Strong postmating reproductive isolation in *Mimulus* section *Eunanus*

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ABSTRACT

Postmating reproductive isolation can help maintain species boundaries when

premating barriers to reproduction are incomplete. The strength and identity of postmating

reproductive barriers are highly variable among diverging species, leading to questions about

their genetic basis and evolutionary drivers. These questions have been tackled in model

systems but are less often addressed with broader phylogenetic resolution. In this study we

analyze patterns of genetic divergence alongside direct measures of postmating reproductive

barriers in an overlooked group of sympatric species within the model monkeyflower genus,

Mimulus. Within this *Mimulus brevipes* species group, we find substantial divergence among

species, including a cryptic genetic lineage. However, rampant gene discordance and ancient

signals of introgression suggest a complex history of divergence. In addition, we find multiple

strong postmating barriers, including postmating prezygotic isolation, hybrid seed inviability,

and hybrid male sterility, leading to complete or substantial postmating isolation in all species

pairs. Hybrid seed inviability appears linked to differences in seed size, providing a window into

possible developmental mechanisms underlying this reproductive barrier. While geographic

proximity and incomplete mating isolation may have allowed gene flow within this group in the

distant past, strong postmating reproductive barriers today are likely to prevent any ongoing

hybridization. By producing foundational information about reproductive isolation and genomic

divergence in this understudied group, we add new diversity and phylogenetic resolution to our

understanding of the mechanisms of plant speciation.

KEY WORDS: postmating reproductive isolation, introgression, *Mimulus*, hybrid seed inviability,

speciation

INTRODUCTION

Evolutionary biologists have long been interested in understanding what patterns and

processes lead to reproductive isolation among species (Coyne & Orr, 1997; Darwin, 1859; V.

Grant, 1981). Reproductive isolation is often broken down into components that act at

sequential stages of the life cycle – premating barriers such as ecogeographic isolation and

pollinator-mediated isolation that prevent mating, postmating prezygotic barriers that reduce

fertilization success after mating has occurred, and postmating postzygotic barriers that reduce

the fitness of hybrid offspring relative to pure species (Ramsey et al., 2003; Sobel & Chen,

2014).　In plants, premating barriers are typically thought to evolve more quickly than

postmating barriers and to have a greater contribution to overall isolation (Christie et al., 2022).

However, this general pattern masks a great deal of heterogeneity across species pairs: many

systems are completely isolated by premating barriers, while others rely exclusively on strong

postmating isolation; many have a mix of both. Postmating barriers are often the result of

intrinsic genetic incompatibilities, making them potentially more stable over the long term than

ecologically mediated premating barriers (Coughlan & Matute, 2020). Postmating barriers may

also be a source of cryptic variation in groups without obvious morphological or ecological

differences.

To fully understand the role that postmating reproductive barriers play in speciation,

they must be placed in a phylogenetic context. The degree of reproductive isolation between

two taxa tends to increase with genetic distance (Christie & Strauss, 2018; Coyne & Orr, 1989;

Malone & Fontenot, 2008; Scopece et al., 2007), but this relationship is not always consistent

across taxa (Moyle et al., 2004) and is highly heterogeneous. In addition, individual

reproductive barriers such as sterility and inviability may arise at different rates (Coyne & Orr,

1989; Le Gac et al., 2007; Malone & Fontenot, 2008; Presgraves, 2002). The reasons behind

these differences are a subject of ongoing investigation, but may include differences in genetic

architecture (Guerrero et al., 2017; Moyle & Payseur, 2009) or the forms of selection acting on

each barrier (Baack et al., 2015). For example, conflicting selection pressures between maternal

and paternal genomes in the mammalian placenta or the flowering plant endosperm are

thought to give rise to reproductive barriers as these conflicts are resolved differently in

independent lineages (Crespi & Nosil, 2013; Haig & Westoby, 1991; Lafon-Placette & Köhler,

2016); the relative strength of this parental conflict could influence the rate of barrier evolution

(Coughlan et al., 2020; Raunsgard et al., 2018).

