Genetic mapping of sex and self-incompatibility determinants in the androdioecious

plant *Phillyrea angustifolia*

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Abstract

The diversity of mating and sexual systems in Angiosperms is spectacular, but the factors driving their evolution remain poorly understood. In plants of the Oleaceae family, an unusual self-incompatibility (SI) system has been discovered recently, whereby only two distinct homomorphic SI specificities segregate stably. To understand the role of this peculiar SI system in preventing or promoting the diversity of sexual phenotypes observed across the family, an essential first step is to characterize the genetic architecture of these two traits. Here, we developed a high-density genetic map of the androdioecious shrub *P. angustifolia* based on a F1 cross between a hermaphrodite and a male parent with distinct SI genotypes. Using a double restriction-site associated digestion (ddRAD) sequencing approach, we obtained reliable genotypes for 196 offspring and their two parents at 10,388 markers. The resulting map comprises 23 linkage groups totaling 1,855.13 cM on the sex-averaged map. We found strong signals of association for the sex and SI phenotypes, that were each associated with a unique set of markers on linkage group 12 and 18 respectively, demonstrating inheritance of these traits as single, independent, mendelian factors. The *P. angustifolia* linkage map shows robust synteny to the olive tree genome overall. Two of the six markers strictly associated with SI in *P. angustifolia* have strong similarity with a recently identified 741kb chromosomal region fully linked to the SI phenotype on chromosome 18 of the olive tree genome, providing strong cross-validation support. The SI locus stands out as being markedly more rearranged, while the sex locus has remained relatively more collinear. This *P. angustifolia* linkage map will be a useful resource to investigate the various ways by which the sex and SI determination systems have co-evolved in the broader phylogenetic context of the Oleaceae family.

Introduction

Sexual reproduction is strikingly diverse across Angiosperms, both in terms of the proportion of autogamous vs. allogamous matings and in terms of the distribution of male and female sexual functions within and among individuals (BARRETT 1998; SAKAI AND WELLER 1999; DIGGLE *et al.* 2011). The conditions under which this diversity could arise under apparently similar ecological conditions and have evolved rapidly -sometimes even within the same family- have been a topic of intense interest in evolutionary biology (BARRETT 1998). The control of self-fertilization and the delicate balance between its costs and benefits is considered to be a central force driving this diversity. Avoidance of self-fertilization is sometimes associated with observable phenotypic variations among reciprocally compatible partners. These variations can be morphological (e.g. distyly) or temporal (e.g. protandry, protogyny in the case of heterodichogamy), but in many cases the flowers show no obvious morphological or phenological variation, and self-fertilization avoidance relies on so-called "homomorphic" self-incompatibility (SI) systems. These systems are defined as the inability of fertile hermaphrodite plants to produce zygotes through self-fertilization (LUNDQVIST 1956; DE NETTANCOURT 1977), and typically rely on the segregation of a finite number of recognition "specificities" whereby matings between individuals expressing cognate specificities are not successful at producing zygotes. At the genetic level, the SI specificities most commonly segregate as a single multi-allelic mendelian locus, the S locus. This locus contains at least two genes, one encoding the male determinant expressed in pollen and the other encoding the female determinant expressed in pistils, with the male specificity sometimes determined by a series of tandemly arranged paralogs (KUBO *et al.* 2015). The male and female determinants are both highly polymorphic and tightly linked, being inherited as a single non-recombining genetic unit. In cases where the molecular mechanisms controlling SI could be studied in detail, they were found to be remarkably diverse, illustrating their independent evolutionary origins across the flowering plants (IWANO AND TAKAYAMA 2012). Beyond the diversity of the molecular functions employed, SI systems also can differ in their genetic architecture.

In the Poaceae family for example, two independent loci (named S and Z) control SI (Yang, et al., 2008). In

other cases, the alternate allelic specificities can be determined by presence-absence variants rather than

nucleotide sequence variants of a given gene, such as *e.g.* in *Primula vulgaris*, where one of the two

reproductive phenotypes is hemizygous rather than heterozygous for the SI locus (LI *et al.* 2016).

In spite of this diversity of molecular mechanisms and genetic architectures, a common feature of

SI phenotypes is that they are all expected to evolve under negative frequency-dependent selection, a

form of natural selection favoring the long-term maintenance of high levels of allelic diversity (WRIGHT

1939). Accordingly, large numbers of distinct SI alleles are commonly observed to segregate within natural

and cultivated SI species (reviewed in CASTRIC AND VEKEMANS 2004). There are notable exceptions to this

general rule, however, and in some species only two SI specificities seem to segregate stably. Most often

in such diallelic SI (DSI) systems, the two SI specificities are in perfect association with morphologically

distinguishable floral phenotypes. In distylous species, for instance, two floral morphs called "pin" and

"thrum" coexist (BARRETT 1992; BARRETT 2019). In each morph, the anthers and stigma are spatially

separated within the flowers, but located at corresponding, reciprocal positions between the two morphs.

Additional morphological differences exist, with S-morph flowers producing fewer but larger pollen grains

than L-morph flowers (DULBERGER 1992). These morphological differences are believed to enhance the

selfing avoidance conferred by the SI system but also to increase both male and female fitnesses (BARRETT

1990; BARRETT 2002; KELLER *et al.* 2014), although it is not clear which of SI or floral morphs became

established in the first place (CHARLESWORTH AND CHARLESWORTH 1979).

