The maintenance of self-incompatibility: overdominance of inbreeding depression and

S-linked genetic load

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Summary

Inbreeding depression plays a fundamental role in evolution. To help detect and characterize

viability loci that underlie inbreeding depression, plants from self-incompatible populations of

Leavenworthia alabamica were force self-pollinated to produce families of progeny that were

genotyped at hundreds of single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) loci.

We used Bayesian analysis of segregation data for each SNP to explore support for different

dominance and selection coefficients at linked viability loci.

There was strong support for overdominance (or pseudo-overdominance) at many viability loci.

There was some support for recessivity and underdominance. One recessive viability locus

mapped to the genomic region of the novel self-incompatibility locus in *Leavenworthia*

alabamica.

The results are consistent with earlier findings showing that inbreeding depression is recalcitrant

to purging in *Leavenworthia alabamica*. The results also help account for the maintenance of

self-incompatibility in this species and are consistent with expectations from evolutionary

genetic theory that recessive, deleterious alleles linked to loci under balancing selection are

sheltered from selection.

Keywords: Viability loci, dominance coefficient, selection coefficient, segregation vartiom

Bayesian analysis, sheltered genetic load, mating system evolution

Introduction:

Inbreeding depression is the fitness reduction in progeny produced by consanguineous

mating versus mating between unrelated parents (Wright, 1977). Inbreeding depression plays a

fundamental role in crop production, conservation of natural populations, and mating system

evolution (Charlesworth & Willis, 2009; Frankham, 2010; Lloyd, 1979; Lande & Schemske,

1985). While recessive deleterious mutations are thought to play a major role in inbreeding

depression, overdominance has also been implicated (Wright, 1977; Charlesworth & Willis,

2009).

Lande & Schemske (1985) considered the evolutionary consequences of inbreeding

depression and the mating system. Their theoretical work predicted when there is selective

purging of recessive lethal and near-lethal alleles, populations of self-fertilizing organisms

should exhibit reduced equilibrium levels of inbreeding. Charlesworth & Charlesworth (1987)

extended the study of purging of inbreeding depression to many deleterious alleles of milder

effect with a broader range of dominance and found that fairly high levels of inbreeding

depression can be maintained in populations of self-fertilizing organisms. For species with self-

incompatibility (SI), theory predicts that an additional source of inbreeding depression is due to

the linkage of deleterious recessive alleles to self-recognition loci (Uyenoyama, 1997). In

gametic self-incompatibility systems, the self-recognition locus (S-locus) region is maintained as

heterozygous, thereby hindering the selective purging of recessive deleterious mutations, and

leading to "sheltered genetic load" in this region. Likewise, in sporophytic self-incompatibility

systems, depending on the dominance levels of the S-allele, the S-locus region is expected to be

maintained as heterozygous and harbour sheltered S-linked load (Schierup *et al*., 1997; Llaurens

et al., 2009). Theory has shown that sheltered load may affect the trajectory of mating system

evolution (Porcher & Lande, 2005; Gervais *et al*., 2014).

Few studies have provided information on the number and genomic locations of the viability

loci responsible for inbreeding depression, and there is little information on the selection and

dominance coefficients of the viability effects, factors important to predicting the evolutionary

trajectory of inbreeding depression. For SI species, there is even less information of this kind

(though see Karkkainnen *et al*., 1999).

The genus *Leavenworthia* (Brassicaceae) is a group of self-incompatible species that has

received considerable attention by evolutionary biologists interested in plant mating system

evolution due to both inter- and intraspecific variation in the mating system (Lloyd, 1965; Busch,

2005; Busch *et al*., 2011; Herman *et al*., 2012; Chantha *et al*., 2013). Self-incompatible species

in this genus exhibit significant levels of inbreeding depression (Charlesworth *et al*., 1994;

Busch, 2005). Recently, Baldwin & Schoen (2018) conducted experiments in which plants from

self-incompatible populations of *L. alabamica* were subjected to several generations of forced

selfing. They found that inbreeding depression expressed in these experiments is resistant to

purging.