An excellent system for building a phylogenetically informed understanding of

reproductive isolation is the western North American radiation of monkeyflowers in the genus

Mimulus. Multiple species groups within *Mimulus* have already been studied extensively in a

speciation context, including the *Mimulus guttatus* (e.g., Brandvain et al., 2014; Ferris et al.,

2014; Lowry & Willis, 2010), *M. aurantiacus* (e.g., Stankowski et al., 2019; Streisfeld & Kohn,

2005)*, and M. lewisii* (e.g., Nelson et al., 2021; Ramsey et al., 2003) species complexes. A

number of pre- and postmating reproductive barriers have been mapped to single genes or QTL

(e.g., Fishman et al., 2014; Fishman & Willis, 2006; Streisfeld & Rausher, 2009; Sweigart et al.,

2006; Yuan et al., 2013; Zuellig & Sweigart, 2018). Recently, hybrid seed inviability in particular

has been identified as a strong barrier in multiple independent species pairs of the *Mimulus*

guttatus species complex, with parental conflict repeatedly implicated as a common

mechanism (Coughlan et al., 2020; Oneal et al., 2016; Sandstedt et al., 2020; Sandstedt &

Sweigart, 2022). An expanding trove of genetic and developmental resources across the genus

allow for a holistic approach to understanding reproductive isolation from genic to phylogenetic

scales (Yuan, 2019).

However, some *Mimulus* subgroups have received less attention, in part because they

are less experimentally tractable or more difficult to access. Studies in these other groups

would provide an important complement to existing knowledge, facilitating comparative

analysis at the genus level while highlighting overlooked diversity in the genetic and ecological

mechanisms of speciation. One such neglected group is *Mimulus* section *Eunanus* [synonym

Diplacus section *Eunanus,* see (Barker et al., 2012; Lowry et al., 2019) for a discussion of

nomenclatural issues]. Section *Eunanus* is a clade of ~23 species (A. L. Grant, 1924; Nesom,

2013) which prior to this publication has had no genome-scale sequencing and few assessments

of reproductive isolation. The group includes both widespread and narrowly endemic species

occupying a range of elevations and habitats in western North America. Here, we focus

primarily on three species from this group: *Mimulus brevipes* Benth.*, Mimulus fremontii*

(Benth.) Gray*, and Mimulus johnstonii* Grant (Baldwin et al., 2012; A. L. Grant, 1924). These

three morphologically defined species make up a well-supported clade according to a

phylogenetic study of *Mimulus* based on three genetic markers (Beardsley et al., 2004). Their

ranges are overlapping; *M. johnstonii* is restricted to higher elevations in the Transverse Ranges

of southern California, while *M. fremontii* and *M. brevipes* are more widespread throughout the

coastal ranges from Monterey into Baja California (Figure 1B).

Studies of reproductive isolation in these three species are limited. Species distribution

modeling between *Mimulus johnstonii* and *M. brevipes* identified strong but incomplete

ecogeographical isolation (RI=0.65 and 0.82 reciprocally) (Sobel, 2014), and they can be found

within hundreds of feet of each other (pers. obs.). No distribution models have been made with

M. fremontii, but M*. brevipes* and *M. fremontii* are found at similar elevations, flower at similar

times, and can be found growing within inches of each other (pers. obs.). Major differences in

flower color, size, and shape between *M. brevipes* and its relatives might suggest some degree

of pollinator-mediated isolation, though little is known about the identity of pollinators or

levels of outcrossing; *M. fremontii* and *M. johnstonii* have similar floral characteristics and seem

unlikely to have substantial pollinator isolation. Postmating barriers have not been studied,

with the exception of one study showing low germination rates of F1 hybrid seeds between *M.*

brevipes and *M. johnstonii,* potentially suggesting hybrid seed inviability (Sobel, 2010).

In this study, we present the first genome-scale analysis of divergence relationships in

Mimulus section *Eunanus*, incorporating our three focal species as well as two more distant

species, *M. constrictus* and *M. nanus*. In addition, we use controlled crosses to examine

multiple postmating reproductive barriers between the focal species. We find clear genetic

divergence and multiple strong postmating reproductive barriers between all tested species.

Our results add to a growing body of evidence that intrinsic postmating barriers, especially

hybrid seed inviability, are a key component in the maintenance of plant species.

130   **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

Sample collections and growth conditions

Fruits were collected from wild plants of three focal species (*M. brevipes, M. fremontii,*

and *M. johnstonii*) at nine locations in southern California in summer 2019 (Figure 1B, Table S1).

As additional, more phylogenetically distant comparisons, a population of *M. nanus* in Oregon

and a population of *M. constrictus* from California were collected in 2021. To germinate, we

treated seeds overnight with 1 mM giberrellic acid, then rinsed three times with distilled water

and placed them individually in 2x2cm soil plugs. Soil was a 1:1:1 mix of sand, perlite, and peat

with a thin layer of finely sifted soil mix on top. Germination trays were set in standing bottom

water and kept moist with a squirt bottle as necessary. When germination rates were low,

liquid smoke was added to standing water to simulate post-fire conditions and stimulate

germination. After germinants developed one or two pairs of true leaves, we transplanted soil

plugs into plastic conical pots filled with the same soil mix. The conical pots were maintained in

standing bottom water in a growth chamber set to 23C days/18C nights, with low relative

humidity and 16 hours of daylight. Germination and establishment was low overall and highly

variable across species, populations, and trials, so germination and establishment rates were

not used as a proxy for seed viability or hybrid fitness.