The Oleacea family is another intriguing exception, where a DSI was recently found to be shared

across the entire family (VERNET *et al.* 2016). In this family of trees, the basal genera *Jasminum* ($2n = 2x =$

26), *Fontanesia* ($2n = 2x = 26$) and *Forsythia* ($2n = 2x = 28$) are all heterostylous and therefore seem to

possess a heteromorphic DSI system; in *Jasminum fruticans* self- and within-morph fertilization are

unsuccessful (DOMMÉE *et al.* 1992). The ancestral heterostyly gave rise to species with hermaphrodite (e.g.

Ligustrum vulgare, *Olea europaea*), androdioecious (e.g. *P. angustifolia*, *Fraxinus ornus*), polygamous (e.g.

F. excelsior) and even dioecious (e.g. *F. chinensis*) sexual systems, possibly in association with a doubling

of the number of chromosomes ($2n = 2x = 46$ in the Oleeae tribe). Detailed crossing experiments in one of

these species, *P. angustifolia,* revealed the existence of a previously unsuspected homomorphic DSI. In

this androdioecious species (i.e. in which male and hermaphrodite individuals coexist in the same

populations), hermaphrodite individuals form two morphologically indistinguishable groups of SI

specificities that are reciprocally compatible but incompatible within groups, whereas males show

compatibility with hermaphrodites of both groups (SAUMITOU-LAPRADE *et al.* 2010). This "universal"

compatibility of males offsets the reproductive disadvantage they suffer from lack of their female function,

such that the existence of the DSI provides a powerful explanation to the long-standing evolutionary puzzle

represented by the maintenance of high frequencies of males in this species (PANNELL AND KORBECKA 2010;

SAUMITOU-LAPRADE *et al.* 2010; BILLIARD *et al.* 2015; PANNELL AND VOILLEMOT 2015). Extension of the stigma

test developed in *P. angustifolia* to more distant species including *L. vulgaris* (DE CAUWER *et al.* 2020), *F.*

ornus (VERNET *et al.* 2016) and *O. europaea* (SAUMITOU-LAPRADE *et al.* 2017; DUPIN *et al.* 2020) demonstrated

that all species exhibited some form of the DSI, but with no consistent association with floral morphology.

Cross-species pollination experiments even showed that pollen from *P. angustifolia* is able to trigger a

robust SI response on *O. europaea* and the more distant *F. ornus* and *F. excelsior* stigmas (the reciprocal is

also true). This opens the question of whether the homomorphic DSI is identical by descend (orthologous)

across the Oleeae tribe, even in the face of the variety of sexual polymorphisms present in the different

species. More broadly, its link with the heteromorphic DSI in the ancestral diploid, largely heterostylous,

species remains to be established (BARRETT 2019). Understanding the causes of the long-term maintenance

of this SI system and exploring its consequences on the evolution of sexual systems in hermaphrodite,

androdioecious, polygamous or dioecious species of the family represents an important goal. The case of

P. angustifolia is particularly interesting because it is one of the rare instances where separate sexes and

the DSI system can be studied in a single species, and therefore lies at the crossroads of processes that

may be obscured in lineages where they are unfolding independently (ROSAS AND DOMÍNGUEZ 2009; BARRETT

2010; LIU *et al.* 2012; BILLIARD *et al.* 2015)

A first step toward a better understanding of the role of the DSI in promoting the sexual diversity

in Oleaceae is to characterize and compare the genetic architecture of the SI and sexual phenotypes. At

this stage, however, the genomic resources for most of these non-model species remain limited. In this

context, the recent sequencing efforts (UNVER *et al.* 2017; JIMÉNEZ-RUIZ *et al.* 2020) and the genetic mapping

of the SI locus in a biparental population segregating for SI groups in *Olea europaea* (MARIOTTI *et al.* 2020)

represent major breakthroughs in the search for the SI locus in Oleaceae. They have narrowed down the

SI locus to an interval of 5.4cM corresponding to a region of approximately 300kb, but it is currently

unknown whether the same region is controlling SI in other species. In *P. angustifolia,* based on a series of

genetic analysis of progenies from controlled crosses, Billiard *et al.* (2015) proposed a fairly simple genetic

model, where sex and SI are controlled by two independently segregating diallelic loci. Under this model,

sex would be determined by the "M" locus at which a dominant allele *M* codes for the male phenotype

(*i.e. M is a* female-sterility mutation leading e.g. to arrested development of the stigma) and a recessive

allele *m* codes for the hermaphrodite phenotype. The S locus would encode the SI system and comprise a

dominant allele *S2* and a recessive allele *S1.* The model thus hypothesizes that hermaphrodites are

homozygous *mm* at the sex locus, and fall into two groups of SI specificities, named H_a and H_b carrying the

S1S1 and *S1S2* genotypes at the S locus, respectively (their complete genotypes would thus be *mmS1S1*

and *mmS1S2* respectively). The model also hypothesizes three male genotypes (M_a: *mMS1S1*, M_b:

mMS1S2, and M_c*: mMS2S2*). In addition, Billiard *et al.* (2015) showed that, while males are compatible

with all hermaphrodites, offspring segregation varies according to which group of hermaphrodite they

sire: the progeny of H_a hermaphrodites pollinated by males systematically segregates both

hermaphrodites and males with a consistent but slight departure from 1:1 ratio, while that of H_b

hermaphrodites pollinated by the very same males systematically consists of male individuals only. This

observation suggests a pleiotropic effect of the *M* allele, conferring not only female sterility and universal

pollen compatibility, but also a complete male-biased sex-ratio distortion when crossed with one of the

two groups of hermaphrodites and a more subtle departure from 1:1 ratio when crossed with the other

group of hermaphrodites. The latter departure, however, was observed on small progeny arrays only, and

its magnitude thus comes with considerable uncertainty.

