

1 **RNA Pol IV has antagonistic parent-of-origin effects on Arabidopsis endosperm**

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1

2 **Abstract**

3 Gene expression in endosperm – a seed tissue that mediates transfer of maternal resources to
4 offspring – is under complex epigenetic control. We show here that plant-specific RNA
5 Polymerase IV mediates parental control of endosperm gene expression. Pol IV is required for
6 the production of small interfering RNAs that typically direct DNA methylation. We compared
7 small RNAs, DNA methylation, and mRNAs in *A. thaliana* endosperm from reciprocal
8 heterozygotes produced by crossing wild-type plants to Pol IV mutants. We find that maternally
9 and paternally acting Pol IV have divergent effects on endosperm. Losses of maternal and
10 paternal Pol IV impact sRNAs and DNA methylation at distinct genomic sites. Strikingly,
11 maternally and paternally-acting Pol IV have antagonistic impacts on gene expression at some
12 loci, divergently promoting or repressing endosperm gene expression. Antagonistic parent-of-
13 origin effects have only rarely been described and are consistent with a gene regulatory system
14 evolving under parental conflict.

15

1 Introduction

2 Parents influence zygotic development in viviparous plant and animal species. In
3 flowering plants, parent-of-origin effects on offspring development are observed in an embryo-
4 surrounding seed tissue called the endosperm (Gehring & Satyaki, 2017). Endosperm does not
5 contribute genetic material to the next generation but mediates maternal nutrient transfer to the
6 embryo, coordinates growth between the embryo and maternal tissues, sets seed dormancy
7 and regulates germination, and acts as a nutrient store to support seedling growth (Jing Li &
8 Berger, 2012). Endosperm is typically triploid and develops from the fertilization of a diploid
9 female gamete, called the central cell, by one of two haploid sperm cells that are released by
10 pollen. Violations of the balanced ratio of two maternal to one paternal genomes disrupts
11 normal endosperm development in a parent-of-origin dependent manner (Milbocker & Sink,
12 1969; Müntzing, 1936; Povilus et al., 2018; Scott et al., 1998; Stoute et al., 2012). In some *A.*
13 *thaliana* accessions, crosses between tetraploid mothers and diploid fathers exhibit reduced
14 endosperm proliferation and smaller mature seeds while reciprocal crosses where the fathers
15 are tetraploid (paternal excess crosses) exhibit prolonged endosperm proliferation and larger or
16 aborted seeds. These parent-of-origin effects on endosperm development have been
17 interpreted under the aegis of the parental conflict or kinship model (Haig, 2013). According to
18 this model, when a mother mates with more than one father, the inclusive fitness of the mother
19 is optimal when her resources are equally distributed among her progeny. The inclusive fitness
20 of the father is optimal when his progeny are able to acquire more maternal resources than
21 other half-siblings. Such conflicts are postulated to lead to arms races whose impacts may be
22 observed in the molecular machinery mediating parental control. However, our understanding of
23 the impact of conflict on endosperm biology is limited by our incomplete understanding of
24 molecular and genetic mechanisms guiding parental control of endosperm development.

25 Recent data indicate that mutations in RNA Polymerase IV have effects on reproduction,
26 endosperm, and seed development in multiple species (Erdmann et al., 2017; Grover et al.,
27 2018; Kirkbride et al., 2019; Martinez et al., 2018; Satyaki & Gehring, 2019; Wang et al., 2020).
28 RNA Pol IV functions as part of the RNA directed DNA methylation (RdDM) pathway, in which it
29 produces relatively short, non-coding transcripts that are converted into double stranded RNA
30 by RDR2 (Blevins et al., 2015; S. Li et al., 2015; Zhai et al., 2015) . These double-stranded
31 RNAs are cleaved into 24nt small RNAs (sRNAs) by DCL3 and single strands are loaded into
32 ARGONAUTE proteins that help target the *de novo* DNA methyltransferase DRM2, which acts
33 in conjunction with RNA Pol V and several other proteins, to methylate DNA (Matzke & Mosher,

1 2014). *NRPD1*, which encodes the largest subunit of RNA Pol IV, has roles in endosperm gene
2 dosage control. Endosperm gene expression typically reflects the ratio of two maternally and
3 one paternally inherited genomes, such that for the majority of genes approximately two-thirds
4 of genic transcripts are derived from maternal alleles (Gehring et al., 2011; Pignatta et al.,
5 2014). A survey of allele-specific gene expression in *nRPD1* mutant endosperm found that Pol IV
6 is required to maintain the 2:1 maternal to paternal transcript ratio in the endosperm and that
7 loss of Pol IV leads to the mis-regulation of several hundred genes (Erdmann et al., 2017).
8 Additionally, loss of function mutations in *NRPD1* or other members of the RdDM pathway can
9 repress seed abortion in crosses of diploid mothers and tetraploid fathers (Erdmann et al., 2017;
10 Martinez et al., 2018; Satyaki & Gehring, 2019). In *B. rapa*, loss of *NRPD1*, *RDR2*, or *NRPE1*
11 results in high rates of seed abortion due to maternal sporophytic effects (Grover et al., 2018).
12 Loss of Pol IV in both *B. rapa* and in *A. thaliana* also results in smaller seed sizes (Grover et al.,
13 2018) and RNA Pol IV is essential to post-meiotic pollen development in *C. rubella* (Wang et al.,
14 2020).

15 Molecular data point to the intriguing possibility that mutations in RNA Pol IV have
16 parent-of-origin effects on endosperm. A comparison of sRNAs in wild-type whole seeds (which
17 includes maternal seed coat, endosperm, and embryo) with *NRPD1*^{+/-} endosperm from crosses
18 where the mutation in *NRPD1* was either maternally- or paternally-inherited suggested that loss
19 of maternal *NRPD1* affected more sRNA loci than the loss of paternal *NRPD1* (Kirkbride et al.,
20 2019). Although the comparison of sRNAs from wild-type whole seeds to mutant endosperm in
21 this study makes definitive conclusions difficult to draw, it raises the potential question of if and
22 how the loss of *NRPD1* has parent-of-origin effects on sRNA production.

23 To examine the impacts of parental Pol IV activity on endosperm in more detail, we
24 examined sRNA and mRNA transcriptomes in wild-type endosperm, *nRPD1* homozygous mutant
25 endosperm, and *nRPD1* heterozygous endosperm where the mutant allele was inherited from a
26 homozygous mutant mother or father. We also examined methylomes in wild-type and
27 endosperm from the reciprocal heterozygotes. Analysis of these data demonstrate that maternal
28 and paternal *NRPD1* have distinct parental effects on endosperm, some of which are
29 antagonistic.

30

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1 Results

2 Maternal Pol IV inhibits, whereas paternal Pol IV promotes, interploidy seed abortion

3 We tested if the molecular data supporting distinct functions for Pol IV in the mother and
4 the father (Kirkbride et al., 2019) could be supported by genetic analyses. We reanalyzed
5 previously published data (Erdmann et al., 2017) to specifically test the effects of the loss of
6 maternal Pol IV vs. paternal Pol IV in the context of interploidy, paternal excess crosses (diploid
7 mother pollinated by tetraploid father). Inheritance of a mutant *nrpd1* allele from diploid mothers
8 resulted in 4% normal seed in a cross to tetraploid fathers, which was significantly different than
9 7.1% normal seed observed when wild-type diploid mothers are crossed to wild-type tetraploid
10 fathers. Crosses between wild-type diploid mothers and tetraploid *nrpd1* fathers resulted in
11 64.8% normal seed. Paternal rescue by *nrpd1* was diminished when the diploid mother was also
12 mutant, resulting in 37.5% normal seeds. Thus, we conclude that maternal *NRPD1* promotes
13 interploidy seed viability and paternal *NRPD1* represses seed viability (Fig. S1). This is
14 consistent with observations that paternal excess seed viability was promoted by the maternal
15 activity of *DCL3* and repressed by the paternal activity of *DCL3* (*DCL3* functions downstream of
16 *NRPD1*) (Satyaki & Gehring, 2019). Interploidy crosses are a sensitive genetic assay to detect
17 endosperm phenotypic effects. However, paternal excess endosperm displays wide-spread
18 transcriptomic changes (Satyaki & Gehring, 2019), which make it a poor system to understand
19 the specific role of RNA Pol IV in endosperm development. Therefore, for all subsequent
20 experiments we examined endosperm molecular phenotypes in the context of balanced crosses
21 (diploid x diploid) where either one or both parents were homozygous mutant for the *nrpd1a-4*
22 allele.

23

24 Loss of maternal or paternal Pol IV activity impacts small RNAs at distinct sites

25 To determine the role of Pol IV in sRNA production in the endosperm, we first identified
26 Pol IV-dependent endosperm sRNAs. Previously we showed that 24 nt sRNAs were the
27 predominant sRNA species in endosperm and exhibited a broader distribution over genes and
28 transposable elements (TEs) than in other tissues (Erdmann et al., 2017). We profiled small
29 RNA populations in three replicates of endosperm derived from crosses of *Ler nrpd1* females
30 pollinated by *Col-0 nrpd1* males (7 days after pollination) and compared them with our

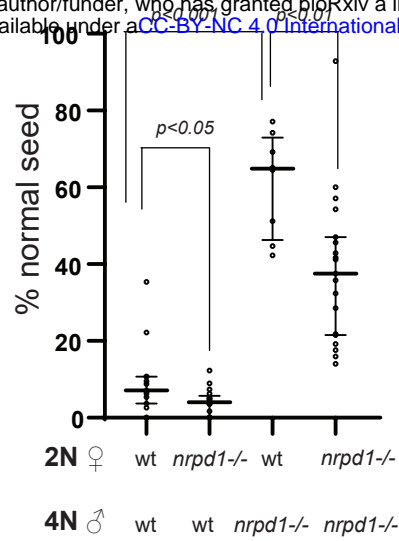


Figure S1: Maternal and paternal Pol IV activity have opposing effects on paternal excess seed abortion. Loss of maternal Pol IV decreases paternal excess seed viability while loss of paternal Pol IV increases seed viability. Each dot in the aligned dot plot represents seed viability from one paternal excess cross (biological replicate). Significance of difference between indicated crosses was calculated by Wilcoxon test.

1 previously published sRNA libraries from Ler x Col-0 wild-type F₁ endosperm (female parent in
2 cross written first) (Erdmann et al., 2017) (Supplementary Table 1).

3 We identified 21,131 sRNA peaks in wild type endosperm using ShortStack (Axtell,
4 2013). 76.9% of these were predominantly populated by 24nt sRNAs, with 1.1%, 0.2%, and
5 2.2% of peaks dominated by 23, 22, or 21 nt sRNAs, respectively. An additional 19.7% of peaks
6 were either dominated by a non-canonical sRNA size or had no predominant size class (Fig.
7 S2A). The majority of sRNAs were genetically dependent on *NRPD1*, with 99% of 24nt sRNA
8 peaks, 94.87% of 22nt sRNA peaks and 70.1% of 21nt sRNA peaks absent in *nripd1*^{-/-}
9 endosperm (Fig. S2B). To enable downstream comparisons to expression, we binned sRNAs by
10 size (21 to 24 nt) and calculated read counts overlapping TEs and genes encoding proteins,
11 miRNA, and other ncRNA. We used DESeq2 (Love et al., 2014) to separately identify genes
12 and TEs with significant differences in Pol IV-dependent sRNA populations. Consistent with the
13 peak-based analysis, loss of RNA Pol IV abolished 21-24 nt small RNAs at most TEs and
14 genes, while most miRNAs were not impacted (Supplementary Table 2). 21-23 nt sRNAs were
15 often lost at the same loci as 24 nt sRNAs (Fig. S2C), suggesting that sRNAs of differing sizes
16 arose from the same Pol IV transcript in the wild-type but were likely processed into RNAs
17 shorter than 24 nt by different downstream DICERs or by the exosome components *Atrimmer1*
18 and 2 (Daxinger et al., 2009; Ye et al., 2016). Pol IV-dependent 21-23 nt sRNAs have been
19 identified in other tissues, indicating this finding is not specific to endosperm (Panda et al., 2020;
20 Wang et al., 2020; Wu & Zheng, 2019).

21 After identifying Pol IV-dependent sRNAs, we asked whether loss of one parent's Pol IV
22 influenced the abundance of Pol IV-dependent sRNAs in *nripd1* heterozygous endosperm. We
23 sequenced small RNAs from two replicates of Ler female x Col-0 *nripd1*^{-/-} male (referred to as
24 pat *nripd1*^{+/-}) endosperm and three replicates of Ler *nripd1*^{-/-} female x Col-0 male (referred to
25 as mat *nripd1*^{+/-}) endosperm. Because the endosperm is triploid, in these comparisons there
26 are 3 (wild-type), 2 (pat *nripd1*^{+/-}), 1 (mat *nripd1*^{+/-}) and 0 (*nripd1*^{-/-}) functional *NRPD1* alleles in
27 the endosperm. However, *NRPD1* is a paternally expressed imprinted gene in wild-type Ler x
28 Col endosperm and the single paternal allele contributes 62% of the *NRPD1* transcript whereas
29 38% comes from the two maternal alleles (Pignatta et al., 2014). Consistent with paternal allele
30 bias in *NRPD1* expression, mRNA-Seq data shows that *NRPD1* is expressed at 42% of wild-
31 type levels in pat *nripd1*^{+/-} and at 91% of wild-type levels in mat *nripd1*^{+/-} (Supplementary Table
32 6).