One population initially collected as *M. johnstonii,* S25 from Sespe Creek, showed

morphological differences suggesting it may be a unique lineage, and is treated separately

throughout this paper. Compared to *M. johnstonii*, Sespe Creek has inserted stigmas, a lighter

purple corolla with a slight white wash at the mouth, and longer leaf trichomes.

Genomic sequencing

We collected leaf tissue from 33 individuals for genomic sequencing. All sequenced

individuals were generated from outbred field-collected seeds and germinated in growth

chambers. We flash-froze leaf tissue in liquid nitrogen and used a modified CTAB-based

protocol to extract genomic DNA (Fishman, 2020). Briefly, tissue was ground to a powder and

incubated in CTAB buffer with ß-mercaptoethanol. Supernatant was extracted with phenol-

chloroform-isoamyl alcohol, then again with chloroform-isoamyl alcohol, followed by

precipitation of carbohydrates with sodium chloride and polyethylene glycol. DNA was then

precipitated with isopropanol, washed with ethanol, and resuspended in distilled water.

We used the tagmentation-based Illumina Nextera XT DNA library prep kit (FC-131-1024)

to prepare genomic DNA for sequencing. The 33 individually barcoded samples were then

sequenced in four batches at the Duke University Sequencing and Genomic Technologies

Shared Resource with either an Illumina NextSeq 500 or an Illumina NovaSeq 6000 sequencer,

in combined lanes with other barcoded projects (Table S2).

Sequence alignments and SNP calling

We combined our dataset of 33 samples with five previously published samples

(Stankowski et al., 2019) from the *Mimulus aurantiacus* species complex as an outgroup for

analysis. *M. aurantiacus* is outside of section *Eunanus* but is the closest group with previous

genome-scale data, as well as the closest group for which a reference genome assembly is

currently available. For all 38 samples, we trimmed raw sequencing reads using Trimmomatic

v0.39 (Bolger et al., 2014) to remove adapters and low-quality ends. We mapped reads to the

Mimulus aurantiacus reference genome (Stankowski et al., 2019) using bwa mem v0.7.17 (Li &

Durbin, 2009), then sorted and indexed with samtools v1.10 (Danecek et al., 2021). We

removed PCR duplicates using the MarkDuplicates tool in Picard v2.21.6 (Broad Institute, 2019),

and removed reads with unmapped mate pairs or mapping quality <29 using samtools view

(Danecek et al., 2021). Average read coverage per sample was 2.2-15.7 (mean 6.8) across 33

novel samples (details in Table S1).

We called SNPs in each sample using the GATK v4.1.6.0 haplotype caller, then used GATK

GenotypeGVCFs to jointly call variant and invariant sites for the entire dataset in 'all-sites'

mode (Van der Auwera & O'Connor, 2020). Only sites mapping to the ten major linkage groups

of the reference genome, corresponding to ten nuclear chromosomes, were included. We split

the resulting VCF into SNPs and invariant sites, and separately filtered each before recombining

them into a joint dataset, following recommendations by Dmitri Kryvokhyza (Kryvokhyzha,

2022). We filtered both SNPs and invariant sites to remove sites with combined DP <83 (~1/3 of

mean combined depth) or >1376 (two standard deviations above mean combined depth),

QD<2, SOR>3, or MQ<40. We additionally filtered SNPs to keep only biallelic sites across the

entire dataset, and to remove sites with QUAL<40, FS>60, MQRankSum<-12.5,

ReadPosRankSum>12.5, or ReadPosRankSum<-12.5.

Starting with all sites that pass the above filters (14,814,282 biallelic SNPs and

96,871,941 invariant sites), we generated four datasets for analysis. For genome-wide

phylogenetic and introgression analyses, we used a 'complete' dataset, which retained only

sites where fewer than 30 of 38 (approximately 80%) of samples had a called genotype,

resulting in 7,728,322 biallelic SNPs and 32,658,171 invariant sites. When calculating genome-

wide introgression metrics, we also attempted to reduce stemming from uneven sampling of

species and uneven coverage across individuals, by creating a 'downsampled' dataset of

equalized sampling and coverage. For this set, we chose the two most divergent individuals

from each species (except for *M. constrictus* for which we only had one sample), then randomly

sampled 12 million raw read pairs from each individual and used the same pipeline as above to

generate SNPs and invariant sites. Again, we retained only sites where 10 of 13 samples (~80%)

had called genotypes, resulting in 3,778,609 SNPs and 26,939,196 invariant sites.