In this study, we developed a high-density genetic map for the non-model tree *P. angustifolia* using

a ddRAD sequencing approach and used it to address three main questions related to the evolution of its

peculiar reproductive system. First, are the SI and sex phenotypes in *P. angustifolia* encoded by just two

independent loci, as predicted by the most likely segregation model of Billiard *et al.* (2015)? Second, which

specific genomic regions are associated with the SI and sex loci, and what segregation model do the SI and

sex-associated loci follow (i.e. which of the males or hermaphrodites, and which of the two SI phenotypes

are homozygous *vs.* heterozygous at either loci, or are these phenotypes under the control of hemizygous

genomic regions?). Third, what is the level of synteny between our *P. angustifolia* genetic map and the

recently published Olive tree genome (UNVER *et al.* 2017; MARIOTTI *et al.* 2020), both globally and

specifically at the SI and sex-associated loci?

Material and Methods

Experimental cross and cartography population

In order to get both the SI group and the sexual phenotype (males vs hermaphrodites) to segregate

in a single progeny array, a single maternal and a single paternal plant were chosen among the progenies

of the controlled crosses produced by (BILLIARD *et al.* 2015). Briefly, a H_a maternal tree (named 01.N-25,

with putative genotype mmS1S1) was chosen in the progeny of a (H_a x M_a) cross. It was crossed in March

2012 to a M_b father (named 13.A-06, putative genotype mM S1S2) chosen in the progeny of a (H_a x M_c)

cross, following the protocol of Saumitou-Laprade *et al.* (2010). Both trees were maintained at the

experimental garden of the "Plateforme des Terrains d'Expérience du LabEx CeMEB," (CEFE, CNRS) in

Montpellier, France. F1 seeds were collected in September 2012 and germinated in the greenhouse of the

"Plateforme Serre, cultures et terrains expérimentaux," at the University of Lille (France). Seedling

paternity was verified with two highly polymorphic microsatellite markers (VASSILIADIS *et al.* 2002), and

1,064 plants with confirmed paternity were installed in May 2013 on the experimental garden of the

"Plateforme des Terrains d'Expérience du LabEx CeMEB," (CEFE, CNRS) in Montpellier. Sex was visually

determined based on the absence of stigma for 1,021 F1 individuals during their first flowering season in

2016 and 2017. 21 progenies did not flower and 22 died during the test period. The hermaphrodite

individuals were assigned to an SI group using the stigma test previously described in Saumitou-Laprade

et al. (2010; SAUMITOU-LAPRADE *et al.* 2017).

DNA extraction, library preparation and sequencing

In 2015, *i.e.* the year before sex phenotyping and stigma test were performed, 204 offspring were

random selected for genomic library preparation and genotyping. Briefly, DNA from parents and progenies

were extracted from 100 mg of frozen young leaves with the Chemagic DNA Plant Kit (Perkin Elmer

Chemagen, Baesweller, DE, Part # CMG-194), according to the manufacturer's instructions. The protocol

was adapted to the use of the KingFisher Flex™ (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) automated

DNA purification workstation. The extracted DNA was quantified using a Qubit fluorometer (Thermo Fisher

Scientific, Illkirch, France). Genome complexity was reduced by Double Digestion Restriction Associated

DNA sequencing (ddRAD seq) (PETERSON *et al.* 2012) using two restriction enzymes: *PstI*, a rare-cutting

restriction enzyme sensitive to methylation, and *MseI*, a common-cutting restriction enzyme. The libraries

were constructed at the INRAE - AGAP facilities (Montpellier, France). Next-generation sequencing was

performed in a 150-bp paired-ends-read mode using three lanes on a HiSeq3000 sequencer (Illumina, San

Diego, CA, USA) at the Get-Plage core facility (Genotoul platform, INRAE Toulouse, France).

GBS data analysis and linkage mapping

Illumina sequences were quality filtered with the *process_radtags* program of Stacks v2.3 (CATCHEN

et al. 2011) and then aligned to a *de novo* catalog created from parents and progeny of the cross. According

to the Rochette & Catchen protocol (ROCHETTE AND CATCHEN 2017) some parameters are tested to assembly

and alignment steps. The following Stacks parameters were used: a minimum stack depth of 3 (–m=3), at

most two nucleotide differences when merging stacks into loci (–M=2), and at most two nucleotide

differences between loci when building the catalog (–n=2). Both parental and all offspring FASTA files were

aligned to the *de novo* catalog using Bowtie2 v2.2.6 (LANGMEAD AND SALZBERG 2012), the option 'end-to-

end' and 'sensitive' were used for the alignment. At this step, one .bam file was obtained per individual to

construct the linkage map with Lep-MAP3 (RASTAS 2017). A custom python script was used, after remove