Marker-based approaches to studying the genetic architecture of inbreeding depression can

provide information on the dominance and selective coefficients at individual viability loci

(Hedrick & Muona, 1990; Fu & Ritland, 1994a,b), which in turn can help shed light on how

inbreeding depression evolves. When available, such information can be coupled with

recombination and physical maps to reveal the approximate genomic location of viability loci

(Mitchell-Olds, 1995; Remington & O'Malley, 2000; Karkkainnen *et al*., 1999). Here we extract

information on the genetic architecture of inbreeding depression in *Leavenworthia alabamica*

using a genetic marker-based approach. We discuss the relevance of our results to mating system

evolution and to previous findings that have used the marker-based approaches to examine the

genetic architecture of inbreeding depression in plants.

Methods

Plant growth and production of self-fertilized progeny

Two self-incompatible *Leavenworthia alabamica* plants from separate "a1 race"

populations in Alabama (Lloyd, 1965) were used in this work. These plants were grown in

separate 9" pots in the McGill University Phytotron and forced to self-fertilize by bud or salt

pollinations as described in Chantha *et al*. (2013). Up to 30 pollinations were carried out per

plant two times per week. All seeds were collected at maturity, stratified in a dry environment for

at least two months, and germinated. The progeny from these two separate seed families

(Families 1 and 2, hereafter) were grown to the flowering stage.

Genotyping-by-sequencing (GBS)

We collected young leaf tissue samples from the progeny of flowering stage plants and

stored them at -80°C. Qiagen plant mini-DNA kits were used to extract DNA from the leaf

tissue. Extractions were repeated if concentrations were lower than 20 ng/ul and were diluted to

30-50 ng/ul if over 50 ng/ul.

We used the genotyping-by-sequencing (GBS) (Elshire *et al.*, 2011) method to produce

fragments for genotyping using the protocol of Wallace & Mitchell (2017). The standard protocol

was used to generate libraries with 1.44 ng PstI per 100 ng DNA and 15-18 cycles of PCR.

Fragments were then sequenced on one lane of an Illumina High-Seq run (Family 1, N = 91 and

Family 2, N = 90). FASTQC was used to evaluate the basic quality of the sequencing runs.

Reads were demultiplexed using Process Radtags in STACKS v. 2.59. The *Leavenworthia*

alabamica reference assembly version 2.5 (Haudry *et al.*, 2013, CoGe platform: Genome ID

20247) was indexed and sorted and aligned to the reference genome with the Burrows-Wheeler

Aligner. The average read depth across the loci was 276x for Family 1, 277x for Family 2. SNP

locus segregation ratios derived from the two families by producing a catalog of segregating loci

with the GSTACKS and POPULATIONS routines in STACKS v. 2.59 (Catchen *et al.*, 2013).

In-house scripts for the processing steps and associated information are available in the

Supplementary Materials section (Table S1).

Treatment of potential genotyping errors

Genomic analysis of *Leavenworthia alabamica* indicates that this species underwent

whole genome triplication during its evolutionary history, and chromosome painting with

Arabidopsis thaliana BAC probes suggests that that some triplicated genome segments were

retained as duplicates or triplicates (Haudry *et al.*, 2013). The reference genome assembly in this

species is only partially complete (N50 = 309 kb); while the haploid chromosome number of *L.*

alabamica is 11, the genome assembly consists of 3,321 scaffolds. It comprises *ca.* 174 million

bp in total of the expected 315 million bp genome size, the latter estimated from flow cytometry

(Brian Husband, pers. comm.). Over half of the scaffolds are short, with lengths 5,000 bp or

smaller, though larger ones are > 1M bp. Due to sequence divergence of the duplicated (or

triplicated) regions, longer scaffolds in the reference genome likely represent separate genomic

regions (Haudry *et al.*, 2013). But many shorter duplicated (or triplicated) regions of the genome

with extended identity have likely been collapsed into single (artifactual) contigs. GBS products

from separate genomic regions that map to such short, artifactual contigs will yield only (or

mostly) heterozygote genotype calls. To minimize these artifacts we: (1) restricted our analysis

to SNPs that map to scaffolds > 100 kbp in length (these account for 73% of the *L. alabamica*

assembly); (2) rejected SNP loci that yielded only heterozygotes if adjacent SNP loci on the

same scaffold exhibited segregation ratios that were not significantly different from 1:2:1 by

Chi-square tests, on the basis that evidence of strong selection should be shared by adjacent SNP

loci; and (3) restricted our analysis to loci where data were available from > 90% of the progeny

of a cross since genotyping errors are more likely to have occurred when few progeny per family

are genotyped successfully.