For the calculation of diversity and divergence metrics, we made a 'synonymous sites'

dataset. Starting with the 'complete' dataset, we used the *M. aurantiacus* gene annotation to

select only sites in the 3rd codon position of coding sequences that were four-fold degenerate,

i.e., any nucleotide change to that site in the reference background would not change the

protein sequence, using a custom script by Tim Sackton (Sackton, 2014/2022). The

'synonymous sites' dataset included 967,470 SNPs and 1,654,798 invariant sites. We note that

multiple mutation hits within a single codon are possible given the large proportion of variant

sites across the dataset, which could change the synonymous nature of these sites, but we

expect these events to be rare enough to not substantially affect our genome-wide results on

average.

For gene-by-gene analyses, we used a 'genic' dataset that included all sites passing the

initial filters that fell within each of the 22,421 genes in the *M. aurantiacus* genome annotation.

Phylogenetic tree building

To determine phylogenetic relationships among our samples, we built a maximum

likelihood phylogenetic tree using the GTR+Gamma model in RAxML v8.2.12 (Stamatakis, 2014)

with SNPs from the 'complete' dataset. SNPs were extracted into a concatenated fasta

alignment using the 'consensus' function from bcftools v1.13 (Danecek et al., 2021) and

invariant sites were excluded. Heterozygous sites were initially coded as IUPAC ambiguity

codes, then randomly converted to a single allele with the 'randbase' function in seqtk v1.3 (Li,

2018). We ran 10 separate iterations of RAxML with unique random seeds, then chose the

iteration with the largest log-likelihood. We used the RAxML -b option to run 1000 rapid

bootstrap trees. We also generated a neighbor-joining tree with 1000 bootstrap replicates from

the same data, using the dist.ml, nj, and boostrap.phyDat functions in the R package phangorn

(Schliep, 2011).

We generated gene trees to examine patterns of gene tree discordance on the

phylogeny. We used SNPs from the 'genic' dataset in the *M. aurantiacus* genome annotation,

following the same approach as above to generate a maximum-likelihood phylogenetic tree in

RAxML for each gene. Genes with insufficient data to resolve a tree (any individual with no

called sites, or any two individuals with identical sequence) were excluded, resulting in trees for

17,573 genes. We then input these trees into ASTRAL v5.6.1 (Rabiee et al., 2019) which uses a

multispecies coalescent approach to calculate a consensus species tree and quartet support

scores for each node.

Quantifying homozygosity, diversity, and divergence

Pairwise sequence differences were calculated from the 'synonymous sites' dataset using

the 'dxy' and 'pi' functions in the program pixy v1.2.3 (Korunes & Samuk, 2021). For each

comparison, sequence differences were calculated in 1Mb windows across the genome, then

added together and divided by the total number of informative sites. We calculated pairwise

diversity (π_s) for each pair of individuals within a species, pairwise divergence (d_s) for each pair

of individuals across species, and heterozygosity (h_s, pairwise diversity within an individual) for

each individual. Diversity, divergence, and heterozygosity values were averaged across

individuals within each species, or across individual pairs within each species pair.

To estimate the divergence times between species, we used the following molecular

clock formula: (divergence time in generations) = (synonymous divergence – synonymous

ancestral diversity)/(2*mutation rate). We assumed ancestral diversity for any two species to

be the average of within-species diversity for the two species, and took the mutation rate to be

1.5×10^{-8} (Koch et al., 2000). These estimates are approximate, as they do not take into

account the effect of changing effective population sizes, such as demographic bottlenecks, or

the possibility that ancestral diversity was very different from current diversity.

Quantifying introgression

To explore historical introgression between species, we used three complementary

approaches: ABBA-BABA tests and the related *f*-statistics; gene tree discordance bias using

TWISST; and the model-based TreeMix program.

We used Dsuite v0.4 (Malinsky et al., 2021) to calculate Patterson's D, a measure of the

relative frequency of ABBA and BABA sites in the genome, and the related *f4* statistic, which

uses allele frequencies to estimate the proportion of the genome resulting from introgression.