SPNs markers with reads cover <5, the script combines samtools v1.3.1 and the script *pileupParser2.awk*

(limit1=5) to convert .bam files to the good Lep-Map3 format. We used the *ParentCall2* module of Lep-

MAP3 to select loci with reliable parental genotypes by considering genotype information on parents and

offspring. The *Filtering2* module was then used to remove non-informative and distorted markers

(dataTolerance = 0.0000001). The module *SeparateChromosomes2* assigned markers to linkage groups

(LGs), after test, where the logarithm of odds score (LodLimit) varied from 10 to 50 in steps of 5 then from

20 to 30 in steps of 1 and the minimum number of SNP markers (sizeLimit) per linkage group from 50 to

500 in steps of 50 for each of the LodLimit. The two parameters, lodLimit = 27 and sizeLimit = 250, were

chosen as the best parameters to obtain the 23 linkage (as expected in members of the Oleoideae

subfamily; (WALLANDER AND ALBERT 2000). A custom python script removed loci with SNPs markers mapped

on two or more different linkage groups. The last module *OrderMarkers2* ordered the markers within each

LG. To consider the slight stochastic variation in marker distances between executions, the module was

run three times on each linkage group, first separately for the meiosis that took place in each parent

(sexAveraged = 0) and then averaged between the two parents (sexAveraged = 1). To produce the most

likely final father and mother specific maps and a final sex-averaged maps (DE-KAYNE AND FEULNER 2018),

we kept for each map the order of markers that had the highest likelihoods for each linkage group.

Sex and SI locus identification

To identify the sex-determination system in *P. angustifolia* we considered two possible genetic

models. First, a "XY" male heterogametic system, where males are heterozygous or hemizygous (XY) and

hermaphodites are homozygous (XX). Second, a "ZW" hermaphrodite heterogametic system, where

hermaphodites are heterozygous or hemizygous (ZW) and males are homozygous (ZZ). We applied the

same logic to the SI determination system, as segregation patterns (Billiard et al. 2015) suggested that SI

possibly also has a heterogametic determination system, with homozygous H_a and heterozygous H_b. In the

same way as for sex, it is therefore possible to test the different models (XY, ZW or hemigous) to determine

which SNPs are linked to the SI phenotypes.

Based on this approach, we identified sex-linked and SI-linked markers on the genetic map by

employing SEX-DETector, a probabilistic model based on maximum-likelihood inference (MUYLE *et al.*

2016). Briefly, a new alignment of reads from each individual on the loci used to construct the linkage map

was done with bwa (LI AND DURBIN 2009). This new alignment has the advantage of retrieving more SNPs

than used by LepMap3, as SNPs considered as non-informative by LepMap3 can still be informative to

distinguish among sex- or SI-determination systems by SEX-DETector. The alignment was analyzed using

Reads2snp (default tool for SEX-DETector) (TSAGKOGEORGA *et al.* 2012). For each phenotype (H_a vs. H_b and

males vs. hermaphrodites), SEX-DETector was run for both a XY and a ZW model with the following

parameters: -detail, -L, -SEM, -thr 0.8, -E 0.05. For each run, SEX-DETector also calculates the probability

for X (or Z)-hemizygous segregation in the heterozygous haplotypes. To compensate for the heterogeneity

between the number of males (83) and hermaphrodites (113) in our progeny array, each model was tested

three times with sub-samples of 83 hermaphrodites obtained by randomly drawing from the 113

individuals. We retained SNPs with a ≥80% probability of following an XY (or ZW) segregation pattern, with

a minimum of 50% of genotyped individuals and less that 5% of the individuals departing from this model

(due to either genotyping error or crossing-over).

Synteny analysis with the olive tree

To study synteny, we used Basic Local Alignment Search Tool (BLAST) to find regions of local

similarity between the *P. angustifolia* ddRADseq loci in the linkage map and the *Olea europea var. sylvestris*

genome assembly (UNVER *et al.* 2017). This assembly is composed of 23 main chromosomes and a series

of 41,233 unanchored scaffolds for a total of 1,142,316,613 bp. Only loci with a unique hit with at least

85% identity over a minimum of 110 bp were selected for the synteny analysis. Synteny relationships were

visualized with *circos-0.69-6* (KRZYWINSKI *et al.* 2009). Synteny between linkage groups of *P. angustifolia*

and the main 23 *O. europea* chromosomes was established based on the number of markers with a

significant BLAST hit. At a finer scale, we also examined synteny with the smaller unanchored scaffolds of

the assembly, as the history of rearrangement and allo-tetraploidization is likely to have disrupted synteny.

Data availability

Fastq files for all 204 offspring and both parents are deposited in the NCBI BioProject (SRA

accession PRJNA724813). All scripts used can be accessed at https://github.com/Amelie-Carre/Genetic-

map-of-Phillyrea-angustifolia .