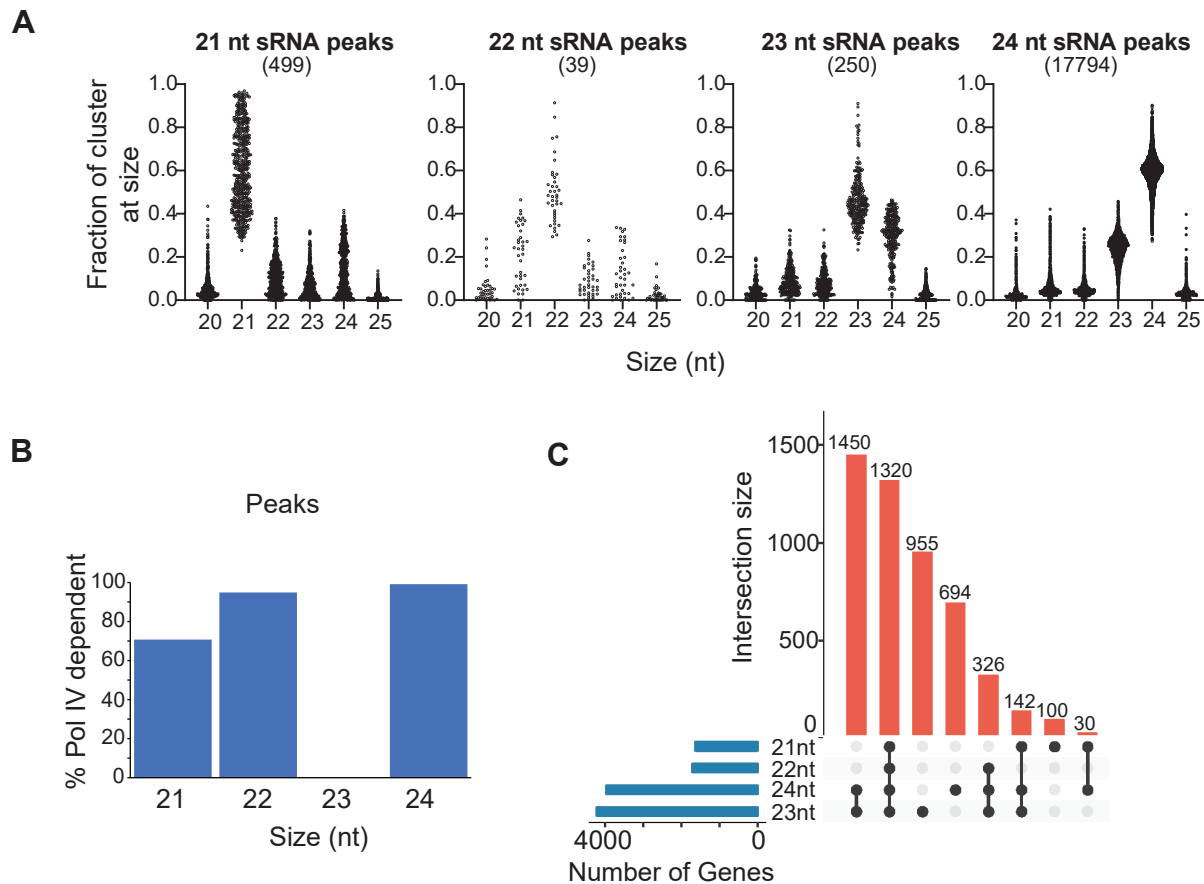


Figure S2. RNA Pol IV is necessary for the production of 21-24 nt sRNAs in the endosperm. (A) Size (nt) of all sRNAs in endosperm small RNA peaks dominated by 21, 22, 23, or 24 nt sRNAs. ShortStack was used to call peaks in wild-type (*Ler* x *Col-0*) endosperm. Each peak is grouped into a size class based on the predominant size of the small RNA species in that cluster. Fraction of small RNAs at other sizes at the same peaks are plotted. **(B)** Small RNA peaks of multiple sizes are impacted by loss of *NRPD1*. Genome-wide small RNA coverage over 300 bp windows overlapping by 200 bp was calculated. DESeq2 was used to identify windows with differentially expressed sRNAs between WT and *nrpd1*^{-/-}. Overlapping windows were merged. Peaks overlapping windows with reduced expression in *nrpd1*^{-/-} were classified as Pol IV- dependent peaks. **(C)** Upset plot shows that genes losing sRNAs of one size classes lose sRNAs of other size classes in *nrpd1*^{-/-} endosperm.

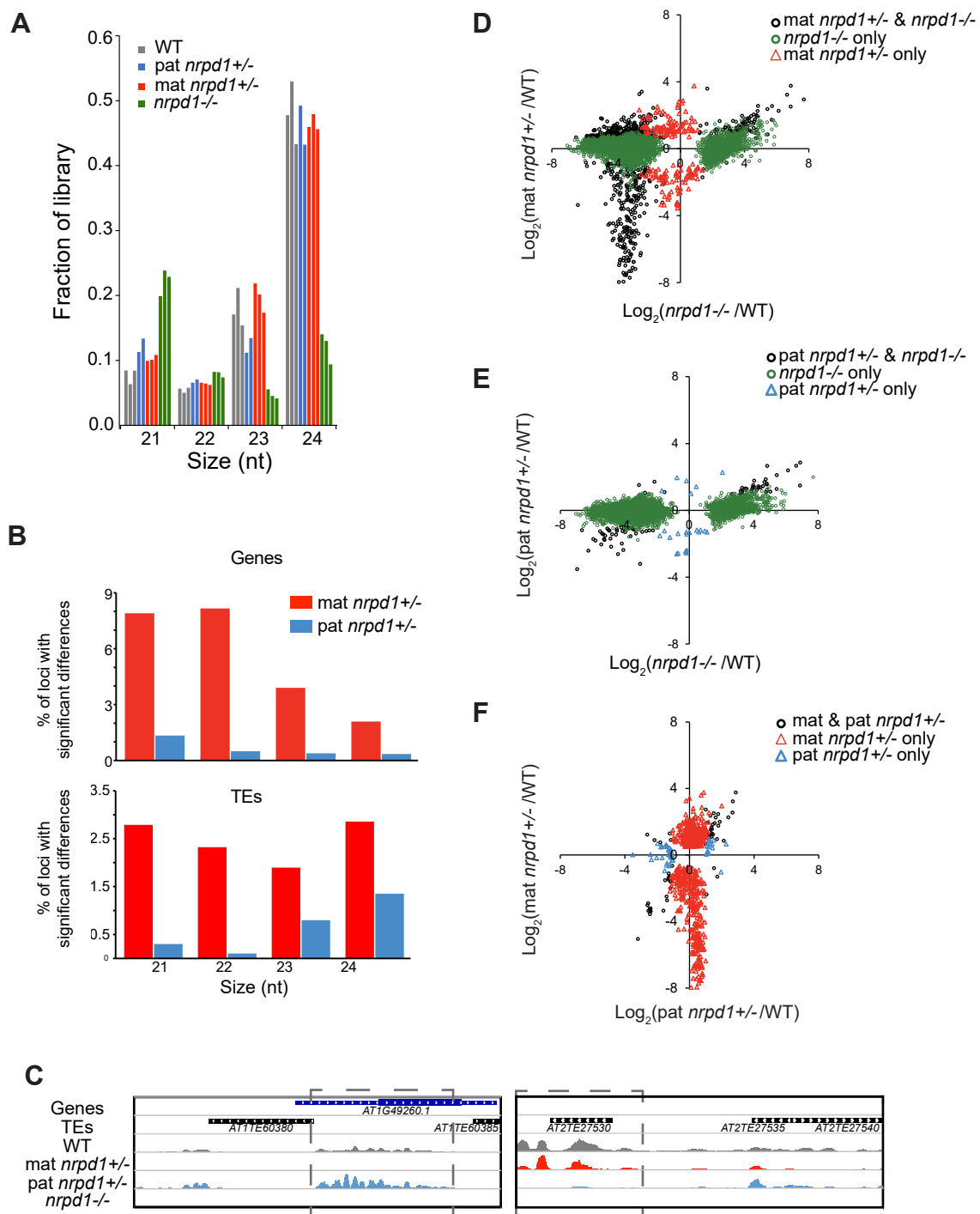


Fig. 1: Impact of loss of maternal, paternal, or both copies of *NRPD1* on endosperm small RNAs. (A) Loss of maternal or paternal *NRPD1* does not substantially alter the endosperm small RNA pool. Fraction of aligned small RNA reads in each size class in the indicated genotypes. **(B)** Examination of 21-24 nt sRNAs over genes or TEs shows that inheriting a mutant maternal *nrdp1* allele has a larger impact than inheriting a mutant paternal *nrdp1* allele. Percent of loci showing at least a two-fold reduction in sRNA abundance and padj <0.05 according to DESeq2 are indicated in red (mat *nrdp1*+/-) or blue (pat *nrdp1*+/-). Genes and TEs included in this tally have a normalized wild-type read count of five or higher. **(C)** Snapshots of loci with Pol IV-dependent 24 nt sRNAs that show a specific loss of small RNAs in mat (left) or pat (right) *nrdp1*+/- endosperm. **(D-F)** Comparisons of genic 24 nt sRNAs upon loss of maternal, paternal, or both copies of *NRPD1*. Fold change as calculated by DESeq2. Only significant changes (q<0.05) are plotted.

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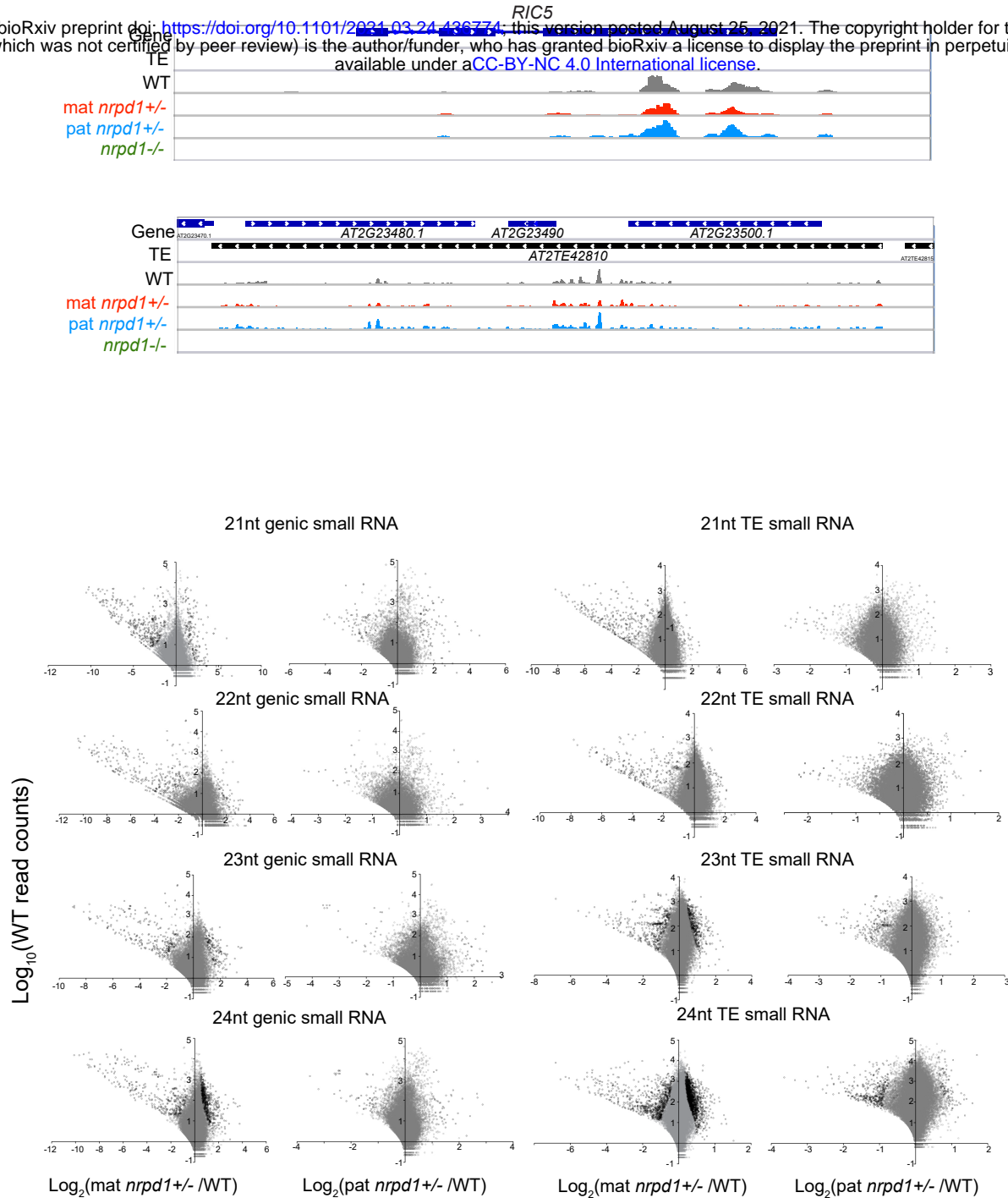


Figure S3: Impact of the loss of maternal and paternal *NRPD1* on the endosperm small RNA population. (A) One parent's copy of *NRPD1* is sufficient for 24 nt sRNA production from genes and TEs at most loci, here exemplified by *RIC5* and a *VANDAL21* copy. (B) Examination of 21-24 sRNA over genes and TEs shows that inheriting a maternal mutation in *NRPD1* has a greater impact than inheriting a paternal mutation in *NRPD1*. Loci with differential sRNA expression were identified using DESeq2. Wild-type (WT) read counts represent average read counts per locus across three replicates. Reads mapping to TE insertions were normalized using genic sRNA expression. Black circles represent $\text{padj} \leq 0.05$. Gray circles represent $\text{padj} > 0.05$.