<u>Linkage map construction and tests for departure from normal segregation</u>

Linkage groups (each containing a minimum of three SNP loci) were constructed with

the software package 'qtl' version 1.50 (Broman *et al.*, 2003) running in R (version 4.1.1).

Separate linkage maps were created from the Family 1 and 2 data. These maps allowed us to

examine segregation ratios of each SNP in relation to that of other SNPs. To arrive at a

conservative estimate of the number of viability loci, we limited our analysis to those SNPs that

exhibited departures from the expected (null) 1:2:1 segregation ratio at a false discovery rate

(Benjamini & Hochberg, 1995) of $q = 0.05$. Moreover, a viability locus located adjacent to a

given SNP locus will likely affect not only the segregation ratio at that SNP but also at other

nearby SNPs, and so within each 50 cM window if several such SNPs were found, we selected

the one exhibiting the most extreme departure from 1:2:1 for analysis of the selection and

dominance coefficients at the linked viability locus.

<u>Selection and dominance coefficients at linked viability loci</u>

The analysis of marker locus segregation ratios to estimate selection and dominance at

viability loci linked to marker loci assumes that departure from the expected 1:2:1 Mendelian

segregation ratio is due to viability selection, rather than to meiotic drive and/or gametic selection.

The parent plant that is self-fertilized is assumed to be heterozygous at a selectively neutral marker

locus (M) and a linked viability locus (V)—e.g., the parent has the genotype M_1V_1/M_2V_2, and the

genotypes V_1/V_1, V_1/V_2, and V_2/V_2 are associated with the fitness values 1-s, 1-hs, and 1,

respectively, where s is the selective coefficient or the proportional amount by which selection at

this locus reduces viability in the homozygote V_1/V_1 ($0 \leq s \leq 1$), and h is the dominance coefficient.

A value of $h < 0$ implies overdominance, $h = 0$ implies fully recessive, $0 \leq h \leq 0.5$ implies partially

recessive, $h = 0.5$ implies additive, $0.5 \leq h \leq 1.0$ implies partial dominance, and $h > 1$ implies

underdominance. The marker and viability loci are assumed to be linked with recombination

fraction c. A Bayesian statistical genetic approach was developed to explore the posterior support

for different values of h and s at viability loci based on the observed numbers of marker locus

genotypes.

Fu & Ritland (1994a) showed that following self-fertilization, the post-selection genotype

frequencies expected for three marker genotypes (p_{11} for M_1/M_1, p_{12} for M_1/M_2, and p_{22} for

M_2/M_2) are:

$p_{11} = \dfrac{c^2 s(2h-1) - 2\, cs(h-1) + (1-s)}{4 - s(2h+1)}$

$p_{12} = \dfrac{2(-c^2 s(2h-1) + 2cs\,(2h-1) - hs + 1)}{4 - s(2h+1)}$ $\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad$ (1)

$p_{22} = \dfrac{c^2 s(2h-1) - 2\, csh + 1}{4 - s(2h+1)}$

In these equations p_{11} denotes the frequency of the least common homozygote genotype. Note

that when $s = 0$, the marker genotype frequencies give the null 1:2:1 ratio.

The data are the numbers of each of the three marker genotypes observed among the

surviving progeny of the self-fertilized parent (N_{11} = number of M_1/M_1, number of observed, N_{12}

= number of M_1/M_2 observed, and N_{22} = number of M_2/M_2 observed). The probability

(likelihood) given the data can be written:

$Pr\,(N_{11}, N_{12}, N_{22} \mid s, h, c\,) = \left(\dfrac{N!}{N_{11}!\,N_{12}!\,N_{22}!}\right) p_{11}{}^{N_{11}} p_{12}{}^{N_{12}}\, p_{22}{}^{N_{22}}$ $\qquad$ (2)

where N is the sum of N_{11}, N_{12}, and N_{22}. The joint density and posterior probability are,

respectively:

$Pr(s, h, c, N_{11}, N_{12}, N_{22}) = Pr(s)\, Pr(h)\, Pr(c)\; Pr(N11, N12, N22 \mid s, h, c\,)$ $\qquad$ (3)

$$Pr(s, h, c \mid N_{11}N_{12}N_{22}) = \frac{Pr(s)\,Pr(h)\,Pr(c)\,Pr(N_{11},N_{12},N_{22} \mid s,h,c)}{\int_{s,h,c} Pr(s)\,Pr(h)\,Pr(c)Pr(N_{11},N_{12},N_{22} \mid s,h,c)\;ds\,dh\,dc} \qquad (4)$$

To explore values of the parameters using a Bayesian approach, we chose uniform priors with 0

$< s < 1$, $-100 < h < 100$, and $0 < c < 0.2$. The broad prior for h allows for the possibility of

extreme overdominance and underdominance. The prior for c (less than the theoretical upper

limit of $c = 0.5$) is justified based on the average distance between markers of *ca.* 2 cM in this

study. A program written in the R statistical language (version 4.1.1) to conduct Markov Chain

Monte Carlo method with the Metropolis-Hastings sampler (Weir, 1996) (Supplementary

Materials: Note 1). This was used to "integrate out" the nuisance parameter c, allowing the

posterior probabilities to be estimated for different values of s and h. For the required burn-in

period, we ran the sampler 5.5 million times before examining the posterior probability

distributions. Tracking the parameter values during the runs showed that the sampler had

stabilized by the end of this burn-in period.

<u>The S-locus region of *Leavenworthia alabamica* and locations of viability loci</u>

The *Leavenworthia alabamica* S-locus region has previously been cloned and sequenced

from the same plant material that was used to produce the sequence information in the genome

assembly in the present work (GenBank accession KC981242.1) (Chantha *et al*., 2013). This

allowed us to locate the individual *L. alabamica* genome assembly scaffold containing the S-

locus. We used the BLAST algorithm (Altschul *et al.,* 1990) in the software package Geneious

Prime (version 2.2) to search of *L. alabamica* reference genome version 2.5 using both *L.*

alabamica S-locus genes (*Lal2* and *LaSCRL*; Chantha *et al.*, 2013). We estimated selection and

dominance coefficients for all potential viability loci linked to SNPs in S-locus region that

showed significant departures from 1:2:1.

<u>Statistical power test and different modes of gene action</u>

The analysis of the number and mode of action viability loci hinges on the ability to

detect departure from the expected 1:2:1 ratio obtained when self-fertilizing a plant with

heterozygous marker loci. Given that the sample size of progeny per family in our work was

limited to a maximum of 91 progeny (the maximum number we could obtain by forced selfing of

each of the SI parent plants used), we were interested in the statistical power of our study to

detect selection and characterize the mode of gene action. Specifically, we did this by producing

expected segregation ratios for a range of different values of the parameters in equation (1)

followed by standard methods (Cohen, 1988) for examining statistical power, as implemented in

the R program package 'pwr' version 1.3.

Results

SNP segregation ratios, linkage map locations, and significance testing

We found 469 segregating SNP loci in Family 1, and 378 segregating SNP loci in Family

2. In Family 1 we detected 20 linkage groups, ranging in size from 5 to 182 cM, for a total map

length of 1,066 cM. In Family 2 we found 18 linkage groups, ranging in size from 2 to 109 cM,

for a total map length of 817 cM (see Supplementary Table S2 for linkage group, scaffold

positions, and segregation patterns of SNPs).

SNP segregation patterns along with and their significance levels based on the Chi-square

goodness-of-fit to the hypothetical 1:2:1 segregation ratio are shown in Figures 1 and 2. With a

false discovery rate of $q = 0.05$, we detected eight putative viability loci in Family 1, and eight

more in Family 2 (Table 1).

Selection and dominance of viability loci linked to SNPs

The 16 putative viability loci detected were further characterized for their dominance and

selection coefficients using the Bayesian approach outlined above. For 12 out of 16 of SNPs, the

posterior probability mass for inferred linked viability loci indicated overdominant gene action,

with Bayesian estimates of h ranging from -17.47 to -1.07, and s ranging from 0.32 to 0.96

(Table 1, Fig. 3). Three SNPs showed evidence of linkage to viability loci exhibiting

underdominance, with Bayesian estimates of h ranging 1.30 to 1.48, and s ranging from 0.51 to

0.68 (Table 1, Figs. 3). The remaining locus showed evidence of recessive gene action with

Bayesian estimates $h = 0.45$ and of $s = 0.86$ (Table 1, Fig. 3).