Results

Phenotyping progenies for sex and SI groups

As expected, our cartography population segregated for sex and SI phenotypes, providing a

powerful resource to genetically map these two traits. Among the 1,021 F1 individuals that flowered

during the two seasons of phenotyping, we scored 619 hermaphrodites and 402 males, revealing a biased

sex ratio in favor of hermaphrodites (khi^2= 1.28x10^{-11}). Stigma tests were successfully performed on 613

hermaphrodites (6 individuals flowered too late to be included in a stigma test), revealing 316 H_a and 297

H_b, i.e. an equilibrated segregation of the two SI phenotypes (khi^2= 0.27). The random subsample of 204

F1 progenies chosen before the first flowering season for ddRAD-seq analysis (see below) followed similar

phenotypic proportions. 196 of the 204 progenies ended up flowering, revealing 83 males and 113

hermaphrodites, among which 60 belonged to the H_a group and 53 to the H_b group.

Linkage mapping

The two parents and the 196 offspring that had flowered were successfully genotyped using a

ddRAD-seq approach. Our stringent filtering procedure identified 11,070 loci composed of 17,096 SNP

markers as being informative for Lep-MAP3. With a LOD score of 27, 10,388 loci composed of 15,814 SNPs

were assigned to, and arranged within, 23 linkage groups in both sex-averaged and sex-specific maps

(Table 1).

The linkage groups of the mother map were on average larger (84.45 cM) than the linkage groups

of the father map (77.84 cM) and varied from 54.14 cM to 133.40 cM and from 56.06 cM to 131.66 cM

respectively (Table 1). The total map lengths were 1,855.13 cM, 1,790.33 cM and 1,942.30 cM in the sex-

averaged, male and female maps, respectively. The length of the linkage groups varied from 59.10 cM to

129.70 cM in the sex-averaged map, with an average of 687 SNPs markers per linkage group (Table 1).

Sex and SI loci identification

When comparing H_a and H_b, among the 38,998 SNPs analyzed by SEX-DETector, 496 have a

probability of following an XY pattern ≥0.80. We then applied two stringent filters by retaining only SNPs

that had been genotyped for more than 50% of the offspring (n=211), and for which less than 5% of the

offspring departed from the expected genotype under a XY model (n=23). Six of these 23 SNPs, distributed

in 4 loci, followed a segregation pattern strictly consistent with a XY model. These four loci are tightly

clustered on the linkage map and define a region of 1.230 cM on linkage group 18 (LG18, Figure 1). Relaxing

the stringency or our thresholds, this region also contains five loci that strictly follow an XY segregation

but with less than 50% of offsprings successfully genotyped, as well as six loci with autosomal inheritance.

Using the same filtering scheme, none of the SNPs was found to follow a ZW pattern. This provides

evidence that this region on LG18 is associated with the SI phenotypes, with a determination system akin

to a XY system where H_b have the heterogametic genotype.

For the comparison of male and hermaphrodites, an average of 44,565 SNPs were analyzed by

SEX-DETector across the three subsamples, among which an average of 438 have a probability of following

an XY pattern ≥0.80. We applied the same set of stringent filters and retained an average of 171 SNPs

having been genotyped for at least 50% of the offspring, among which 41 have less than 5% of the offspring

departing from the expected genotype under a XY model and are shared across the three subsets. Thirty

two of these SNPs followed a segregation pattern strictly consistent with a XY model. These 32 markers,

corresponding to 8 loci, are distributed along a region of 2.216 cM on linkage group 12 (LG12, Figure 1).

Relaxing the stringency or our thresholds, this region also contains five loci that strictly follow an XY

segregation pattern but with less than 50% of offspring successfully genotyped, as well as 17 loci consistent

with autosomal inheritance. Again, no SNP was found to follow a ZW pattern. This provides evidence that

this independent region on LG12 is associated with sex, with a determination system akin to a XY system

where males have the heterogametic genotype.

Synteny analysis with the olive tree

About half (49%) of the 10,388 *P. angustifolia* loci used for the genetic map had a significant BLAST

hit on the olive tree genome. Overall, the relative position of these hits was highly concordant with the

structure of the linkage map. Indeed, the vast majority (79.7%) of loci belonging to a given linkage group

found hits on the same olive tree chromosome. Loci that did not follow this general pattern did not find

hits in particularly clustered regions on other chromosomes, suggesting either small rearrangements or

mapping/assembly errors at the scale of individual loci. The order of loci within the linkage groups was

also well conserved with only limited evidence for rearrangements (Figure 2, Figure 3), suggesting that the

two genomes have remained largely collinear overall.

We then specifically inspected synteny between the linkage groups carrying either the sex or the

SI locus and the olive tree genome (Figure 4). Synteny was good for LG12, the linkage group containing the

markers associated with the sex phenotype. Among the 645 loci of LG12, 365 find homology in the olive

tree. Eighty eight percent had their best hits on the same chromosome of the olive tree (chromosome 12

per our numbering of the linkage groups), and the order of markers was largely conserved along this

chromosome. Six loci contained in the region associated with sex on LG12 had hits on a single small

1,940,009bp region on chromosome 12. This chromosomal interval contains 81 annotated genes in the

olive tree genome. In addition, eight loci in the sex region had their best hits on a series of five smaller

scaffolds (Sca393, Sca1196, Sca1264, Sca32932, Sca969) that could not be reliably anchored in the main

olive tree assembly but may nevertheless also contain candidates for sex determination. Collectively, these

scaffolds represent 1.849.345bp of sequence in the olive tree genome and contain 47 annotated genes.