1 We found that the presence of functional *NRPD1* inherited from either parent is sufficient
2 for the biogenesis of nearly wild-type levels of 21-24 nt sRNAs in endosperm (Fig. 1A, Fig. S3).
3 However, although the overall sRNA population in the heterozygotes was similar to the wild-type
4 (Fig. 1A), loss of maternal and paternal *NRPD1* had distinct impacts on sRNA at individual loci
5 (Fig. 1B-F, Fig. S3, Table S2-3). We identified genes and transposable element (TE) insertions
6 that displayed at least a two-fold change in the abundance of sRNAs in mat or pat *nrpd1+/-*
7 compared to the wild-type (Fig. 1B-F, Fig. S3, Tables S2-3). Loss of paternal *NRPD1* caused
8 relatively small fold-change reductions in 21-24 nt Pol IV sRNAs at a handful of loci, while loss
9 of maternal *NRPD1* had slightly greater yet limited impact (Fig. 1B-F, Fig. S3, Table S2-3). For
10 genic loci with *NRPD1*-dependent 24 nt sRNAs, 2% (327 genes) had significantly lower
11 abundance in mat *nrpd1+/-* compared to wild-type; in contrast 0.3% (60 genes) were
12 significantly lower in pat *nrpd1+/-* (Fig. 1B). For TE loci with *NRPD1*-dependent 24 nt sRNAs,
13 2.8% (545 TE insertions) and 1.35% (261 TE insertions) exhibited significantly lower abundance
14 in mat and pat *nrpd1+/-*, respectively (Fig. 1B). Few of the loci with reduced sRNAs were shared
15 between the reciprocal heterozygotes – of 327 24nt sRNA-expressing genic loci that were
16 reduced by more than two-fold in mat *nrpd1+/-*, only 22 were also reduced by two-fold in pat
17 *nrpd1+/-* (Fig. 1F). Moreover, there was no quantitative or correlative relationship between loci
18 affected in mat *nrpd1+/-* and pat *nrpd1+/-* (Fig. 1F). Thus, the vast majority of sRNA-producing
19 loci in endosperm only require at least one functional copy of *NRPD1* after fertilization.

20 **Evaluating memory of parental Pol IV activity and endosperm sRNA production**

21 The absence of dramatic differences in sRNAs in heterozygotes could indicate that the
22 alleles inherited from both the wild-type and the *nrpd1-/-* parent produce a wild-type level of
23 sRNAs after fertilization. This result would be expected for a recessive mutation without parental
24 effects. However, it is known that Pol IV activity at some loci requires prior Pol IV activity
25 (Jingwen Li et al., 2020). Under such a scenario, Pol IV activity in the parents before fertilization
26 might be necessary for sRNA production from that parent's allele in the endosperm after
27 fertilization. Thus, the observed lack of differences in sRNA production at most loci in
28 heterozygous *nrpd1* endosperm (Fig. 1) could be explained by an upregulation of sRNA
29 production from the alleles inherited from the wild-type parent (i.e. sRNAs are upregulated from
30 paternal alleles in mat *nrpd1+/-* and maternal allele sRNAs are upregulated in pat *nrpd1+/-*
31 endosperm). To distinguish between these possibilities, we used the SNPs between Col-0 and
32 Ler to identify the allelic origins of small RNAs in WT and heterozygous endosperm. We first
33 confirmed prior observations that Pol IV sRNAs are biallelically expressed at most loci in

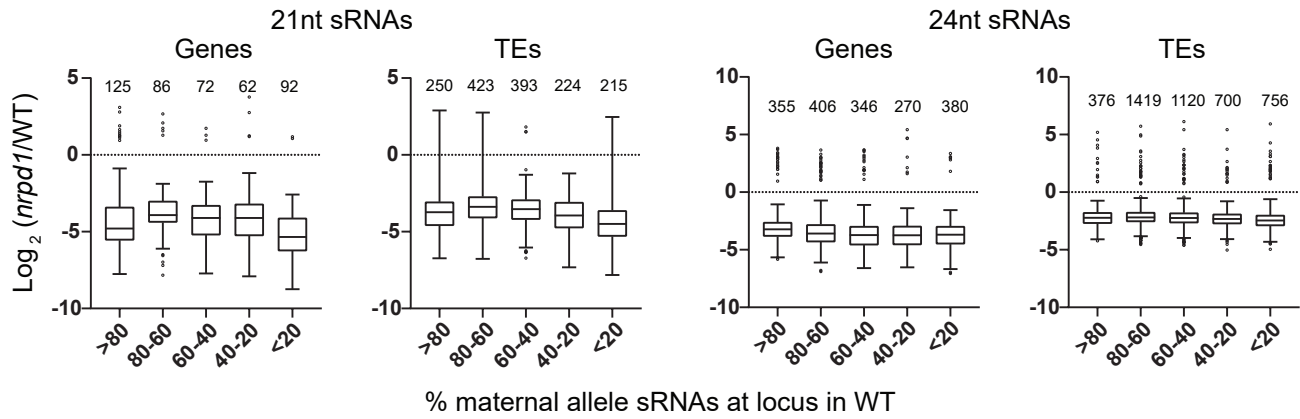


Figure S4: RNA Pol IV-dependent small RNAs arise from both maternal and paternal alleles. SNPs between Col-0 and *Ler* were used to identify parental origins of small RNAs arising from genes and transposable elements (TEs). Differentially expressed loci were identified using DESeq2 as described in Figure 1. Loci with a sum of at least ten allele-specific reads in three wild-type *Ler* x Col-0 replicates and showing significant differences in 21nt and 24 nt sRNAs in *Ler nrpd1*^{-/-} x Col-0 *nrpd1*^{-/-} endosperm were included. Box plots are Tukey plots. Numbers over box plots are number of loci evaluated.

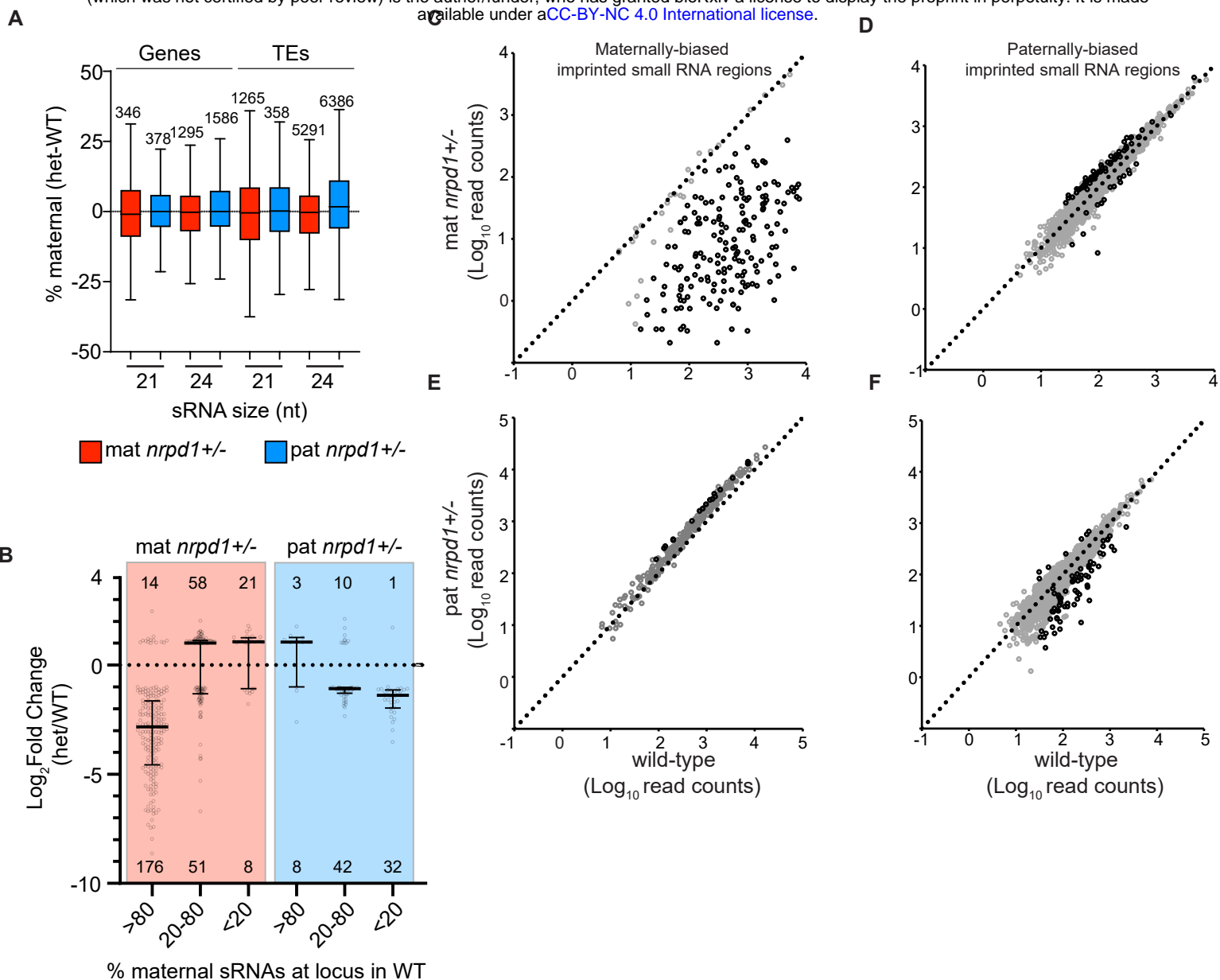


Figure 2: Effects of loss of maternal or paternal Pol IV on the allelic origin of small RNAs. (A) Tukey plot shows no difference in allelic origin of genic and TE small RNAs between heterozygotes and wild-type. Loci plotted here show similar abundances in wild-type and heterozygotes and have a sum of at least ten allele-specific reads in three wild-type replicates and in heterozygotes. (B) Loci with reduced sRNAs in *mat nrpd1*+/- or *pat nrpd1*+/- exhibit maternally- or paternally-biased sRNAs in WT. Genes and TE showing differential abundance of 24 nt sRNAs in *nrpd1* heterozygotes were grouped into bins by the % of sRNAs produced from the maternal alleles of that locus in WT. Fold-change was calculated by DESeq2. Tukey plot represents fold-change in each group. Circles show fold-change at individual loci. Numbers below and above plot are total number of loci having significantly lower and higher abundance of 24nt sRNAs in *nrpd1*+/- relative to the wild-type. (C-F) Loss of maternal *NRPD1* leads to a reduction in the abundance of sRNAs from maternally-biased ISRs (imprinted small RNA region) (C) and gain of sRNAs from a subset of paternally-biased ISRs (D). Loss of paternal *NRPD1* has a negligible impact on maternally-biased ISRs (E) and a relatively minor impact on paternally-biased ISRs (F). Col-Ler imprinted sRNA regions used here were defined in Erdmann *et al* (2017). These regions have less expression in seed coat relative to endosperm. To identify regions with changes in small RNA abundance, read counts were calculated over sliding windows of 300bp with 200bp overlap. Windows with differential abundance were identified using DESeq2. Windows overlapping an ISR were identified using bedtools intersect. Overlapping windows were merged using bedtools merge and the median read-count for each set of merged windows was plotted. Windows with and without significant differences in abundance are represented by black and grey circles.

1 endosperm and predominantly expressed from one parental allele, or imprinted, at several
2 hundred others (Erdmann et al., 2017). Examining sRNAs at genes and TEs, we found that both
3 bi-allelically expressed 21 and 24 nt sRNA loci (defined as between 20% and 80% of sRNAs
4 from maternally-inherited alleles) and those predominantly expressed from one parental allele
5 (>80% or <20% maternal) were Pol IV-dependent (i.e. their accumulation was significantly
6 reduced in *nripd1*^{-/-} endosperm) (Fig. S4).

