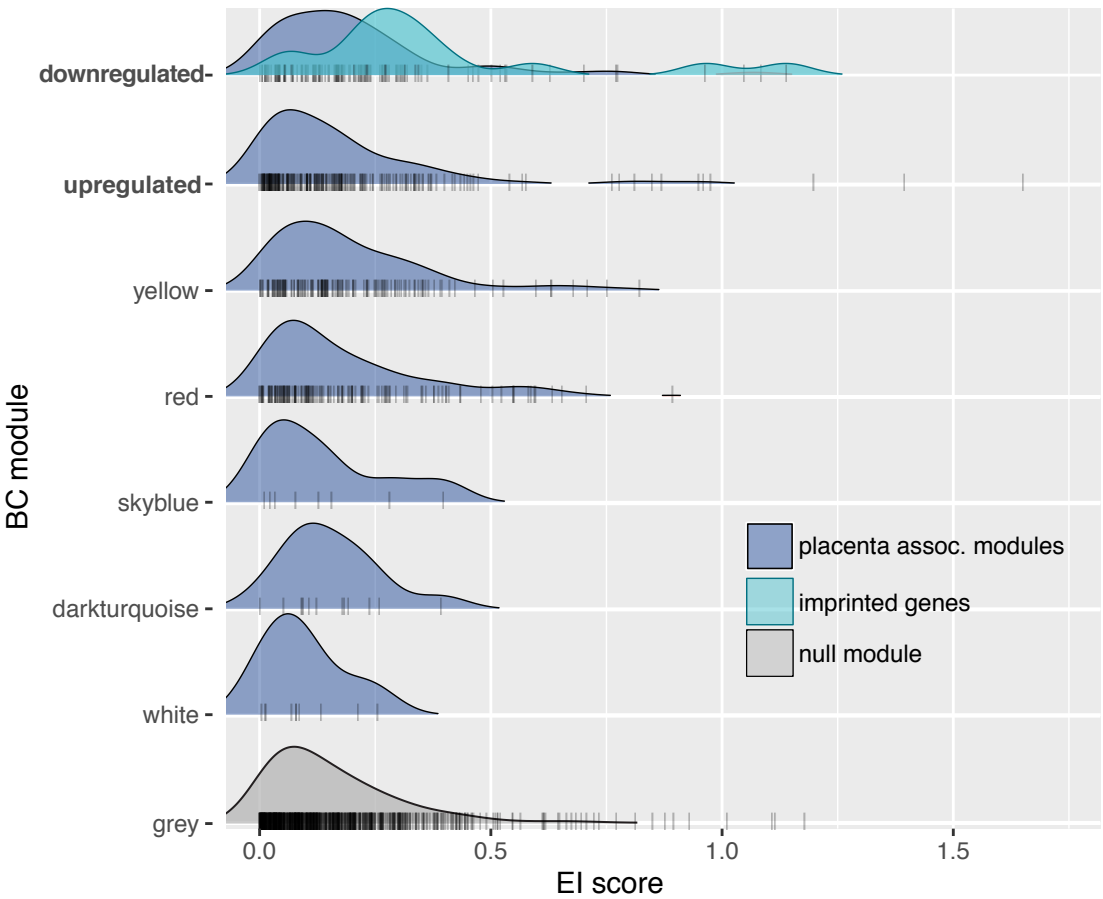

Figure S15. EI score distributions by module and imprinting status. The grey module includes all genes that were not placed in any module in the network analysis, and serves as the null expectation of the distribution of the score. All BC modules associated with placenta size are included here, with shift of increased EI values for the candidate imprinted genes in the downregulated module, but not the other placenta associated modules.

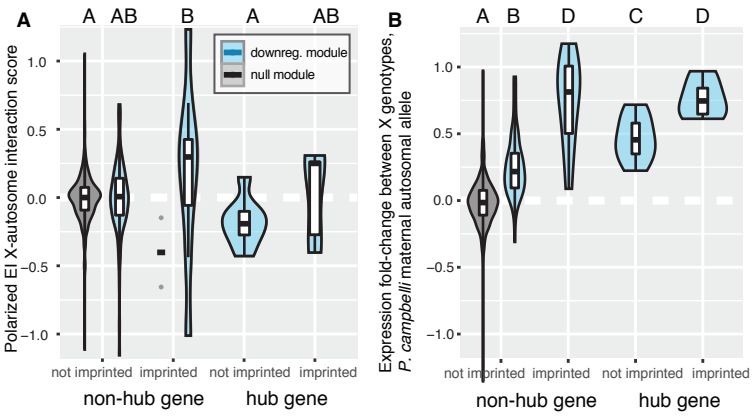

Figure S16. Polarized EI score distributions by hub and imprinting status. Polarized expression interaction scores (A) show that imprinted genes are more likely to have a larger fold change when the maternal alleles are mismatched with the maternal X chromosome (a positive value). (B) Positive values for gene expression fold change between X genotypes for individuals with a (mismatched) homozygous *P. campbelli* autosomal genotype indicate that expression is higher for individuals with a *P. campbelli* X chromosome than for those with a *P. sungorus* X chromosome. All letter groups indicate Tukey HSD significance at $P < 0.05$.