Synteny was markedly poorer for markers on LG18, the linkage group containing the markers

associated with the SI specificity phenotypes (Figure 5). Of the 440 loci on LG18, 203 have BLAST hits on

the olive tree genome. Although a large proportion (89%) had their best hits on chromosome 18, the order

of hits along that chromosome suggested a large number of rearrangements. This more rearranged order

was also observed for the six markers that were strictly associated with SI in *P. angustifolia*. Two of them

had hits on a single region of 741,403bp on the olive tree genome. This region contains 32 annotated genes

and contains two markers that were previously found to be genetically associated with SI directly in the

olive tree by Mariotti *et al.* (2020). Three markers more loosely associated to SI in *P. angustifolia* found

hits on a more distant region on chromosome 18 (19,284,909-19,758,630Mb). The three other strongly

associated markers all had hits on scaffold 269, which contains 11 annotated genes and represents

545.128bp. Nine other loci strongly or loosely associated with SI had hits on a series of seven other

unanchored scaffolds (Sca1199, Sca1200, Sca1287, Sca1579, Sca213, Sca327, Sca502) that collectively

represent 78 annotated genes and 2.539.637bp.

Discussion

Until now, studies have mostly relied on theoretical or limited genetic segregation analyses to

investigate the evolution of sexual and SI phenotypes in *P. angustifolia* (VASSILIADIS *et al.* 2002; SAUMITOU-

LAPRADE *et al.* 2010; HUSSE *et al.* 2013; BILLIARD *et al.* 2015). In this study, we created the first genetic map

of the androdioecious species *P. angustifolia* and identified the genomic regions associated with these two

important reproductive phenotypes. The linkage map we obtained shows strong overall synteny with the

olive tree genome, and reveals that sex and SI phenotypes segregate independently from one another,

and are each strongly associated with a different genomic region (in LG18 and LG12, respectively).

The SI linked markers on LG18 are syntenic with the genomic interval recently identified by

Mariotti *et al.* (2020) in the olive tree, providing strong reciprocal support that the determinants of SI are

indeed located in this region. Interestingly, we observed a series of shorter scaffolds that could not

previously be anchored in the main assembly of the olive tree genome but are syntenic to genetic markers

that are strictly linked to SI in *P. angustifolia.* These unanchored scaffolds provide a more complete set of

genomic sequences that will be important to consider in the perspective of identifying the (currently

elusive) molecular determinants of SI in these two species. We note that poor assembly of the S-locus

region was indeed expected given the considerable levels of structural rearrangements typically observed

in SI- and more generally in the mating type-determining regions (GOUBET *et al.* 2012; BADOUIN *et al.* 2015),

making *P. angustifolia* a useful resource to map the SI locus in the economically important species *O.*

europeae.

Our observations also provide direct support to the hypothesis that the determinants of SI have

remained at the same genomic position at least since the two lineages diverged, 30 to 40 Myrs ago

(BESNARD *et al.* 2009; OLOFSSON *et al.* 2019). Stability of the genomic location of SI genes has been observed

in some Brassicaceae species, where the *SRK-SCR* system maps at orthologous positions in the Arabidopsis

and Capsella genuses (GUO *et al.* 2011). In more distant Brassicaceae species, however, the SI system is

found at different genomic locations, such as in Brassica and Leavenworthia. In the former, the molecular

determinants have remained orthologous (also a series of *SRK-SCR* pairs, (IWANO *et al.* 2014), but not in

the latter, where SI seems to have evolved d*e novo* from exaptation of a pair of paralogous genes (CHANTHA

et al. 2013; CHANTHA *et al.* 2017). Together with the fact that *P. angustifolia* pollen is able to trigger a robust

SI response on *O. europaeae* stigmas (SAUMITOU-LAPRADE *et al.* 2017), the synteny we observed provides

strong support to the hypothesis that the *P. angustifolia* and *O. europaeae* SI systems are orthologous.

Several approaches could now be used to refine the mapping location in *P. angustifolia,* and

ultimately zero in on the molecular determinants of SI. A first possibility would require fine-mapping using

larger offspring arrays, starting from our cross for which only a fraction of all phenotyped individuals were

genotyped. Beyond the analysis of this controlled cross, evaluating whether the association of the SI

phenotype still holds for markers within a larger set of accessions from diverse natural populations will

constitute a powerful fine-mapping approach. Since the SI phenotypes seem to be functionally

orthologous across the Oleeae tribe (VERNET *et al.* 2016), the approach could, in principle, be extended to

more distant SI species of the family like *L. vulgare* or *F. ornus*. Identification of sequences whose

association holds over these considerable time scales would represent excellent corroborative evidence

to validate putative SI candidates. In parallel, an RNA-sequencing approach could be used to identify

transcripts specific to the alternate SI phenotypes.

While comparison to the closely related *O. europeae* genome is a useful approach for the mapping

of SI in *P. angustifolia*, it is *a priori* of limited use for mapping the sex-determining region, since the olive

tree lineage has been entirely hermaphroditic for at least 32.22 Myrs (confidence interval: 28-36 Myrs)

(FigS1 in OLOFSSON *et al.* 2019). Detailed exploration of the genomic region in the olive tree that is

orthologous to the markers associated with sex in *P. angustifolia* is however interesting, as it may either

have anciently played a role in sex determination and subsequently lost it, or alternatively it may contain

quiescent sex-determining genes that happen to have been activated along the *P. angustifolia* specifically.