The S-locus region of *Leavenworthia alabamica* and locations of viability loci

The tightly linked S-locus genes *Lal2* and *SCRL* along with their intervening non-coding

region are located on scaffold 46, at base pair positions 2,035,545 to 2,044,046. Several genomic

regions on this scaffold in Family 1 showed a strong deviation from the 1:2:1 ratio (Fig. 2 and

Table 2). The segregation data here support recessive gene action and strong selection $h = 0.18$ to

0.45, and $s = 0.80$ to 0.86 (Table 2). In Family 2, however, this region did not harbour any

detectable viability loci.

Statistical power to detect different modes of gene action

Statistical power to detect different modes of gene action in experiments of the type

conducted here depends on the value of the recombination fraction c. For close linkage, e.g., c

near 0 as is likely for most SNPs in this study (Figs. 1 and 2, Table S2), overdominant and

underdominant action are easier to detect than dominant and recessive action (Fig.4). As the

recombination fraction between marker and inbreeding loci increases, statistical power to detect

underdominant selection increases, whereas statistical power to detect overdominant gene action

decreases (Fig. 4). For dominant and recessive gene actions, statistical power of detection is

reduced with increasing c, but compared with overdominant and underdominant action the

changes are less affected by recombination fraction. Given a sample size of 90 progeny (the

modal value in this study), close linkage, and overdominant or underdominant genes actions,

selection coefficients of *ca*. $s = 0.3$ at viability loci are detectable with statistical power of 80%.

For dominant and recessive actions, viability loci with selection coefficients of *ca*. $s = 0.6$ are

detectable with statistical power of 80%.

Discussion

The genetic architecture of inbreeding depression.

We detected significant departures from the 1:2:1 segregation ratio at SNPs in the

progeny of parental plants from two SI populations across many regions in the *Leavenworthia*

alabamica genome. The segregation data were used to explore support for different values for

selection and dominance coefficients associated with linked viability loci. The approach we used

assumes that meiotic drive, gametic selection, and epistasis do not contribute to departures from

normal segregation. We cannot distinguish the effect of these factors from the action of viability

selection acting early on embryo and seed development, which is a limitation of this study.

Nevertheless, there are several reasons to believe that most departures from the 1:2:1 segregation

ratio observed in this study are associated with inbreeding depression rather than with meiotic

drive or gametic selection. First, where evidence of meiotic drive has been studied in detail (e.g.,

in *Arabidopsis thaliana*), the effects were generally found in specific genomic regions, rather

than genome wide as observed in the present study (Salomé *et al.*, 2012; Seymour *et al.*, 2019).

Second, gametic selection favouring a specific allele linked to markers would not produce a

heterozyote excess at linked marker loci, and so would not be interpreted as overdominance

acting at viability loci as we observed in most cases.

Several past studies have used marker data to explore the genetic architecture of

inbreeding depression in plants. Hedrick & Muona (1990) used the marker-based approach in

Pinus sylvestris and detected a single viability locus with a strong contribution to the fitness of

progeny. When we applied the Bayesian approach outlined above to their data we found

overdominant action at this locus. In another study, using progeny from self-pollinated plants

collected from a wild *Mimulus guttatus* population*,* Fu & Ritland (1994b) applied a graphical

approach that divides the space of possible segregation ratios into different modes of gene action.

They detected 24 viability loci, with the majority showing underdominance or dominance

effects. Mitchell-Olds (1995), studying inbreeding depression in the progeny of parent of an

Arabidopsis thaliana F1 hybrid between different accessions, reported a single viability locus

with overdominance that mapped to chromosome 1. Remington and O'Malley (2000) examined

progeny segregation ratios at AFLP loci in selfed *Pinus taeda* plants and detected both recessive

and overdominant action at 19 embryonic viability loci. In the only other study to apply a

Bayesian approach to estimating selection and dominance at loci associated with inbreeding

depression, albeit with a different parameterisation that the one employed here, Kärkkäinen *et al*.

(1999) in *Arabidopsis lyrata* ssp*. petraea* reported linkages of viability loci to seven separate

allozyme loci, mostly with overdominant effects. Finally, Hedrick *et al.* (2016) examined

segregation ratios for nearly 10,000 SNPs in 28 progeny descended from a self-polliinated plant

of *Eucalytus grandis*, and found widespread heterozygote excess, consistent with

overdominance, though their simulation analysis suggested that pseudo-overdominance is the

more likely explanation. Overall, these empirical studies suggest that modes of gene action for

linked viability loci may vary from species to species.