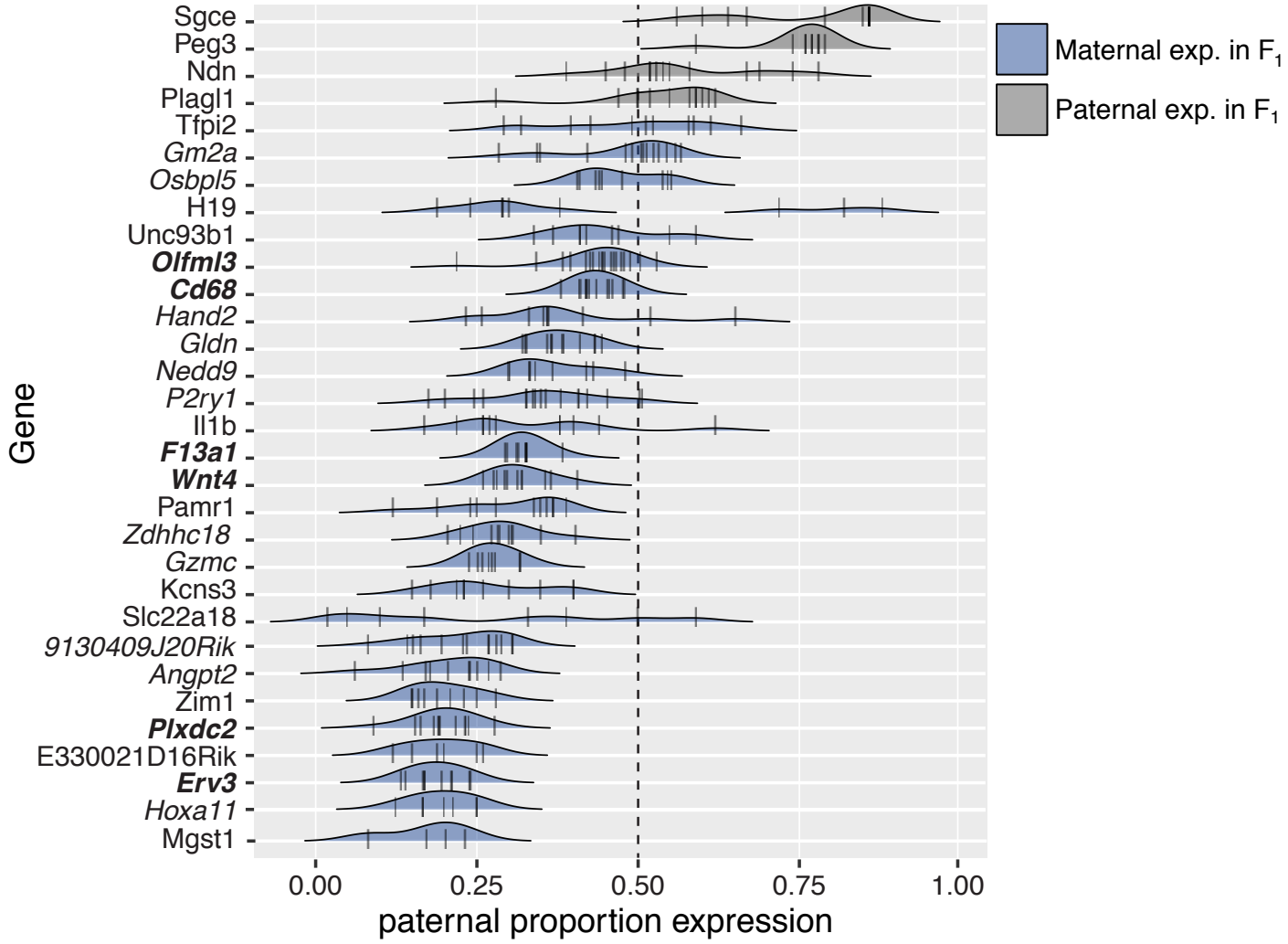

Figure S17. Allelic bias in candidate imprinted genes in BC. Proportion of paternal expression for all heterozygous BC hybrids for each of the 31 candidate imprinted genes that were placed on the map. To calculate allele-specific expression, the reference (*P. sungorus*) allele was designated as the maternal allele and the proportion of maternal reads was averaged over variable sites for heterozygous BC individuals, excluding all homozygous individuals at each gene. Generally, we recover a signal for maternal bias in genes that displayed maternal bias in the F_1s (blue), and paternal bias for those genes with paternal bias in the F_1s (grey). Bolded genes are hub genes in the BC downregulated module.

Table S1. A full description of all RAD markers including their ID, the linkage group they are found on, the position in centiMorgans on that linkage group, the base position of the SNV between *P. campbelli* and *P. sungorus*, the alleles for *P. campbelli* and *P. sungorus*, and the sequence of the marker which always begin with TGCAGG (the restriction-enzyme cut-site of SbfI, i.e.: CC_TGCA^GG). SNVs in the sequence are denoted with standard IUPAC ambiguity codes.

Table S2. WGCNA modules generated from F_1 and pure species placental gene expression data. Color names are arbitrarily and randomly generated by the program, and have no additional meaning. The upregulated and downregulated modules are discussed in the manuscript are indicated as such. Counts of genes in each module, correspondence with previous pairwise analysis (Brekke *et al.* 2016), association with inheritance pattern and phenotypes, and enrichment for candidate imprinted genes indicated.

Table S3. WGCNA modules generated from BC placental gene expression data. As before, color names are arbitrarily and randomly generated by the program, and do not correspond whatsoever with the arbitrarily assigned names given to the F_1 data. The upregulated and downregulated modules are discussed in the manuscript are indicated as such. Counts of genes in each module, correspondence with F_1 network analysis, association with phenotypes, and enrichment for candidate imprinted genes indicated.

Table S4. A full description of the locations of each gene from that was captured and associated with the map. Columns are: Linkage group, position in centiMorgans, gene name from the *P. sungorus* transcriptome (Genbank BioProject JNA306772, DDBJ/EMBL/GenBank Accession GEVB00000000, [38]), the exon that the SNP appears in, the position of the SNP in the exon, the gene name, and the mouse ensemble gene ID of that gene.

Table S5. SRA sequence accession numbers for each individual by sequence type.