At a broader scale, mapping and eventually characterizing the sex locus in other androdioecious species

such as e.g. *F. ornus* could indicate whether the different instances of androdioecy in the family represent

either orthologous phenotypes or independent evolutionary emergences.

Identifying the molecular mechanisms of the genes controlling SI and sex and tracing their

evolution in a phylogenetic context would prove extremely useful. First, it could help understand the

strong functional pleiotropy between sex and SI phenotypes, whereby males express universal SI

compatibility (SAUMITOU-LAPRADE *et al.* 2010). In other words, males are able to transmit the SI specificities

they inherited from their parents, but they do not express them themselves even though their pollen is

fully functional. This intriguing feature of the SI system was key to solve the puzzle of why *P. angustifolia*

maintains unusually high frequencies of males in natural populations (HUSSE *et al.* 2013), but the question

of how being a male prevents expression of the SI phenotype is an open question. A possibility is that the

M allele of the sex locus contains a gene interacting negatively either with the pollen SI determinant itself

or with a gene of the downstream response cascade. Identifying the molecular basis of this epistasis will

be an interesting next step. Second, another intriguing feature of the system is segregation distortion, that

is observed at several levels. Billiard *et al.* (2015) observed complete segregation bias in favor of male

offspring of H_b hermaphrodites sired by males. Here, by phenotyping >1,000 offspring of a H_a

hermaphrodite sired by a M_b male, we confirmed that this cross also entails a departure from Mendelian

segregation, this time in favor of hermaphrodites, albeit of a lesser magnitude. Although the generality of

this observation still remains to be determined by careful examination of the other possible crosses (H_a

hermaphrodites x M_a and M_c males), it is clear that segregation distortion is a general feature of this

system, as was already observed in other sex determination systems causing departures from equal sex

ratios (e.g. KOZIELSKA *et al.* 2010). Beyond the identification of the mechanisms by which the distortions

arise, pinpointing the evolutionary conditions leading to their emergence will be key to understanding the

role they may have played in the evolution of this reproductive system.

More broadly, while sex and mating types are fully aligned in many species across the tree of life

and cannot be distinguished, the question of when and how sex and mating types evolve separately raises

several questions. The evolution of anisogamy (and hence, sexual differentiation) has been linked to that

of mating types (CHARLESWORTH 1978). In volvocine algae for instance, the mating-type locus in isogamous

species is orthologous to the pair of U/V sex chromosomes in anisogamous/oogamous species, suggesting

that the sex-determination system derives from the mating-type determination system (GENG *et al.* 2014).

From this perspective the Oleaceae family is an interesting model system, where a SI system is ancestral,

and in which some species have evolved sexual specialization that is aligned with the two SI phenotypes

(e.g. in the polygamous *F. excelsior* males belong to the H_a SI group and can only mate with hermaphrodites

or females of the H_b group, and the sexual system of *F. excelsior* can be viewed as subdioecy (SAUMITOU-

LAPRADE *et al.* 2018). In other species, sexual specialization is disjoint from SI and led to the differentiation

of males and hermaphrodites (e.g. in the androdiecious *P. angustifolia* and probably *F. ornus*, the male

determinant is genetically independent from the SI locus but fully linked to a genetic determinant causing

the epistatic effect over SI (BILLIARD *et al.* 2015; VERNET *et al.* 2016). Yet other species have remained

perfectly hermaphrodites and have no trace of sexual differentiation whatsoever (*O. europeae*).

Understanding why some species have followed one evolutionary trajectory while others have followed

another will be an exciting avenue for future research.

Author Contributions

All authors contributed to the study presented in this paper. PS-L and PV developed, designed and oversaw the study; they coordinated the cross and carried out the phenotyping and stigma tests. CG performed the seedling paternity analysis. SS performed DNA extraction, library preparation and organized sequencing. AC and SG constructed the data analysis pipeline and AC, SS, PS-L and VC interpreted the results and wrote the manuscript.

Acknowledgements

We thank Sylvain Bertrand and Fantin Carpentier for technical help for the phenotyping and Jos Käfer for scientific discussion and help in applying Sex-DETector to our material. We thank Jacques Lepart†, Mathilde Dufay, Pierre Olivier Cheptou, Xavier Vekemans, Sylvain Billiard and Bénédicte Felter for scientific discussions. Field and laboratory work for phenotyping were done at the Platform Terrains d'Expériences (Labex CeMEB ANR-10-LABX-0004-CeMEB) of the Centre d'Ecologie Fonctionnelle et Evolutive (CEFE, CNRS) with the help of Thierry Mathieu and David Degueldre and at the platform Serres cultures et terrains expérimentaux of the Lille University with the help of Nathalie Faure and Angélique Bourceaux. We are grateful to Marie-Pierre Dubois for providing access to the microscopy facilities at the SMGE (Service des Marqueurs Génétiques en Ecologie) platform (CEFE). This work was funded by the French National Research Agency through the project 'TRANS' (ANR-11-BSV7- 013-03) and by a grant from the European Research Council (NOVEL project, grant #648321). A.C was supported by a doctoral grant from the French ministry of research. The authors also thank the Région Hauts-de-France, and the Ministère de l'Enseignement Supérieur et de la Recherche (CPER Climibio), and the European Fund for Regional Economic Development for their financial support. We also thank the HPC Computing Mésocentre of the University of Lille which provided us with the computing grid.