7 To test if sRNA production from alleles inherited from wild-type parents compensated for
8 alleles inherited from an *nripd1*^{-/-} parent, we first assessed several thousand loci that were not
9 significantly mis-regulated in *nripd1*^{+/-} endosperm. Overall, there were similar contributions from
10 maternal and paternal alleles in mat and pat *nripd1* heterozygotes compared to wild-type
11 endosperm (Fig. 2A). This suggests that by 7 DAP (days after pollination), at most loci in the
12 endosperm, sRNAs are produced from both maternal and paternal alleles regardless of whether
13 the alleles were inherited from a wild-type parent or an *nripd1*^{-/-} parent. However, we found that
14 imprinted sRNA regions (ISRs) (113.1KB maternally imprinted and 1215.6KB paternally
15 imprinted regions overlapping both genic and TE loci.) (Erdmann et al., 2017) were impacted by
16 loss of parental Pol IV (Fig 2C-F). 179 of 206 ISRs where expression is maternally biased in WT
17 showed reduced 24 nt sRNAs in mat *nripd1*^{+/-} (Fig. 2C). ISR loci have been filtered to remove
18 regions that are also enriched for seed coat sRNAs (Erdmann et al., 2017) and thus preclude
19 analytical artifacts that may arise due to maternal tissue contamination or due to any potential
20 sRNA movement. On the other hand, only a small subset (74 of 2405 ISRs) of paternally biased
21 ISRs produced fewer sRNAs in pat *nripd1*^{+/-} and slightly more sRNAs in mat *nripd1*^{+/-}. We also
22 note that maternally biased regions in wild-type showed slightly elevated production of sRNAs in
23 pat *nripd1*^{+/-} endosperm and paternally biased regions in wild-type show slightly elevated levels
24 of sRNAs in mat *nripd1*^{+/-} endosperm (Fig. 2D). Examination of the allelic origins of sRNAs at
25 genes and TEs are also consistent with the ISR analysis. In a parallel analysis, we found that
26 small RNA loci showing dramatic reductions in abundance in mat *nripd1*^{+/-} tended to be
27 maternally biased in wild-type endosperm (>80% of sRNAs from the maternally-inherited
28 alleles) (Fig. 2B, leftmost column). Similarly, in pat *nripd1*^{+/-}, paternally biased small RNA (<20%
29 sRNAs from the maternally-inherited alleles) loci were more impacted (Fig. 2B, rightmost
30 column).

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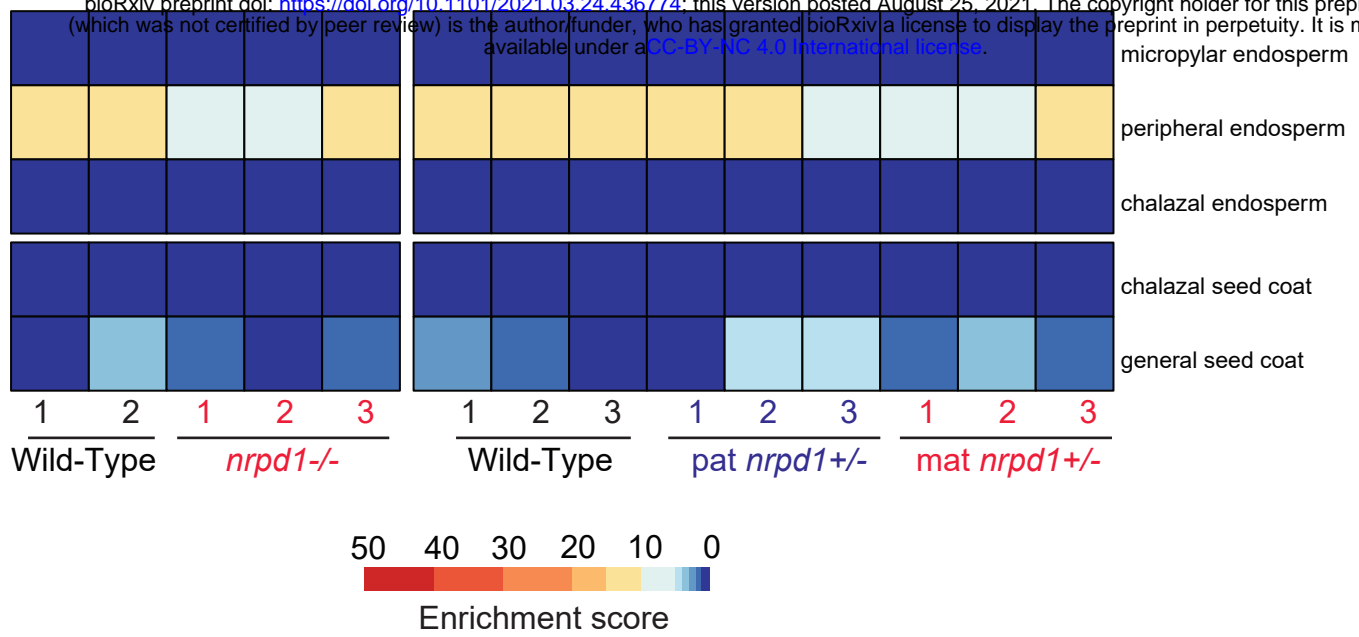


Figure S5: Tissue enrichment in dissected endosperm shows little seed coat contamination. For each RNA-Seq library built with RNA from dissected endosperm, reads overlapping genic loci were counted with Htseq-count. Enrichment of a seed tissue in each sample was then calculated using the Tissue enrichment tool (Schon and Nodine, 2017).

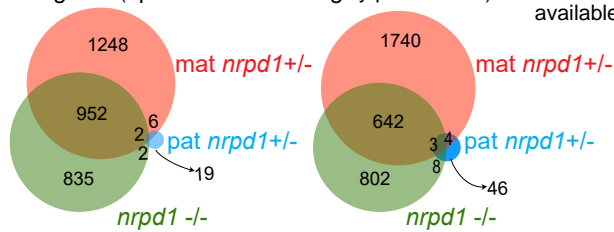
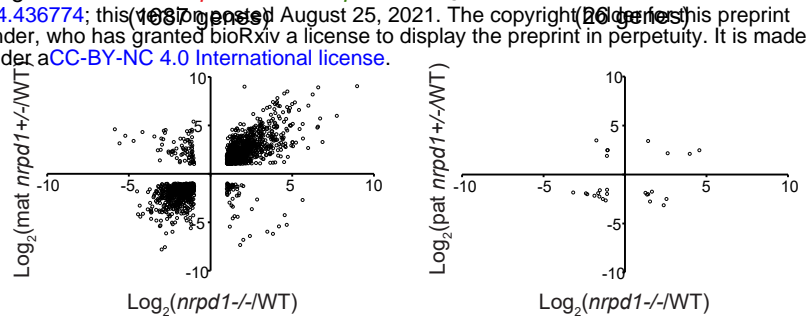
1 In summary, these results indicate that imprinted sRNA loci in endosperm are dependent
2 on Pol IV activity in the parents and are not established *de novo* post-fertilization. Notably, these
3 sites of Pol IV action are by definition distinct between maternal and paternal parents.

4 **Maternal and paternal RNA Pol IV have antagonistic impacts on gene expression**

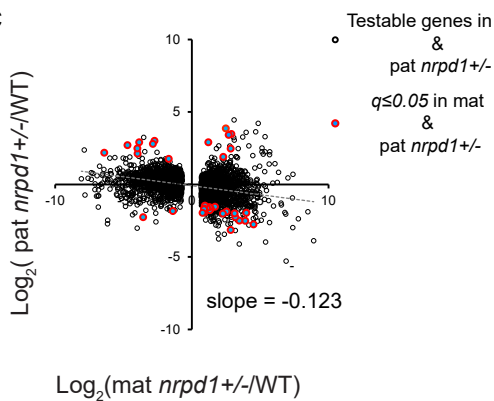
5 We previously identified several hundred genes mis-expressed in *nrpd1*^{-/-} endosperm.
6 To test for maternal or paternal effects on endosperm gene expression, we performed mRNA-
7 seq in three replicates each of mat *nrpd1*^{+/-} and pat *nrpd1*^{+/-}, along with appropriate wild-type
8 controls and homozygous mutant *nrpd1* endosperm (Table S1). Examination of these datasets
9 using a tissue-specific gene expression tool showed no indication of contamination with seed
10 coat tissue (Figure S5). Differential expression analyses identified 1791 genes whose
11 transcripts were more abundant and 1455 that were less abundant in *nrpd1*^{-/-} compared to wild-
12 type endosperm (Fig. 3; Table S6). Almost 50% of these genes (1599) were similarly mis-
13 regulated in mat *nrpd1*^{+/-} (Fig. 3A,B), along with 2998 additional genes. In contrast, very few
14 genes (90) changed in expression in pat *nrpd1*^{+/-} compared to the wild type (Fig. 3A, B). In
15 addition to the difference in the size of the effect, loss of maternal or paternal Pol IV altered the
16 expression of different classes of genes. Panther over-representation tests (Mi & Thomas,
17 2009) indicated that in mat *nrpd1*^{+/-}, down-regulated genes were enriched for functions in the
18 cell-cycle, whereas up-regulated genes were enriched for functions in photosynthesis, stress
19 response, and abscisic acid signaling. In pat *nrpd1*^{+/-}, up-regulated genes were enriched for
20 functions in heat stress response, while down-regulated genes were enriched for functions in
21 responses to fungi. The expression of imprinted genes is known to be regulated epigenetically
22 in endosperm. 15 paternally expressed and 45 maternally expressed imprinted genes were mis-
23 regulated in mat *nrpd1*^{+/-} while two maternally expressed imprinted genes but no paternally
24 expressed imprinted genes were mis-regulated in pat *nrpd1*^{+/-} (Table S6).

25 Differential expression of a gene between wild-type and *nrpd1*^{-/-} could represent: 1)
26 maternal and paternal effects arising from the loss of *NRPD1* in parents, 2) zygotic effects
27 arising from epistatic interactions between mat *nrpd1*⁻ and pat *nrpd1*⁻, 3) effects from the loss of
28 all *NRPD1* in the endosperm, or 4) the sum of all three effects. As this study does not examine
29 the effect of knocking-down *NRPD1* specifically in the endosperm, we can only detect parental
30 effects. Curiously, 2988 genes mis-regulated in mat *nrpd1*^{+/-} were not mis-regulated in *nrpd1*^{-/-}
31 endosperm (Fig. 3A). We hypothesized that genic mis-regulation found exclusively in mat
32 *nrpd1*^{+/-} (but not *nrpd1*^{-/-}) was caused by separate transcriptional effects of maternal and
33 paternal *nrpd1* that were obscured in null mutants. To test this hypothesis, we compared gene

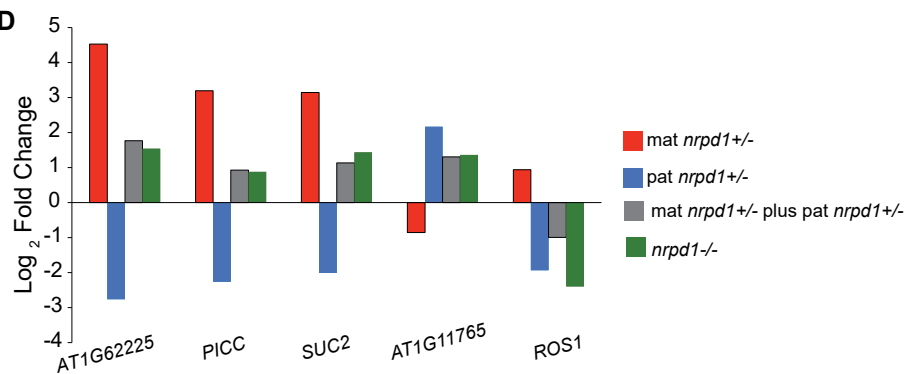
A

B Significant in *mat nrpd1+/-* and *nrpd1-/-* (1687 genes) Significant in *pat nrpd1+/-* and *nrpd1-/-* (26 genes)

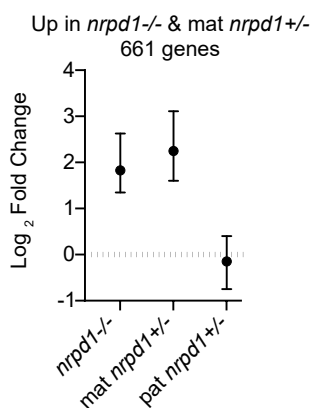
C



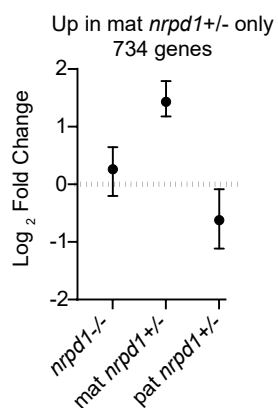
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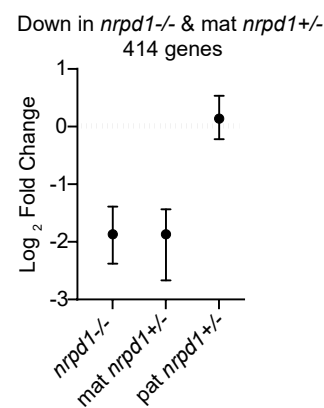
E



F



G



H

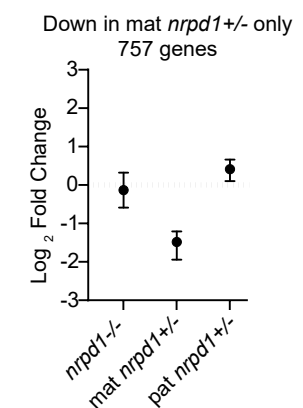


Figure 3. Maternally and paternally acting Pol IV have antagonistic effects on endosperm gene expression.