We calculated D and *f4* for all possible trios of species in our dataset, using both the 'complete'

and 'downsampled' SNP datasets, with the *M. aurantiacus* complex as the outgroup. Z-scores

and associated p-values were calculated for each trio using a block-jackknife approach with 100

blocks in Dsuite; to account for multiple tests, a Bonferroni correction was used to obtain a

corrected p-value (p_{corr}). Because there are multiple trios available to estimate introgression for

the same pair of species, we summarized results across trios using the F_{branch} statistic in Dsuite

for each species pair (Malinsky *et al.* 2018).

We used TWISST (github version d56cefb) (Martin & Van Belleghem, 2017) to obtain the

proportion of gene trees supporting particular tree topologies. For each trio of species, we

compared the two possible alternate (different from the consensus specie tree) tree topologies

using a binomial test with expected ratio 1:1 to look for an excess of one topology over

another. The *M. aurantiacus* complex was always used as the outgroup. This test is analogous

to the SNP-based ABBA-BABA test, but uses gene trees rather than SNPs.

We used TreeMix (Pickrell & Pritchard, 2012) to create phylogenetic network models

with or without migration edges as a further test of introgression. We used the 'synonymous

sites' dataset, including only variant SNPs with no missing data, and grouped individuals by

species. The dataset was pruned to select SNPs not in linkage disequilibrium using a custom

script by Joana Meier (https://github.com/joanam/scripts/raw/master/ldPruning.sh). We ran

models with zero to four migration edges, with 10 replicate runs per model type. The program

OptM (Fitak, 2021) was used to define the best fitting TreeMix migration model.

Identifying candidate windows with historical introgression

To identify candidate genomic regions with signatures of historical introgression, we

used Dsuite (Malinsky et al., 2021) to calculate the window-based *df* statistic (Pfeifer and

Kapan, 2019) for windows of 100 informative SNPs, each overlapping the previous by 50 SNPs.

We calculated *df* across the genome for three focal trios with strong support for introgression,

using the *M. aurantiacus* complex as the outgroup. In each quartet, we selected the 100

windows (out of 9594 to 17530, depending on the quartet) with the most extreme (positive or

negative) values as potential candidates of introgression, with positive values set to match the

direction of the genome-wide F_{branch} signal.

Measuring reproductive barriers

We assessed three different barriers to reproduction: postmating prezygotic isolation,

F1 hybrid seed inviability, and F1 hybrid sterility. We conducted hand pollinations of

greenhouse-grown plants within and among species by first removing anthers from the

maternal flower to prevent self-pollination, then using forceps to place pollen from the paternal

flower on the maternal stigma surface. Stigma lobes in these species close quickly in response

to touch, so hand-pollination is not always successful. In a few cases, supplemental pollen from

the same paternal plant was added the following day once the stigma had re-opened. We

collected mature, browned fruits, categorized according to cross type. Cross type throughout

this paper refers to the combination of maternal species and paternal species, with maternal

species always listed first; the 16 cross types are JxJ, JxB, BxJ, JxF, FxJ, JxS, SxJ, BxB, BxF, FxB,

BxS, SxB, FxF, FxS, SxF, SxS where J=*M. johnstonii*, B=*M. brevipes,* F=*M. fremontii*, S=Sespe creek

population. For the cross type BxF, we also germinated and grew F1 hybrids from four

independent crosses in the same conditions as parental plants (Table S3). These F1 hybrids

were crossed to themselves and reciprocally with *M. fremontii* and *M. brevipes* as above (cross

types HxB, BxH, HxH, HxF, FxH, where H=F1 hybrid). F1 hybrids between other species pairs

were not grown because of low crossing success or low seed viability.

To measure postmating prezygotic isolation, we quantified crossing success (probability

that a pollination produces at least one seed) and seed production (number of seeds per fruit)

after hand-pollination; both viable and inviable seeds were included but unfertilized ovules

were not. To test for an association between cross type and crossing success, we ran a

penalized Firth regression with a binomial family function using the R package 'brglm'. A Firth

regression was chosen to account for complete separation (all successes or all failures) of some

groups. To test the dominance relationships of this barrier, we compared the crossing success

of *M. brevipes* x *M. fremontii* F1 hybrids to their parental species. We ran a generalized linear

mixed-effects model (GLMM) with a binomial family and logit link function using the R package

'lme4' on cross types BxB, BxH, BxF, HxB, HxH, HxF, FxB, FxH, and FxF, where H indicates F1

hybrid offspring from a BxF cross. For this model, maternal population was included as a

random effect, treating each independent F1 cross as its own population.