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600   **Table 1.** Comparison of the sex-averaged, male and female linkage maps.

Linkage group	Number of SNPs	Sex-averaged map			Paternal map			Maternal map		
		LG length (cM)	SNPs/cM	average intermarker distance	LG length (cM)	SNPs/cM	average intermarker distance	LG length (cM)	SNPs/cM	average intermarker distance
1	854	93.71	9.11	0.11	79.30	10.77	0.09	96.64	8.84	0.11
2	633	77.39	8.18	0.12	76.65	8.26	0.12	68.73	9.21	0.11
3	676	74.50	9.07	0.11	61.94	10.91	0.09	85.42	7.91	0.13
4	535	68.07	7.86	0.13	71.63	7.47	0.13	69.82	7.66	0.13
5	502	72.68	6.91	0.14	60.85	8.25	0.12	85.66	5.86	0.17
6	877	96.89	9.05	0.11	90.81	9.66	0.10	103.63	8.46	0.12
7	609	90.09	6.76	0.15	68.93	8.84	0.11	64.99	9.37	0.11
8	486	101.96	4.77	0.21	103.42	4.70	0.21	119.25	4.08	0.25
9	408	67.63	6.03	0.17	56.06	7.28	0.14	80.15	5.09	0.20
10	1365	129.70	10.52	0.10	131.66	10.37	0.10	133.40	10.23	0.10
11	793	99.24	7.99	0.13	80.40	9.86	0.10	108.84	7.29	0.14
12	973	91.48	10.64	0.09	93.50	10.41	0.10	92.63	10.50	0.10
13	849	79.40	10.69	0.09	77.29	10.98	0.09	80.77	10.51	0.10
14	566	66.47	8.51	0.12	79.06	7.16	0.14	72.88	7.77	0.13
15	750	87.70	8.55	0.12	82.98	9.04	0.11	96.01	7.81	0.13
16	591	60.92	9.70	0.10	56.93	10.38	0.10	69.56	8.50	0.12
17	613	76.52	8.01	0.12	70.58	8.69	0.12	83.94	7.30	0.14
18	660	81.38	8.11	0.12	84.64	7.80	0.13	95.40	6.92	0.14
19	806	69.29	11.63	0.09	91.10	8.85	0.11	79.49	10.14	0.10
20	547	76.71	7.13	0.14	70.07	7.81	0.13	66.91	8.18	0.12
21	479	59.10	8.11	0.12	69.49	6.89	0.15	54.14	8.85	0.11
22	550	63.87	8.61	0.12	60.80	9.05	0.11	67.15	8.19	0.12
23	690	70.43	9.80	0.10	72.26	9.55	0.10	66.91	10.31	0.10
Average	687.48	80.66	8.51	0.12	77.84	8.82	0.12	84.45	8.22	0.13

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Figure 1. *Phillyrea angustifolia* sex-averaged linkage map showing the grouping and position of 10,388

SNPs. The length of each of the 23 linkage groups is indicated by the vertical scale in cM. The markers

strictly linked to sex and self-incompatibility (SI) phenotypes are shown in red.

Figure 2. Synteny plot identifying homologous *P. angustifolia* linkage groups (LG, scale in cM) with olive

tree chromosomes (Chr, scale in Mb). Lines connect markers in the *P. angustifolia* linkage map with their

best BLAST hit in the *O. europea* genome. Variation of the density of loci in bins of 3.125cM along linkage

groups and 1 Mbp along chromosomes is shown in the inner circle as a black histogram.

621   **Figure 3.** Visualization of chromosome-scale synteny by comparing the location of markers along the *P.*

622   *angustifolia* linkage groups (LG, scale in cM) with the location of their best BLAST hit along the homologous

623   olive tree chromosome (Chr, scale in Mbp). The blue line represents the linear regression and the grey

624   area its 95% credible interval.

Figure 4. Synteny plot between the *P. angustifolia* linkage group 12 (scale in cM) and the olive tree chromosomes 12 and a series of unanchored scaffolds (scale in Mb). Lines connect markers in the *P. angustifolia* linkage map with their best BLAST hit in the *O. europea* genome. Blue lines correspond to markers with autosomal inheritance. Black lines correspond to markers which strictly cosegregate with sex phenotypes (males *vs.* hermaphrodites). Red lines correspond to markers with strong but partial (95%) association with sex. Variation of the density of loci in bins of 3.125cM along linkage groups and 1 Mbp along chromosomes is shown in the inner circle as a black histogram.

Figure 5. Synteny plot between the *P. angustifolia* linkage group 18 (scale in cM) and the olive tree chromosomes 18 and a series of unanchored scaffolds (scale in Mb). Lines connect markers in the *P. angustifolia* linkage map with their best BLAST hit in the *O. europea* genome. Blue lines correspond to markers with autosomal inheritance. Black lines correspond to markers which strictly cosegregate with SI phenotypes (H$_a$ *vs.* Hb). Red lines correspond to markers with strong but partial (95%) association with SI. The region found to be genetically associated with SI in the olive tree by Mariotti *et al.* (2020) is shown by a black rectangle. Variation of the density of loci in bins of 3.125cM along linkage groups and 1 Mbp along chromosomes is shown in the inner circle as a black histogram.