(A) Venn diagrams showing overlap of genes with increased and decreased expression in comparison to wild-type endosperm for the indicated genotypes. (B) Scatter plots of genes that are all significantly different ($q \leq 0.05$, $\text{Log}_2(\text{Fold Change}) \geq 1$ or ≤ -1) between wild-type and indicated mutants. Fold-change calculated using Cuffdiff. (C) Inverse correlation between changes in gene expression in mat and pat *nrpd1+/-* relative to WT. Slope was calculated for all testable genes in comparisons of mat and pat *nrpd1+/-* relative to WT. Genes significantly mis-regulated in both mat and pat *nrpd1+/-* are colored circles. (D) Examples of genes that are antagonistically regulated by Pol IV. Grey bars represent mathematical sum of effects observed in mat and pat *nrpd1+/-*. (E) Genes up-regulated at least two-fold in both *nrpd1-/-* and *mat nrpd1+/-* do not exhibit mis-regulation in pat *nrpd1+/-*. (F) Genes up-regulated only in *mat nrpd1+/-* but not *nrpd1-/-* have decreased expression in pat *nrpd1+/-*. (G) Genes down-regulated in both *nrpd1-/-* and *mat nrpd1+/-* are not mis-regulated in pat *nrpd1+/-*. (H) Genes down-regulated only in *mat nrpd1+/-* but not in *nrpd1-/-* are overall slightly increased in expression in pat *nrpd1+/-*. Plots E-H show median and inter-quartile range for log_2 fold change in mutant/WT. Fold-change were calculated by Cuffdiff.

1 expression between mat and pat *nrpd1*^{+/-} (Fig. 3C). We found that 51/90 genes mis-regulated
2 in pat *nrpd1*^{+/-} endosperm were also mis-regulated in mat *nrpd1*^{+/-} endosperm (red circles in
3 Fig. 3C). However, 36 of these 51 genes changed expression in the opposite direction. For
4 example, expression of the gene *SUC2* decreased about four-fold in pat *nrpd1*^{+/-} endosperm
5 and increased about eight-fold in mat *nrpd1*^{+/-} endosperm (Fig. 3D). If *NRPD1* loss has no
6 endospermic (zygotic) effect on the expression of these genes, then the mis-regulation
7 observed in *nrpd1*^{-/-} endosperm would be the sum of the parental effects. Indeed, the change in
8 abundance of these genes in *nrpd1*^{-/-} endosperm is close to that predicted by an additive,
9 antagonistic parental effect (compare gray and green bars in Fig. 3D). *SUC2* transcript
10 abundance in
11 *nrpd1*^{-/-} changes by 2.7-fold compared to the predicted 2.18-fold change, and other genes show
12 similar effects (Fig. 3D). While the expression of these particular genes showed large effects in
13 both heterozygotes, most genes mis-regulated in mat *nrpd1*^{+/-} did not show a significant
14 change (>2-fold difference in transcript abundance) in pat *nrpd1*^{+/-} endosperm. We therefore
15 hypothesized that mis-regulation of genes in mat *nrpd1*^{+/-} but not *nrpd1*^{-/-} endosperm was due
16 to a small antagonistic effect arising from the loss of pat *NRPD1* in *nrpd1*^{-/-}. Indeed, genes mis-
17 regulated in either mat *nrpd1*^{+/-} or pat *nrpd1*^{+/-} (Fig. 3C) are overall negatively correlated (slope
18 = -0.123). To test this hypothesis further, we evaluated the expression of genes in pat *nrpd1*^{+/-}
19 endosperm that were either mis-regulated in both mat *nrpd1*^{+/-} and *nrpd1*^{-/-} or only in mat
20 *nrpd1*^{+/-}. Transcripts that significantly increased exclusively in mat *nrpd1*^{+/-} had slightly
21 decreased expression in pat *nrpd1*^{+/-} endosperm (Fig. 3F). In contrast, genes that were
22 significantly upregulated in both mat *nrpd1*^{+/-} and *nrpd1*^{-/-} were not affected in pat *nrpd1*^{+/-}
23 (Fig. 3E). Similarly, genes that showed a significant reduction in abundance only in mat *nrpd1*^{+/-}
24 were slightly higher expressed in pat *nrpd1*^{+/-} endosperm (Fig. 3H) while genes with reduced
25 abundance in both mat *nrpd1*^{+/-} and *nrpd1*^{-/-} were not affected in pat *nrpd1*^{+/-} (Fig. 3G). These
26 results are consistent with an antagonistic parent-of-origin effect model for the impact of Pol IV
27 on endosperm transcriptomes. Although the antagonistic effect at most genes is less than the
28 commonly used two-fold threshold difference for a significant change in gene expression, it is
29 similar in magnitude to dosage compensation effects in other systems such as that observed for
30 the fourth chromosome in *D. melanogaster* and for genes mediating genetic compensation in
31 zebrafish (El-Brolosy et al., 2019; Johansson et al., 2012).

32 Evaluating possible mechanisms of Pol IV's impact on gene expression

1 How does Pol IV have parent-of-origin effects on gene expression in the endosperm
2 after fertilization? Pol IV effects could be direct or indirect at the affected loci. One possibility is
3 that Pol IV modulates gene expression via the proposed post-transcriptional gene silencing
4 (mRNA cleavage) or translational inhibition by 21-22nt Pol IV-dependent small RNAs (Jullien et
5 al., 2020; Panda et al., 2020). Or, Pol IV-dependent RNA-directed DNA methylation over genic
6 sequences or linked gene regulatory element might repress transcription in the wild type.
7 Alternatively, Pol IV could impact many genes in *trans* by regulating the expression of chromatin
8 proteins, like the known target *ROS1* (a DNA demethylase) (Williams et al., 2015), transcription
9 factors (Kirkbride et al., 2019; Xu et al., 2015), or by broadly influencing genome organization,
10 which in turn affects gene expression (Rowley et al., 2017; Zhong et al., 2021). To estimate the
11 contribution of *cis* and *trans* effects and identify potential *cis*-regulatory targets of Pol IV that
12 could drive wide-spread *trans*-effects, we analyzed the congruence of small RNAs, DNA
13 methylation, mRNA cleavage patterns, and allele-specific changes driving gene expression
14 changes in wild-type and mutant endosperm.

15 *Assessing potential mRNA cleavage by Pol IV-dependent sRNAs in endosperm*

16 Pol IV dependent genic sRNAs are proposed to regulate gene expression by cleaving
17 mRNA (Panda et al., 2020) and we previously demonstrated that endosperm has greater
18 accumulation of genic sRNAs than other tissues (Erdmann *et al*, 2017). To test if such cleavage
19 events contribute to endosperm Pol IV-dependent transcript abundance, we first identified
20 candidate genes that exhibited significantly increased (≥ 2 -fold) mRNA abundance and
21 significantly decreased 21, 22, or 24 nt sRNA abundance (≥ 2 -fold) in *nrrpd1*^{-/-} endosperm (Fig.
22 S6A-C). This analysis suggested that at least 305 genes or 16% of the genes that increase in
23 expression in *nrrpd1*^{-/-} endosperm were associated with Pol IV dependent sRNAs. To directly
24 assay if these genic sRNAs drive mRNA cleavage at levels sufficient to alter transcript
25 abundance at specific loci, we mapped the 5' ends of mRNA from wild-type and *nrrpd1*^{-/-}
26 endosperm mRNA using NanoPARE sequencing (Schon et al., 2018). NanoPARE maps both
27 the 5' ends of primary transcripts and those that result from mRNA cleavage. We confirmed that
28 NanoPARE sequencing was working for us by identifying transcriptional start sites as well as
29 internal cleavage sites for known miRNA targets (Fig. S6E). We found that almost all genes
30 exhibiting increased mRNA abundance also exhibited increased 5' ends at transcriptional start
31 sites, but did not have reduced 5' ends internal to gene (Fig. S6D). This was confirmed by visual
32 observation of individual loci (Fig. S6E). This suggests that the increase in the transcript
33 abundance of these genes in *nrrpd1*^{-/-} is not caused by reduced mRNA cleavage. Only five

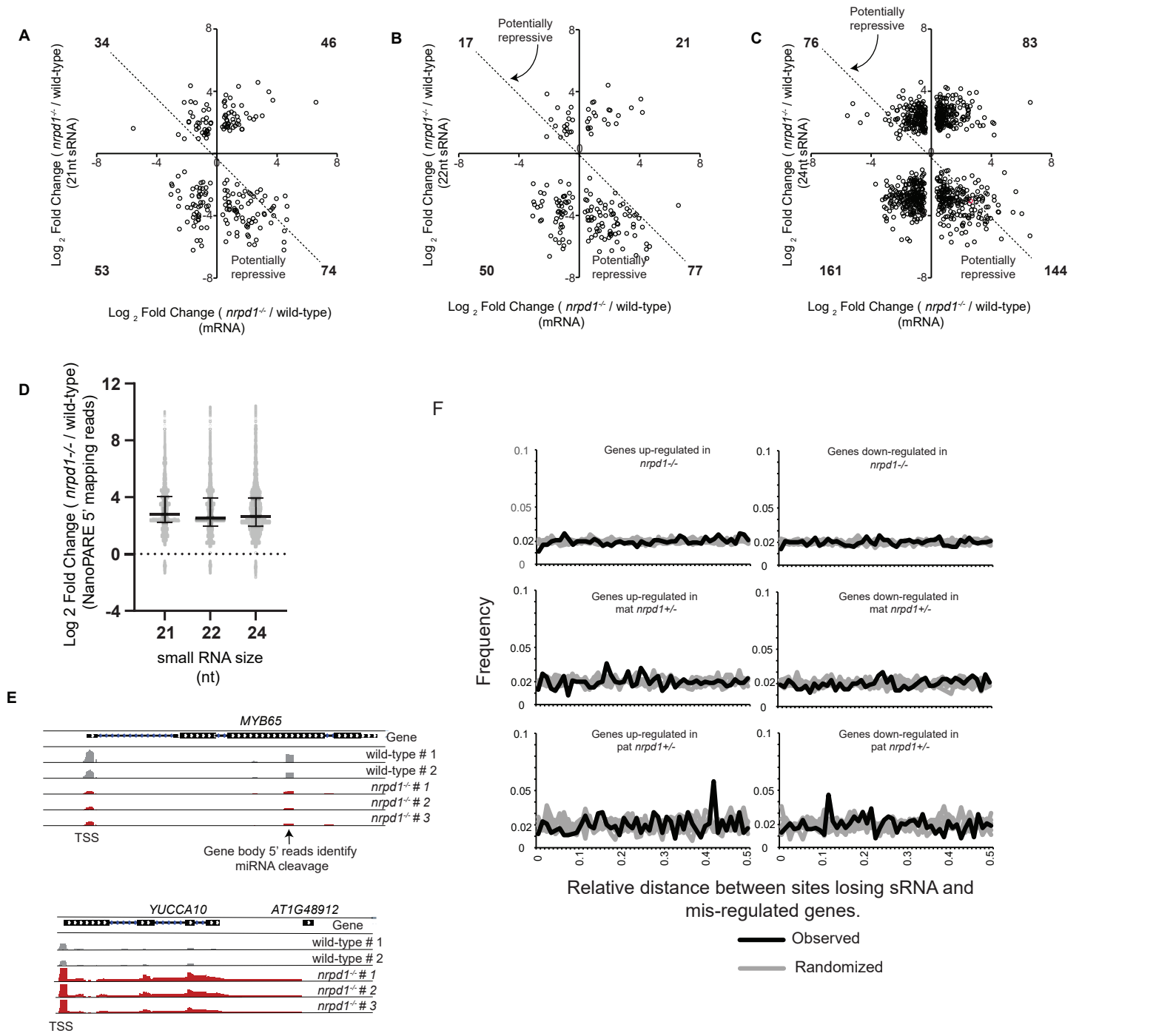


Figure S6: Little relationship between Pol IV sRNAs and gene regulation.