To assess seed viability in each cross, we used a combination of visual inspection and

chemical treatment. All seeds were inspected under a dissecting scope and scored as inviable or

viable. Viable seeds were plump and generally ovate, although they were allowed to be slightly

misshapen as long as they appeared to be full. Inviable seeds included any seed that was

severely shriveled, concave, empty, much smaller than the typical within-species seed, or with a

shape very different from the typical ovate shape. To confirm that seeds visually scored as

inviable were in fact inviable, we treated a subset of seeds with tetrazolium chloride, which

stains viable seeds dark red. For this treatment, seeds were scarified using 1:5 bleach:distilled

water with 0.83 uL/mL Triton-X for 15 minutes, washed twice with distilled water, and placed in

1% (w/v) tetrazolium chloride, then incubated in the dark at room temperature for ~48 hours.

To test for an association between cross type and the relative counts of viable vs. inviable

seeds, we ran a penalized Firth regression using the R package 'brglm' with a binomial family

and logit link function. A Firth regression was chosen to account for complete separation (all

viable or all inviable) of some groups.

To investigate reciprocal differences in seed size, a predicted correlate of parental

conflict-driven hybrid seed inviability (Haig & Westoby, 1991), we imaged a subset of seeds

from 49 fruits under a dissecting scope and used imageJ to manually measure seed length and

width. This included all available seeds for those cross types with few seeds, and a random

selection of seeds from a random selection of fruits for other cross types. We ran a linear

mixed-effects model using the R package 'lme4' to test for differences in seed length between

the four intraspecific cross types (JxJ, BxB, FxF, and SxS), using fruit as a random effect. We also

ran six independent LMMs, one for each pair of species, to directly compare intra- and

interspecific seeds. For example, we tested the *M. johnstonii* vs. *M. brevipes* pair by comparing

cross types JxJ, JxB, BxJ, BxB. For each species-pair, we ran one LMM to test for an association

between cross type and seed length, and a second to test for an association between cross type

and seed length/width ratio.

To assess hybrid male sterility of *M. brevipes-M. fremontii* F1 plants compared with their

parental species, we scored pollen number and pollen viability using an aniline blue stain. For

each individual, all anthers from a single flower were collected in 50 µL 0.25% aniline blue in

lactophenol solution. Blue stained pollen grains were scored as viable, while unstained clear

pollen grains were counted as inviable. Pollen was counted in full 1mm^2 squares of a

hemocytometer until 9 squares or at least 100 total pollen grains were counted. For each

individual, we estimated pollen viability by determining the proportion of viable pollen grains

out of the total counted (for some individuals, pollen viability was measured from multiple

flowers and the average was used). We used an LMM to test for an association between species

ID and the total count of pollen grains scored per hemocytometer square, with population as a

random effect. Similarly, we used a GLM with a binomial family and logit link function to test for

an association between species ID (*M. brevipes, M. fremontii,* or F1 hybrid) and the relative

counts of viable vs. inviable pollen grains, adding population as a random effect (each hybrid

family was treated as its own population).

To assess *M. brevipes-M. fremontii* F1 female fertility, we hand-pollinated F1 hybrids

with pollen from either parent and measured seed production. To determine whether F1

hybrids produce fewer seeds than within-species crosses, we used a linear model to test for an

association between cross type and the number of seeds produced per fruit, comparing cross

types BxB, BxH, HxF, and FxF and only counting fruits that produced at least one seed.

For every statistical model above, we ran Tukey post-hoc tests implemented in the

package 'multcomp' to test for pairwise differences between each cross type or group.

We followed the methods of Sobel and Chen (2014) to calculate standardized measures

of reproductive isolation for each of three reproductive barriers, as well as total postmating

reproductive isolation, between each species. All measures used the equation

$$RI = 1 - 2 * (H/(H + C))$$

where H=heterospecific fitness and C=conspecific fitness. In this framework, RI ranges from -1

to 1 where -1 is complete heterosis, 0 is random assortment, and 1 is complete isolation. We

calculated total measured reproductive isolation sequentially with the equation

$$RI_{TOTAL} = RI_{previous} + \left(1 - RI_{previous}\right) * RI_{new}$$

where RI_previous is the total RI from all previous barriers and RI_new is the next barrier. Barriers that

could not be measured due to complete or near-complete previous RI were left blank.

377   **RESULTS**

Genome-wide variation in the *M. brevipes* group defines clear species but also reveals a

complex history of introgression.