It is notable that a few of the above-cited studies have reported underdominant viability

loci linked to markers (e.g., especially Fu & Ritland, 1994b, but also Kärkkäinen *et al*. 1999).

Underdominance was also inferred at two marker-linked viability loci in the present

investigation. Underdominance at viability loci cannot contribute to inbreeding depression. We

note from the results of the power analyses we conducted, underdominance is detectable with

smaller sample sizes compared with other modes of action that require larger sample sizes to

detect selection of the same magnitude when $c < 0.3$ (Fig. 4). This could help account for the

unexpected reports of underdominance in studies that have employed few markers (e.g., Fu &

Ritland, 1994b).

<u>Overdominance or pseudo-overdominance of inbreeding depression</u>

For 12 of the 16 SNPs showing departures from normal segregation, our analysis

suggests that overdominance at linked viability loci contributes to inbreeding depression.

Alternatively, these results could be explained as being due to pseudo-overdominance (Ohta,

1971). Psuedo-overdominance would be detected by the methods used here if deleterious,

recessive viability mutations are linked and in repulsion. In general, compared with recessive or

partly recessive action at viability loci, there is little support from past studies for true

overdominance as an underlying cause of inbreeding depression (Charlesworth and Willis 2009).

Distinguishing between true overdominance and pseudo-overdominance is difficult when there is

a single family of progeny, but becomes progressively easier with multiple families, as in the

present study. True overdominance, if present, should often be detected at the same viability loci

in the progeny of multiple selfed parents, since selection there should render it frequent. In

contrast, viability loci exhibiting pseudo-overdominance arising from deleterious recessive or

partly recessive alleles are less likely to be shared among parents, as the genomic regions are

maintained by the interaction of mutation and selection. Our study was limited to two separate

families, but we did, in fact, infer overdominant viability loci in the same two genomic regions in

both Families 1 and 2 (SNPs 68_160676 and SNPs 68_16082; and SNP 72_1428232 in both

families). No other such cases were detected (Table S2). This leaves open the possibility that

both true and pseudo-overdominance are present.

<u>Sheltered S-linked load</u>

An inferred viability locus (or possibly, multiple linked loci) with recessive action was

detected only in one genomic region, and one family (Family 1). Interestingly, the region is

within 80 kb from the site of the S-locus. These results can be interpreted as evidence that there

is sheltering from selection of one (or more) recessive, deleterious mutations in the S-locus

region (Table 2).

In Family 2, no such effects were found in the S-locus region. The finding is not

necessarily at odds with the evidence of sheltered load in the Family 1 data. There are likely

several levels of dominance for S-locus alleles in *L. alabamica* (Busch *et al.*, 2010), and in

sporophytic systems such as this one, the strongest sheltering from selection is expected for those

viability loci linked to S-alleles that exhibit the highest degree of dominance (Llaurens *et al.*,

2009).

<u>Relationship of results to earlier findings on inbreeding depression and the evolution of the</u>

<u>mating system in *Leavenworthia alabamica*</u>

Busch (2005) discovered significant levels of inbreeding depression in self-incompatible

populations of *Leavenworthia alabamica* for germination and survival rate, biomass, flower

number, and pollen viability. He estimated that inbreeding depression for total lifetime fitness

either as a male or female parent exceeds 0.5. Baldwin & Schoen (2019) studied inbreeding

depression for a similar set of fitness components in *L. alabamica* and again found inbreeding

depression for lifetime fitness exceeds 0.5. Baldwin & Schoen extended their study to include

three consecutive generations of self-pollination and found no evidence that inbreeding

depression was purged by this treatment. These results are consistent with the findings of the

present investigation, where overdominance (or more likely, pseudo-overdominance) is

suggested for many linked viability loci.