A-C) Comparisons of genes showing significant differences in 21, 22, 24nt sRNA and mRNA abundance shows that only a subset of genes (lower right quadrant) may be repressed by Pol IV-dependent small RNAs in wild-type. Differences in small RNA abundance between wild-type and *nrpd1*^{-/-} were calculated using DESeq2. Differences in mRNA were calculated using Cuffdiff. Numbers in bold in each quadrant indicate number of genes. **D)** NanoPARE data maps 5' ends of transcripts and identifies transcriptional start sites (TSS) and cleavage sites within the gene body. Change in mRNA cleavage at genes that show increased mRNA abundance and decreased 21, 22 or 24 nt sRNA size. Coverage of 5' reads from NanoPARE sequencing was calculated for every nucleotide in the genome. Difference in 5' read coverage at each nucleotide was calculated for two replicates of wild-type (*Ler* x *Col-0* endosperm) and three *nrpd1*^{-/-} (*Ler nrpd1*^{-/-} x *Col-0 nrpd1*^{-/-}) replicates using DESeq2. Each point plotted on the dot plot represents one nucleotide with differential 5' reads overlapping a gene. A single gene may thus have more than one 5' read mapping region. **E)** Examination of NanoPARE data from two replicates of wild-type and *nrpd1*^{-/-} correctly identifies a documented miR159 cleavage site in *MYB65* but identifies no difference in putative cleavage of the *YUCCA10* transcript. *YUCCA10* was chosen as an example because it shows increased mRNA abundance and reduced small RNA abundance in *nrpd1*^{-/-}. **F)** The relative distance metric shows no significant correlation between mis-regulated genes and sites losing small RNAs in *nrpd1*^{+/-} and *nrpd1*^{-/-}. Relative distance was calculated using bedtools. Black line indicates relative distance between sites losing sRNA (identified by DESeq2 by examination of readcounts over 300bp windows) and mis-regulated genes. Grey lines represent 5 replicates of equivalent number of random sites in the genome and mis-regulated genes. A uniform frequency of about 0.02 indicates no major correlation between the two data-sets. 5896, 1720 and 790 sites lost sRNAs in *nrpd1*^{-/-}, *mat nrpd1*^{+/-} and *pat nrpd1*^{+/-} respectively. The relative choppiness of the the distribution in *pat nrpd1*^{+/-} is likely driven by the smaller number of sites being compared.

1 genes – *PERK8*, *GLP2A*, *ETTIN*, *AAD3* and *AT2G45245* – exhibited reduced cleavage at a few
2 sites in *nrpd1*^{-/-} endosperm. This minimal effect is contrary to the expectation that candidate
3 genes described above should have reduced cleavage and suggests that small RNA mediated
4 post-transcriptional gene silencing is not a key mechanism for Pol IV to control endosperm gene
5 expression. We therefore did not test if mRNA cleavage is impaired in *nrpd1*^{+/-} heterozygotes.

6 *Assessing correspondence between sRNA and mRNA changes*

7 Only a minority of the genes that have altered expression in *nrpd1* endosperm have
8 associated changes in sRNAs within those same genes (Fig. S6A-C). However, Pol IV sRNAs
9 may also act at sites proximal to a gene to regulate it. We assessed the distance between mis-
10 expressed genes and altered sRNAs in homozygous and heterozygous *nrpd1* mutant
11 endosperm. We found that 9.2%, 11.7% and 3.3% of mis-regulated genes are within 1 kb of a
12 site that loses sRNAs in *nrpd1*^{-/-}, mat *nrpd1*^{+/-}, and pat *nrpd1*^{+/-} endosperm, respectively
13 (Table S7). To obtain a genome-wide perspective not focused on arbitrary distance cutoffs, we
14 used the relative distance metric to test if genomic regions losing 24nt sRNAs were associated
15 with mis-regulated genes. The relative distance metric describes the spatial correlation between
16 sRNA intervals and mis-regulated genes, compared to mis-regulated genes and random
17 intervals (Favorov et al., 2012). This analysis found no enrichment in the association between
18 Pol IV dependent sRNAs and mis-regulated genes in any of the genotypes (Fig. S6F).

19 *Assessing correspondence between DNA methylation and mRNA changes*

20 The relevant molecular function of RNA Pol IV with regard to gene expression is typically
21 assumed to be its role in RdDM. To identify potential examples of DNA methylation mediating
22 Pol IV's impact on genes, we performed bisulfite sequencing of WT, mat *nrpd1*^{+/-}, and pat
23 *nrpd1*^{+/-} endosperm DNA. We evaluated wild-type DNA methylation at individual cytosines
24 within Pol IV sRNA-producing genes that were mis-regulated in *nrpd1*^{-/-}, mis-regulated genes
25 that showed increased sRNAs in *nrpd1*^{-/-} (Pol IV independent), and five control sets of genes
26 that showed no change in sRNA abundance upon loss of Pol IV. We found that most cytosines
27 were not methylated (median is near zero) in the genes we examined (Fig. S7A). This suggests
28 that Pol IV small RNAs do not generally target DNA methylation at genes. However, some mis-
29 regulated genes with Pol IV dependent sRNAs had higher CG methylation in wild-type
30 endosperm (Fig. S7A). These mis-regulated genes with Pol IV dependent sRNAs were also
31 likely to be longer (Fig. S7B). Longer genes have higher small RNA read counts (Fig. S7C) and
32 thus differences in these genes are more likely to be called as statistically significant by DESeq2

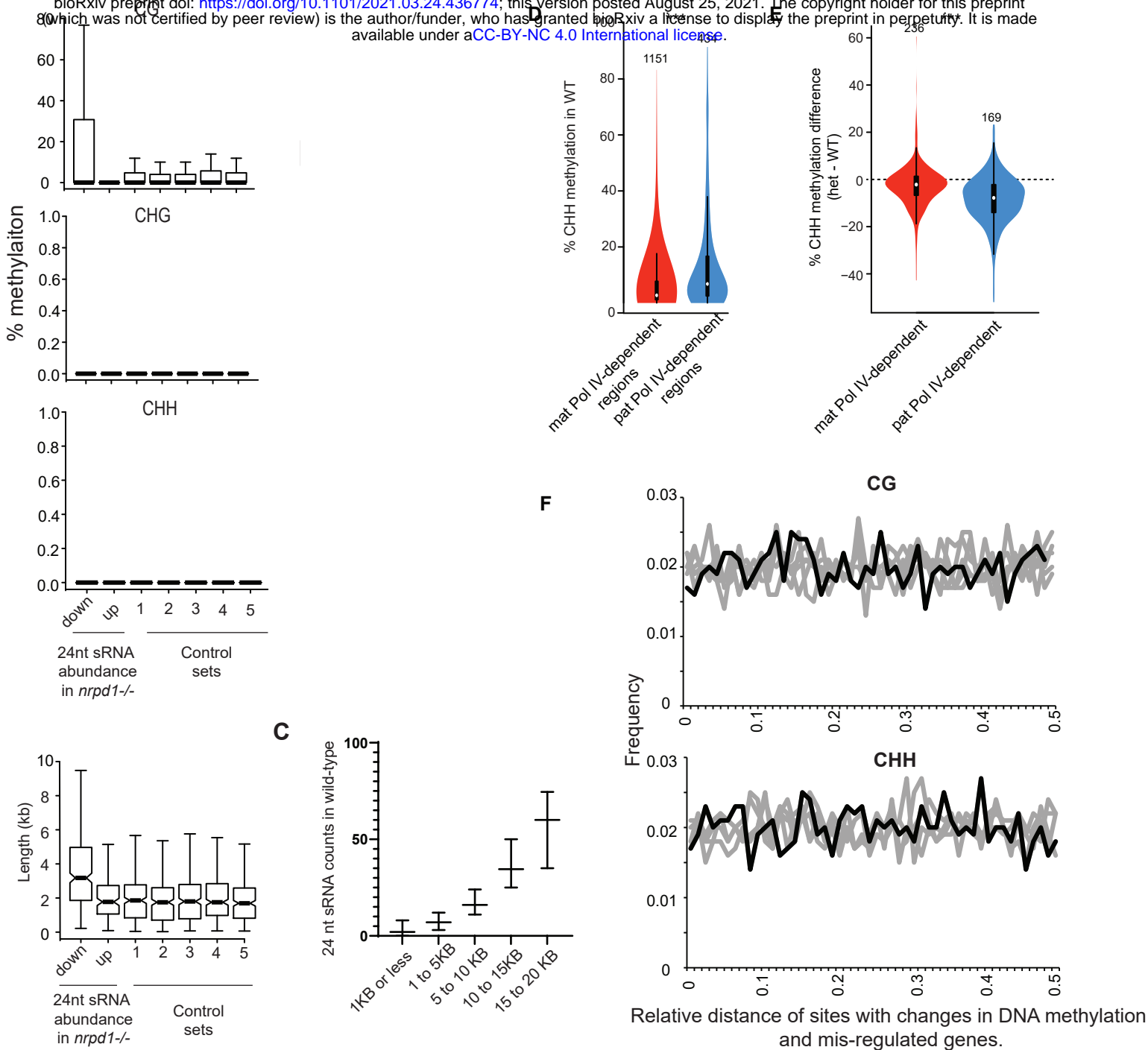


Figure S7: No relationship between DNA methylation changes and genic mis-regulation in *nrpd1*^{+/-}. (A) Comparison of methylation in CG, CHG and CHH contexts at individual cytosines within genes in wild-type. Cytosines in the first two columns on the left lie within mis-regulated genes whose sRNA abundances are up or down in *nrpd1*^{-/-}. The control sets include cytosines within five randomly selected sub-set of genes that show no changes in mRNA abundance in *nrpd1*^{-/-}. (B) Genes with fewer sRNAs in *nrpd1*^{-/-} and mis-regulated expression tend to be longer. (C) Longer genes have more total 24 nt sRNAs in wild-type endosperm. (D) Wild-type CHH methylation at sRNA producing sites that are dependent on maternal or paternal Pol IV. Methylation is significantly higher at paternal Pol IV-dependent sites. (E) Effects of parental Pol IV loss on CHH methylation at regions with parental Pol IV-dependent sRNAs and greater than 10% CHH methylation in WT. Red, difference between mat *nrpd1*^{+/-} and WT; blue, difference between pat *nrpd1*^{+/-} and WT. Small RNA producing regions impacted in paternal *nrpd1*^{+/-} have higher losses of CHH methylation. For D and E, CHH methylation was calculated for 300bp sliding windows with a 200 bp overlap. CHH methylation windows overlapping windows losing small RNAs in *nrpd1*^{+/-} endosperm were identified and merged using bedtools; maximum CHH methylation among merged windows was used for violin plot. *** represents a statistically significant difference as calculated by Wilcoxon test ($p < 0.001$). Boxplot in the violin plot shows median and inter-quartile range. (F) The relative distance metric shows no significant correlation between mis-regulated genes and sites with changes in CG and CHH DNA methylation in mat *nrpd1*^{+/-}. Relative distance was calculated using bedtools. Black line indicates relative distance between mis-regulated genes and sites with differences in DNA methylation between wild-type and mat *nrpd1*^{+/-} (identified by Bismark). Grey lines represent relative distance between 5 replicates of random sites in the genome and mis-regulated genes. A uniform frequency of about 0.02 indicates no major correlation between the two data-sets.

1 (Oshlack & Wakefield, 2009). Longer genes also tend to have higher CG methylation (Takuno &
2 Gaut, 2012; Zilberman et al., 2007). We therefore argue that this increased CG methylation is
3 an analytical artifact. Our results suggest that Pol IV dependent genic sRNAs do not regulate
4 endosperm gene expression by directing genic DNA methylation, consistent with our previous
5 findings (Erdmann et al., 2017).

6 We also tested if changes in DNA methylation brought about by loss of parental Pol IV
7 could explain changes in gene expression. Overall, loss of parental Pol IV had only minor
8 effects on DNA methylation (Table S5). Loss of Pol IV activity primarily reduces asymmetric
9 CHH methylation (Stroud et al., 2013). Comparison of mat *nrpd1*^{+/-} and pat *nrpd1*^{+/-} CHH
10 methylation with wild-type endosperm identified 2234 and 2056 DMRs (covering 812.7 Kb and
11 759.9Kb, respectively) with 50% hypomethylated in mat *nrpd1*^{+/-} and 54.8% hypomethylated in
12 pat *nrpd1*^{+/-} (Table S5). Consistent with the parent-of-origin effects described for mRNAs and
13 sRNAs, we made three observations that suggest that mat and pat Pol IV activity have distinct
14 impacts on the endosperm methylome. First, only 50% of CHH DMRs are shared between the
15 two heterozygous genotypes. Second, regions where sRNA accumulation is dependent on
16 paternal inheritance of a wild-type *NRPD1* allele have higher CHH methylation in wild-type
17 endosperm than regions where sRNAs are dependent on maternal *NRPD1* (Fig. S7D). This
18 pattern is consistent with our previous finding that maternally-biased small RNAs are often not
19 associated with methylated DNA in wild-type endosperm (Erdmann et al., 2017). Third, an
20 examination of regions with at least 10% CHH methylation in wild-type endosperm shows that
21 loss of paternal *NRPD1* had a more substantial impact on endosperm CHH methylation than
22 loss of maternal *NRPD1* (Fig. S7E).

23 Symmetric CG and CHG methylation are typically less affected by loss of *NRPD1*
24 because other mechanisms exist to maintain this type of methylation. Comparison of CHG
25 methylation between wild-type and either heterozygote identified fewer than 100 DMRs and
26 CHG methylation was not investigated further. Both mat and pat *nrpd1*^{+/-} endosperm exhibited
27 changes in CG methylation compared to the wild type (Table S5). In mat *nrpd1*^{+/-} endosperm,
28 48.5% of DMRs (of a total 600 DMRs spanning 207 kb) were hypomethylated relative to wild-
29 type while in pat *nrpd1*^{+/-} 60% of DMRs (of a total 707 DMRs spanning 258 KB) were
30 hypomethylated relative to wild-type. Further, we found that few of the sites hypo- or hyper-
31 methylated in the CG context in mat *nrpd1*^{+/-} were shared with those changing methylation
32 state in pat *nrpd1*^{+/-} (Table S5).