A maximum-likelihood phylogeny generated from whole-genome SNP data resolves each

of the three focal species (*M. brevipes*, *M. johnstonii*, and *M. fremontii*) as monophyletic with

100% bootstrap support (Figure 1C). Within these species, each population is also recovered as

monophyletic, with the exception of one sample from a *M. brevipes* population (Figure 1C: one

individual from population B11 clusters with B19). *M. johnstonii* is supported as sister to *M.*

brevipes, in contrast to (Beardsley et al., 2004) which found *M. brevipes* and *M. fremontii* as

sister based on just three loci. Genome-wide estimates of pairwise nucleotide divergence at

synonymous sites also support strong divergence among the three focal species, with pairwise

divergence values (d_s, 4.8-6.0%) consistently well outside the range of nucleotide diversity

within species (π_s, range 1.6-3.7%) (Figure 1D, Table S4). Heterozygosity is similar to pairwise

diversity (h_s, range 1.1-3.1%), supporting a primarily outcrossing strategy in these species.

Speciation times were estimated at >1 million generations for all species pairs (Figure 1C).

The Sespe Creek population (S25) is clearly a distinct lineage well outside of the *M.*

brevipes trio. Although S25 is most closely related to *M. constrictus*, high genetic divergence

between these lineages (d_s = 0.06) suggest that S25 is a distinct species (Figure 1D, Table S4).

Other species in this clade are not sampled and could be closer relatives to Sespe Creek, but

none are known to occur in that geographic area. *M. nanus* is recovered as an outgroup to the

other *Eunanus* section species as expected, with the *M. aurantiacus* complex set as the ultimate

outgroup (Figure 1C). Species-level relationships from the maximum-likelihood tree were

corroborated by a neighbor-joining tree and ASTRAL consensus tree (Figure S1).

Despite clear divergence between these *Mimulus* species, we also discovered

substantial historical introgression. Using ABBA-BABA tests (Table 1, Table S5) and associated *F*

statistics (Figures 2A and S2), TWISST (Figure S3), and TreeMix (Figure S4), we detected three

signals of gene flow that were consistent across all methods. The first of these signals supports

directional introgression from the *M. brevipes-M. fremontii-M. johnstonii* clade into the Sespe

Creek population (Table 1: D = 0.135-0.149; Figure 2A: F_{branch} = 4.8-5.9%, Figure S3: TWISST

quartets 41.1/41.8/17.0, Figure S4: TreeMix m=0.193). A second, weaker signal of introgression

occurs in the reciprocal direction from the *M. constrictus*-Sespe Creek clade into the *M.*

brevipes-M. fremontii-M. johnstonii clade (Table 1: D = 0.027-0.046, Figure 2A: F_{branch} = 0.4-

1.3%, Figure S3: TWISST quartets 70.3/15.7/14.0, Figure S4: TreeMix m=0.021). Finally, a third

signal of introgression was detected between *M. nanus* and the clade containing *M. constrictus*

and Sespe Creek (Table 1: D = 0.101-0.178, Figure 2A: F_{branch} = 2.4-3.4%, Figure S3: TWISST

quartets 73.5/15.2/11.3, Figure S4: TreeMix m=0.296). We summarize these patterns in Figure

S5, but note that shared evolutionary history makes it challenging to assign introgression events

to single lineages.

For each of these three general cases, we chose the trio with the strongest signal and

scanned the genome for signatures of introgression using the statistic *df*. Outlier *df* windows

were asymmetric, with more positive outliers (signals of introgression consistent with the

genome-wide F_{branch} pattern) than negative outliers of the same magnitude (Figure 2B). Positive

outliers were widely distributed throughout the genome, present on all ten linkage groups for

all three trios and with no large blocks of uninterrupted introgression, indicating that gene flow

in this group is ancient rather than ongoing.

Multiple strong postmating reproductive barriers between species in the *M. brevipes* group.

Most crosses between four focal species (*M. johnstonii, M. brevipes, M. fremontii,* and

the Sespe Creek population) showed little to no reduction in crossing success (probability of

producing a seed, or seeds produced per fruit) compared to within-species crosses (Figures 3

and S6, Table S6). In one case (FxB), there is evidence of strong unidirectional postmating

prezygotic isolation: only one in 58 crosses between maternal *M. fremontii* and paternal *M.*

brevipes produced any seeds, a significantly lower proportion than the within-species or

reciprocal cross types (Figure 3, Table S6). This pattern appears to be additive on both the

maternal and paternal sides in *M. brevipes* x *M. fremontii* F1 hybrids, with intermediate crossing

success in both HxB and FxH crosses (Figure S7). A few other interspecific cross types also had

low or zero seed production (e.g., reciprocal crosses of *M. fremontii* and Sespe Creek), which

could indicate a postmating prezygotic barrier, but these crosses had low sample sizes and did

not reach significance compared to within-species crosses.