Inbreeding depression is thought to be the main barrier to the evolution of self-pollination

(Fisher, 1941; Lloyd 1979), and yet with some self-pollination, purging of recessive load is

expected. In an earlier set of population surveys Baldwin & Schoen (2018) that some level of

selfing likely does occur in populations of *Leavenworthia alabamica* that have been formerly

characterized at SI. Specifically, Baldwin & Schoen (2018) discovered that between 6% and

18% of plants exhibit "leaky SI", and thus are capable of setting seed with self-pollen. They also

showed that variation in the degree of this leakiness is heritable, and so at least one requirement

for purging inbreeding depression (i.e., self-pollination) is likely present in populations of this

species. On the other hand, theory suggests that the spread of mutations that reduce SI occurs

mainly when inbreeding depression has a strong recessive basis (Porcher & Lande, 2005;

Gervais *et al*., 2014). The results from the present study suggest this is not the case

Leavenworthia alabamica. That is, apart from one viability locus (or several closely linked

viability loci) that are linked to the S-locus and therefore at least partially shielded from

selection, our results do not support such an underlying recessive genetic architecture for

inbreeding depression but rather are consistent with an overdominant and/or pseudo-

overdominant basis.

Recently it has been suggested that a pseudo-overdominance may why inbreeding

depression is recalcitrant to purging (Waller, 2021). If this is true in the case of *Leavenworthia*

alabamica, it may help to explain why most populations retain SI, despite the fact that SI

populations exhibit variation for the strength of the trait. The results here are also consistent with

the observation that the few SC populations of the *L. alabamica* that have been observed are

small or on the margins of the range, conditions where drift may have played a role in reducing

inbreeding depression (Glémin, 2003; Busch, 2005).

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Author Contributions

410   DJS conceived the study and developed the Bayesian approach for characterizing the genetic

411   architecture of viability loci underlying inbreeding depression, and the power analysis.

412   SJB and DJS initiated the study. Both authors analyzed and interpreted the data and wrote the

413   manuscript.

Data Availability

416 The *Leavenworthia alabamica* reference assembly version 2.5 is available on the CoGe platform:

417 https://genomevolution.org/coge/GenomeInfo.pl?gid=20247. FASTQ files of GBS sequence data

418 for parents and progeny are available on GenBank (**https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genbank**)

419 under SRA accession number PRJNA813545

Supporting Information

File name	Description
TableS1.xlsx	Table S1. Scripts and additional information used to process GBS data in STACKS
TableS2.xlsx	Table S2. SNPs from Families 1 and 2, their position in linkage groups and scaffolds; and segregation patterns.
Note 1	R code for Bayesian analysis
Note 2	R code for power analysis in Fig. 4

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Figure Legends

Figure 1. (Top) -Log$_{10}$ significance levels from Chi-square goodness-of-fit tests to the 1:2:1

segregation ratio for SNPs in linkage groups of Family 1. Red dashed line show significance

levels corresponding to the false discovery rate of $q = 0.05$. (Bottom) Segregation ratios for

SNPs. Blue denotes heterozygote, while red and black denote homozygotes.

Figure 2. (Top) -Log$_{10}$ significance levels from Chi-square goodness-of-fit tests to the 1:2:1

segregation ratio for SNPs in linkage groups of Family 2. Red dashed line show significance

levels corresponding to the false discovery rate of $q = 0.05$. (Bottom) Segregation ratios for

SNPs. Blue denotes heterozygote, while red and black denote homozygotes.

Figure 3. Bayesian analysis of SNP segregation ratio data illustrating posterior probability

density for values of the parameters h and s (left) with heatmaps showing joint posterior

probability densities for h and s (right). Vertical coloured lines define ranges of different nodes

of action at linked viability loci: overdominant (left of red line), recessive (between red and blue

lines), dominant (between blue and red lines), and underdominant (right of green line). These are

sample plots for SNP loci in Table 1 as follows: (Top) 1055_15,414 in Family 1; (Middle)

46_1,956,910 in Family 1; (Bottom) 8_24,357 in Family 2.

Figure 4. Statistical power to reject the 1:2:1 segregation ratio for different modes of action of

viability loci, selection coefficients, and recombination fractions. Shown are four cases:

overdominant with $h = -3.0$ (red), recessive with $h = 0.25$ (black), dominant (blue) with $h = 0.75$,

and underdominant ($h = 1.5$) (orange). From top to bottom graphs, the values of the

recombination fraction are $c = 0, 0.1, 0.2$, and 0.3. The graphs are based on a sample size of 90

progeny.

Fig. 1

Fig. 2