1 We used the DMRs in the analysis described above to assess their impact on gene
2 expression. In mat *nrpd1*^{+/-} endosperm, 2.6% and 3.4% of total mis-regulated genes are within
3 one kb of assayable regions with less or more CHH methylation in mat *nrpd1*^{+/-} endosperm
4 (Table S7). In addition, two genes and one gene are within one kb of a region that has higher
5 and lower CHH methylation in pat *nrpd1*^{+/-}. One gene is associated with increased CG
6 methylation in pat *nrpd1*^{+/-}. We also used relative distance analysis to see if mat *nrpd1*^{+/-} mis-
7 regulated genes are more likely to be associated with DNA methylation changes (there are too
8 few genes associated with DNA methylation changes in pat *nrpd1*^{+/-} to perform this analysis).
9 Consistent with previous analyses, we find no clear relationship between DNA methylation
10 changes and gene expression changes in the mat *nrpd1*^{+/-} endosperm (Fig. S7F).

11 *Allelic analysis of mis-regulated genes to identify cis or trans effects of Pol IV*

12 One method to assess whether Pol IV's impacts on gene expression are predominantly
13 *cis* or *trans* acting is to compare the allelic origins of mRNA in wild-type and *nrpd1*^{+/-}
14 endosperm. If a gene's mRNA abundance in the endosperm is determined by the activity of Pol
15 IV in *cis* either in the gametophyte or sporophyte, then the gene would be primarily mis-
16 regulated from the allele inherited from a parent lacking Pol IV. Thus, in mat *nrpd1*^{+/-}
17 endosperm, mis-regulation of such genes would be driven predominantly by changes in
18 expression from maternal alleles whereas genes expression differences in pat *nrpd1*^{+/-}
19 endosperm would be driven by changes in expression from paternal alleles. In contrast, the
20 predominance of *trans* effects would be indicated by both parental alleles contributing to the
21 changes in the abundance of transcript levels at most genes. We utilized SNPs between Col-0
22 (paternal) and Ler (maternal) genomes to identify allele-specific mRNA-seq reads. We
23 evaluated the contributions of each parent's alleles in the endosperm for 2372 mis-regulated
24 genes that had at least ten allele-specific reads in wild-type and *nrpd1*^{+/-}. For the majority of
25 genes, mis-regulation in mat *nrpd1*^{+/-} was driven by effects on expression of both maternal and
26 paternal alleles, with some notable exceptions (Fig. S8A). For example, increased expression of
27 *DOG1* in mat *nrpd1*^{+/-} was primarily driven by increased expression from maternal alleles (Fig.
28 S8B). *AT4G12870* was repressed in mat *nrpd1*^{+/-} primarily due to a loss of maternal allele
29 expression (Fig. S8B). In contrast, expression of *SAC2* was primarily repressed in mat *nrpd1*^{+/-}
30 because of decreased expression from the paternal allele (Fig. S8B). Overall, both maternal and
31 paternal alleles made equal contributions to genic mis-regulation in the mat *nrpd1*^{+/-}
32 endosperm. 4.7% of down-regulated genes and 5.3% of up-regulated genes showed at least a
33 20% increase or decrease in maternal allele contribution. This was roughly similar to the

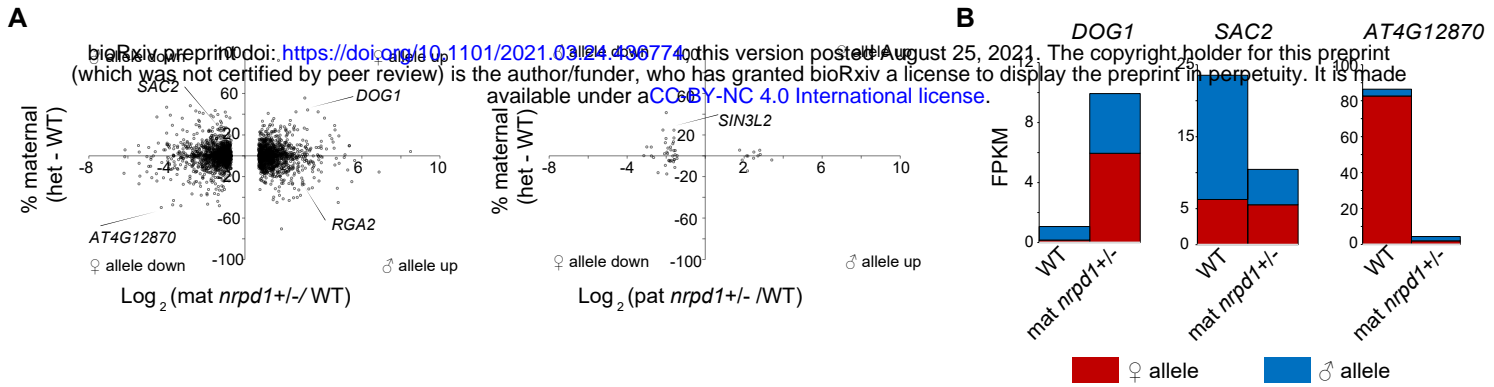


Figure S8: Impact of parental *NRPD1* on maternal and paternal allele contributions to total gene expression.
(A) Genes were examined to identify those whose expression differences were driven by allele-specific effects. Genes with at least a two-fold, statistically significant difference in expression between the indicated heterozygote and WT and at least ten allele-specific reads in both genotypes were included. The shift in allelic expression was evaluated by subtracting the % maternal-allele transcripts in WT from the heterozygote. Genes within Col-0 introgressions that remain in *Ler nrpd1*^{-/-} plants were excluded from all analyses. **(B)** Examples of genes showing allele-specific impacts upon loss of of maternal Pol IV. FPKM and fold-change in (A) and (B) are from Cuffdiff output.

1 contribution of paternal alleles to mis-regulation in mat *nripd1*^{+/-}. 4.4% of down-regulated genes
2 and 5.3% of up-regulated showed at least a 20% change in paternal allele contribution (Fig.
3 S8A). In pat *nripd1*^{+/-}, only 8% of down-regulated genes had lower contribution of paternal
4 alleles while both alleles contributed to up-regulation (Fig.S8A). Overall, these results suggest
5 that parental Pol IV's impact on gene expression is largely due to *trans* effects.

6 In summary, our analyses test and dismiss several *cis*-regulatory mechanisms
7 for how Pol IV may mediate parent-of-origin gene expression effects on the endosperm. We
8 also individually examined DNA methylation and sRNAs at genes showing antagonistic
9 regulation by maternally and paternally acting Pol IV and found no evidence for a role for sRNAs
10 and DNA methylation in their regulation. These results lead us to conclude that parent-of-origin
11 effects and the antagonistic effects that we observe are likely the result of *trans*-acting effects of
12 parental Pol IV activity.

13 Discussion

14 We demonstrate that Pol IV activity in the father promotes seed abortion in response to extra
15 paternal genomes, whereas Pol IV activity in the mother promotes seed viability in these
16 conditions. Previous observations of sRNA or mRNA at individual genes in diploid endosperm
17 showed that Pol IV function in the mother and the father have different effects on the
18 endosperm (Kirkbride et al., 2019; Vu et al., 2013). These findings suggested that Pol IV has
19 differing, and perhaps even opposing, roles in maternal and paternal parents. In this study, we
20 characterized the effect of maternal and paternal Pol IV activity on the endosperm through
21 genome-wide analyses of transcription, mRNA cleavage, small RNAs, and DNA methylation in
22 balanced endosperm. Our molecular data demonstrate that Pol IV activity in the mother and
23 father have parent-of-origin effects on the endosperm, a subset of which are antagonistic. We
24 found that one parent's copy of *NRPD1* is sufficient for the production of Pol IV-dependent
25 sRNAs at most loci, with a small number of largely non-overlapping loci losing sRNAs upon loss
26 of maternal or paternal *NRPD1*. Pol IV activity in the mother and father also have distinct
27 impacts on the DNA methylation landscape in the endosperm. Endosperm with a paternally
28 inherited *nripd1* mutation had lower DNA methylation compared with endosperm where the
29 *nripd1* mutation was maternally inherited. Finally, an interrogation of gene expression shows that
30 loss of maternal Pol IV leads to significant mis-regulation of several hundred genes while loss of
31 paternal Pol IV leads to mis-regulation of only several dozen. A key finding of our study is that
32 genes that are mis-regulated upon loss of maternal *NRPD1* are affected in an opposite manner
33 upon loss of paternal *NRPD1*. Together, our results suggest that maternal and paternal Pol IV

1 are genetically antagonistic and that the major effect on transcription observed in heterozygotes
2 is established before fertilization. These observations are important for understanding both Pol
3 IV's role in reproduction and the genetic architecture underlying parental control of offspring
4 development.

5 **Pol IV, conflict, and the genetic architecture of parental control**

6 Parental conflict theory predicts that in viviparous species, mother and father have
7 antagonistic effects on regulating resource allocation and associated gene expression in
8 offspring. In practice, such effects are difficult to detect and have been infrequently described.
9 Antagonistic parental effects are likely to be balanced in the individuals within an inbred
10 population (like *Arabidopsis*) and are thus unobservable except in mutants or in hybrids where
11 maternal and paternal effects are out of balance. When homozygous mutants are examined,
12 these effects may be missed because they do not cause dramatic developmental phenotypes or
13 because simultaneous loss of antagonistic maternal and paternal effects effectively cancels one
14 another out. Thus, reciprocal heterozygotes need to be examined to detect antagonistic parent-
15 of-origin effects. A close examination of our data provides insights into the genetic architecture
16 mediating parental control of offspring development.

17 A key feature of the regulatory infrastructure that mediates parent-of-origin specific
18 effects on zygotic gene expression is that maternal and paternal alleles need to be distinguished
19 from each other in the zygote (in this case, endosperm is the relevant zygote). In *A. thaliana*
20 endosperm, at many loci maternally inherited alleles are DNA demethylated and marked with
21 H3K27 methylation by Polycomb Repressive Complex2 (PRC2), while paternally inherited
22 alleles remain DNA methylated and have reduced H3K27me3 (Borg et al., 2020; Moreno-
23 Romero et al., 2016; Pignatta et al., 2014). Maternal inheritance of mutations in the PRC2 sub-
24 units *MEA*, *FIE*, *FIS2* and *MSI1* leads to endosperm defects and seed abortion (Chaudhury et
25 al., 1997; Grossniklaus, 1998; Kohler, 2003; Ohad et al., 1996). Similarly, inheritance of
26 maternal mutations in the DNA demethylase *DME* increases DNA methylation on endosperm
27 maternal alleles and causes seed abortion (Choi et al., 2002). Paternal inheritance of mutations
28 in these genes have no reported effect on endosperm development or gene expression. These
29 results thus argued that the solution to the problem of distinguishing parental alleles from one
30 another after fertilization was to mark maternal and paternal chromosomes with distinct
31 epigenetic modifications. However, this model may not explain all parent-of-origin effects on
32 gene expression, particularly outside of imprinted genes. Our study provides evidence for a
33 distinct model in which the same epigenetic regulator – Pol IV – can mediate both maternal and

1 paternal effects. The only other example of a gene with seemingly antagonistic effects on seeds
2 is the maintenance methyltransferase *MET1*, whose mutation has opposing effects on seed size
3 when inherited maternally or paternally, although the molecular basis of this phenotype is
4 unknown (Xiao et al., 2006).

5 How does Pol IV in the mother and the father have distinct impacts after fertilization? Pol
6 IV targets can be tissue or developmental stage-specific (Grover et al., 2020) and thus Pol IV
7 may target different genomic regions during male and female gametogenesis. Pol IV could act
8 pre- or post-meiotically in the parental sporophyte (diploid phase of the life cycle), in the
9 gametophyte (haploid phase of life cycle), or post-fertilization in the maternal sporophyte. RT-
10 PCR based examination of dissected synergids and central cells did not detect *NRPD1*
11 transcripts (Vu et al., 2013). This suggests that on the maternal side Pol IV influences
12 endosperm gene expression by acting in the maternal sporophyte or in the female gametophyte
13 prior to central cell formation. Alternatively, Pol IV could act in the maternal sporophytic
14 integuments/seed coat after fertilization, when the endosperm is developing. One potential
15 mechanism for this would be through Pol IV-dependent sRNAs moving from the seed coat to
16 the endosperm (Grover et al., 2020; Kirkbride et al., 2019). However, examination of the levels
17 of total Pol IV-dependent sRNAs, allele-specific data, and imprinted sRNA regions suggests that
18 the potential influence of seed coat Pol IV function on endosperm expression would likely be
19 independent of sRNA transfer. This conclusion is consistent with previous observations that
20 endosperm and seed coat have distinct sRNA profiles (Erdmann et al., 2017).

21 We have shown that parental Pol IV activity is dispensable for guiding endosperm sRNA
22 production at most loci, with the exception of imprinted sRNA regions, but that parental Pol IV
23 activity plays an important role in guiding endosperm gene expression. The molecular nature of
24 this memory is unknown, and at present we can only speculate. Data from paternal excess
25 interploidy crosses suggests that the molecular identity of Pol IV memory may differ between
26 the maternal and paternal parents. In the father, the genes required for sRNA production
27 (*NRPD1*, *RDR2* and *DCL3*) and the genes required for downstream DNA methylation
28 (*NRPE1/Pol V* and *DRM2*) are both essential to promote paternal excess seed abortion (Satyaki
29 & Gehring, 2019). In contrast, in the mother, genes required for sRNA production but not for
30 DNA methylation promote paternal excess seed viability (Satyaki & Gehring, 2019). This
31 suggests that DNA methylation or another downstream chromatin mark directed by Pol IV-
32 dependent sRNAs could be the identity of paternally-inherited memory, but is unlikely to be the
33 molecular identity of maternally-inherited memory. What would be the nature of maternal DNA

1 methylation-independent memory? Pol IV, like other RNA polymerases (Studitsky et al., 2004),
2 could act as a chromatin remodeler. Or, Pol IV could direct a chromatin modification, produce
3 sRNAs that post-transcriptionally control genes, or control the expression of genes whose
4 products are deposited in the gametes, which in turn sets up a memory to direct gene
5 expression programs in the endosperm after fertilization.

6 How might we interpret Pol IV's parent-of-origin effects in terms of conflicts between
7 parents? Studies on how resource allocation conflicts between parents impact gene expression
8 have thus far been focused on imprinted genes. However, a handful of studies show the
9 importance of non-imprinted genes in parent-of-origin effects (Al Adhami et al., 2015; Mott et al.,
10 2014). For example, QTL analyses of a heterogeneous mouse stock showed that non-imprinted
11 genes mediate parent-of-origin effects on the offspring's immune system (Mott et al., 2014). Our
12 study describes for the first time a system in which an epigenetic regulator acts in the mother
13 and the father to antagonistically regulate the same non-imprinted genes in the zygote. While
14 the magnitude of effects at many genes may be small, it should be noted that small changes in
15 gene expression can be associated with very different phenotypes (Ruzycki et al., 2015). Our
16 allele-specific mRNA-seq data shows that loss of Pol IV from one parent can impact alleles
17 inherited from both parents in the endosperm. This suggests that Pol IV does not act directly at
18 antagonistic loci but acts instead by regulating other modifiers of gene expression. Yet, this
19 antagonistic regulation can also be viewed through another perspective. Parental conflict can be
20 resolved or paused if both parents can modulate the expression level of a gene or the activity of
21 a pathway to an optimum that is tolerable to each. Pol IV's role in mediating the antagonistic
22 effects of both parents makes it an ideal system to negotiate optimal gene expression levels.
23 Thus, Pol IV may not be solely an agent of conflict, but also a means to resolving it. Overall,
24 these data suggest that Pol IV is part of a gene regulatory network that is evolving under
25 parental conflict.

26

27 **Materials and Methods**

28 **Arabidopsis growth conditions, strains and tissue collection**

29 Plants used in this experiment were grown at 22° C in a Conviron chamber on a 16hr light/8hr
30 dark cycle (120 µM light). The *A. thaliana* mutant used in this study was *nprpd1a-4*
31 (SALK_083051 obtained from ABRC) (Herr et al., 2005) in the Col-0 background. We also
32 utilized *nprpd1a-4* introgressed 4 times into Ler (Erdmann *et al*, 2017). Endosperm from

1 approximately 100 seeds (7 days after pollination) from at least three siliques was dissected
2 free of embryos and seed coats and pooled for each biological replicate as previously described
3 (Gehring *et al.*, 2011). Each biological replicate was collected from crosses that used different
4 individuals as parents. The number of replicates for each experiment was decided based on
5 currently accepted practices in genomic studies. For small RNA experiments, we planned to
6 sample three biological replicates for each genotype. However, we had to discard one of the
7 three *nrpd1*^{+/-} sRNA libraries because that library had too few reads.

8

9 **mRNA, small RNA and DNA isolation and library construction**

10 Large and small sized RNAs were isolated using the RNAqueous micro RNA
11 isolation kit (Thermo Scientific Fisher). Briefly, endosperm dissected from seeds was collected
12 in lysis buffer and then homogenized with an RNase-free pellet pestle driven by a Kimble motor.
13 Large and small RNA species were isolated and separated using the manufacturer's protocol.
14 The RNA concentration of the larger fraction was measured by Qubit. Small RNA libraries were
15 constructed using the NEXTflex sRNA-seq kit V3 (Biooscientific). Final library amplification was
16 carried out for 25 cycles and the libraries were size selected (135-160bp) using a Pippin Prep
17 (Sage Science). mRNA-seq libraries were constructed using a Smart-Seq2 protocol (Picelli *et*
18 *al.*, 2014). NanoPARE libraries were built as described in Schon *et al* (2018) All libraries were
19 sequenced on the Illumina Hi-Seq 2500.

20

21 DNA for bisulfite sequencing was isolated from dissected endosperm at 7 days after
22 pollination using QiaAMP DNA microkit (QIAGEN 56304). Dissected tissue was obtained for
23 two biological replicates for each genotype and incubated overnight in a shaker at 56°C in ATL
24 buffer with Proteinase K. Between 70 and 100ng of endosperm DNA obtained from crosses was
25 subjected to bisulfite treatment using the Methylcode Bisulfite conversion kit (Invitrogen).
26 Analysis of cytosines from chloroplasts with at least ten sequenced reads showed a conversion
27 rate of greater than 98% for all libraries. Bisulfite converted DNA was used to build libraries with
28 the Pico Methyl-Seq library kit (Zymo Research, D5455). 7 cycles of amplification was used for
29 library construction. All libraries were sequenced on the Illumina Hi-Seq 2500 (60bp paired-
30 end).

31 **Small RNA analysis**

1 Small RNA reads were trimmed with `fastq_quality_trimmer` (`fastq_quality_trimmer -v -t 20 -l 25`).
2 Cutadapt (Martin, 2011) was used to identify adapter bearing reads of suitable length (`cutadapt`
3 `-a TGGAATTCTCGGGTGCCAAGG --trimmed-only --quality-base 64 -m 24 -M 40 --max-n 0.5`
4 `--too-long-output`). Taking advantage of the random nucleotides on the adapters in NEXTflex
5 kits, we used Prinseq (`prinseq-lite-0.20.4`) (`prinseq-lite.pl -fastq <infile> -out_format 3 -out_good`
6 `<filename> -derep 1 -log`) to remove PCR duplicates (Schmieder & Edwards, 2011). Filtered
7 reads were aligned to a genome consisting of concatenated Col-0 TAIR10 and *Ler* pseudo-
8 genome (Col-0 genome substituted with *Ler* SNPs) using Bowtie (`v 1.2.2`) `bowtie -v 2 --best -p`
9 `8 -5 4 -3 4 --sam <index file> <infile.fq>` (Langmead et al., 2009). Reads mapping to *Ler* were
10 lifted over to Col-0 using custom scripts (Erdmann et al., 2017). A custom script `assign-to-allele`
11 was used to identify reads arising from Col-0 or *Ler* alleles
12 (https://github.com/clp90/imprinting_analysis/tree/master/helper_scripts). Aligned reads
13 between 21 and 24nt in length were binned based on size. Bedtools was used to count reads in
14 300-bp windows with 200-bp overlaps and over annotated genes and TEs from Araport 11.
15 DESeq2 (Love et al., 2014) was used to identify features showing differences in small RNA
16 abundance with an adjusted *p-value* of 0.05 or less. One complication with using DESeq2 is that
17 the loss of Pol IV-dependent sRNAs at most loci in *nprp1*^{-/-} leads to an underestimation of wild-
18 type library size by DESeq2, which increases the proportion of false negatives and undercounts
19 the number of Pol IV-dependent sRNA loci. To allay this effect while analyzing genes, we
20 excluded TEs and applied differential expression analysis to just genic and miRNA loci. These
21 non-TE loci also included Pol IV-independent sRNA loci, which provide an estimate of library
22 size. We separately examined TEs using genic sRNA counts to provide an estimate of library
23 size. ShortStack version 3.8.5 (Axtell, 2013) was also used as an orthogonal approach to
24 identify small RNA peaks from bam alignment file output from Bowtie. Parameters chosen for
25 ShortStack included `dicermin=20`, `dicermax=25` and a `mincov` of 0.5 rpm.

26

27 mRNA-seq and NanoPARE analysis

28 The reads from mRNA-Seq and NanoPARE were trimmed for quality with “`trim_galore -q 25 --`
29 `phred64 --fastqc --length 20 --stringency 5`” and aligned to the TAIR10 genome using Tophat
30 (`v2.1.1`) (Kim et al., 2013) using the command `tophat -i 30 -l 3000 --segment-mismatches 1 --`
31 `segment-length 18 --b2-very-sensitive`. Cuffdiff (`v2.1.1`) (Trapnell et al., 2013) was used to
32 identify differentially expressed genes for mRNA-Seq data. Aligned NanoPARE read counts at

1 each nucleotide in the genome were counted using Bedtools. Sites with statistical differences in
2 NanoPARE read counts were identified by DESeq2.

3 **DNA methylation analysis**

4 Reads from Bisulfite sequencing were trimmed for quality using Trim Galore.
5 (<https://github.com/FelixKrueger/TrimGalore>). Trimmed reads were aligned to the TAIR10
6 genome using Bismark (Krueger & Andrews, 2011) with parameters set to `-N 1 -L 20 --`
7 `non_directional`. For this alignment, paired-end reads were treated as single reads. Previously
8 described Bismark methylation extractor and custom scripts (Pignatta et al., 2014, 2015) were
9 used to determine DNA methylation/base and then methylation was calculated for 300 bp
10 windows that overlapped by 200bp. Data from the two biological replicates for each genotype
11 were pooled together for comparison between genotypes. To be included in analysis, windows
12 needed to have at least three overlapping cytosines and a depth of 6 reads/cytosine. Windows
13 that differed between genotypes by 10% CHH, 20% CHG or 30% CG DNA methylation were
14 identified as differentially methylated. Overlapping windows with differential methylation
15 between genotypes were merged into differentially methylated regions. To increase the
16 robustness of our conclusions, we added two data filtering steps. DNA methylation in the
17 endosperm varies between maternal and paternal alleles and bisulfite sequencing is known to
18 potentially enrich for methylated DNA (Ji et al., 2014). Since we were examining the
19 consequences of loss of *NRPD1* in either parent, we could preferentially lose DNA methylation
20 from one set of alleles. This could lead to lower coverage of one set of parental alleles and lead
21 to faulty measurements of DNA methylation. We therefore limited our analyses to genomic
22 regions in which reads arising from the maternally inherited genome accounted for 67%+/- 15%
23 of total DNA reads (based on the fact that that 2/3 of the DNA in endosperm is maternally-
24 inherited). Next, we identified DMRs between the two replicates for each genotype to mark
25 regions where DNA methylation was variable within the same genotype. These regions were
26 excluded from further analysis.

27 **Data Availability**

28 All high-throughput sequencing data will be available in GEO at GSEXXXX.

29

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4 **Competing Interests**

5 The authors have no competing interests.

6

7 **Supplemental Files**

8 **Figure S1:** Maternal and paternal Pol IV activity have opposing effects on paternal excess seed
9 abortion.

10 **Figure S2:** RNA Pol IV is necessary for the production of 21-24nt sRNAs in the endosperm.

11 **Figure S3:** Impact of the loss of maternal and paternal *NRPD1* on the endosperm small RNA
12 population.

13 **Figure S4:** RNA Pol IV-dependent small RNAs arise from both maternal and paternal alleles.

14 **Figure S5:** Tissue enrichment in dissected endosperm shows little seed coat contamination.

15 **Figure S6:** Impact of parental *NRPD1* on maternal and paternal allele contributions to total
16 gene expression.

17 **Figure S7:** No relationship between Pol IV sRNAs and gene regulation.

18 **Figure S8:** No relationship between DNA methylation changes and genic mis-regulation in
19 *nrpd1+/-*

20 **Table S1:** List of sequenced libraries.

21 **Table S2:** DESeq2 output for comparison of 21-24nt sRNA over genes between Wild-type and
22 *nrpd1-/-*, maternal *nrpd1+/-*, paternal *nrpd1+/-*.

23 **Table S3:** DESeq2 output for comparison of 21-24nt sRNA over transposons between Wild-type
24 and *nrpd1-/-*, maternal *nrpd1+/-*, paternal *nrpd1+/-*.

25 **Table S4:** Bedgraph for windows with differences in 21-24nt sRNA between Wild-type and
26 *nrpd1-/-*, maternal *nrpd1+/-*, paternal *nrpd1+/-*.

1 **Table S5:** Bed files showing regions differentially methylated between wild-type, mat *nrpd1*^{+/-}
2 and pat *nrpd1*^{+/-} endosperm.

3 **Table S6:** Cuffdiff output showing genes that are differentially expressed between wild-type,
4 *nrpd1*^{-/-}, mat *nrpd1*^{+/-} and pat *nrpd1*^{+/-}.

5 **Table S7:** Distance between mis-regulated genes and regions with differences in sRNAs and
6 DNA methylation

7

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