For crosses that did produce seeds, we found strong F1 hybrid seed inviability (viability

<2%) in nine interspecific crosses (Figure 4A-B, Table S6). The exception was species pair *M.*

fremontii and *M. brevipes,* which produced viable seeds in both directions (Figure 4A-B, Table

S6). We could not score seed viability for cross type SxF because the only potential seeds

produced were not distinguishable from unfertilized ovules.

M. johnstonii intraspecific seeds were significantly larger than *M. brevipes* or *M.*

fremontii seeds, with Sespe Creek seeds intermediate in size (Figure 4C, Table S7). Inviable

seeds overall showed no evidence of overgrowth or undergrowth relative to parents, but

instead tended to match the seed length of the maternal parent. However, F1 hybrids with

Sespe Creek as maternal parent did have slightly smaller seeds than either parent (this trend

was only significant for SxF) (Figures 4A and S8A, Table S7). Crosses with *M. johnstonii*, the

largest-seeded species, as the maternal parent produced inviable seeds that were collapsed and

thin, as shown by a significant increase in hybrid seed length/width ratios (three cross types)

compared to both parents and to the reciprocal cross type (Figures 4A and S8B, Table S7). In the

reciprocal direction, hybrid seeds were typically shriveled, as were hybrid seeds in both

directions of Sespe Creek crosses (Figures 4A and S8B).

Although in most cases, strong seed inviability prevented us from quantifying later-

acting barriers, we were able to assess F1 hybrid sterility between *M. brevipes* and *M.*

fremontii. Pollen number per flower was intermediate for hybrids compared to the two

parental species (Figure 5A, Table S8). However, only ~20% of hybrid pollen grains were fertile,

a sharp reduction from either parent, indicating strong F1 male sterility (Figure 5B, Table S8).

We find no evidence of hybrid female sterility in *M. brevipes* x *M. fremontii* F1s; seed

production from pollinated hybrids was intermediate compared to pure species (Figure 5C).

Total postmating reproductive isolation was near-complete (RI>=0.95) for all tested

species pairs except for *M. brevipes* vs. *M. fremontii,* primarily driven by strong hybrid seed

inviability (Table 2). The exception, *M. brevipes* vs. *M. fremontii,* had incomplete but still

substantial total postmating RI from a combination of postmating prezygotic isolation and F1

male sterility (B > F: RI=0.91; F > B: RI=0.66).

465   **DISCUSSION**

A major goal of speciation research is to understand similarities and differences in how

reproductive isolation emerges as groups of species diverge. We find that *Mimulus brevipes,*

Mimulus johnstonii, and Mimulus fremontii are clearly delineated species both genetically and

by intrinsic reproductive barriers. We find strong hybrid seed inviability between multiple

species pairs, as well as a postmating prezygotic barrier and severe hybrid male sterility

between one species pair. While premating barriers have not yet been thoroughly quantified in

this group, the combination of close geographic proximity (within centimeters in some cases)

and similar floral morphology (excluding *M. brevipes*) makes it unlikely that premating barriers

alone can eliminate hybridization. These strong postmating barriers are therefore likely to be

important in preventing contemporary gene flow.

While many studies have shown that reproductive isolation increases with divergence

on average, individual species pairs are often idiosyncratic (Coyne & Orr, 1989; Malone &

Fontenot, 2008; Matute & Cooper, 2021; Moyle et al., 2004). Our results highlight this

heterogeneity – while reproductive isolation and divergence are both strong overall, the

species pair with the least postmating reproductive isolation in this group (*M. brevipes* and *M.*

fremontii) is not the most recently diverged pair (*M. brevipes* and *M. johnstonii*). Paying greater

attention to the exceptions may help us better understand the factors that drive reproductive

isolation.

Gene discordance and introgression

We find evidence of extensive phylogenetic discordance across the genome, including

signatures of historical introgression between multiple species in this group. These signals are

scattered throughout the genome and broken up by generations of recombination; we find no

evidence of recent or ongoing introgression. Without further sampling of populations and

species in this section, attributing these signals to precise events on the phylogeny is difficult.

Taken as a whole, however, they demonstrate a high degree of complexity in the divergence

process, consistent with reticulate evolutionary histories of other groups within *Mimulus* (e.g.,

Brandvain et al., 2014; Nelson et al., 2021; Stankowski et al., 2019), in plants more broadly (e.g.,

Curtu et al., 2009; Goulet et al., 2017; Hamlin et al., 2020; Kay et al., 2018; Scascitelli et al.,

2010), and across the tree of life (e.g., D'Angiolo et al., 2020; Green et al., 2010; Kleindorfer et

al., 2014; Mallet et al., 2007; Schumer et al., 2018). Without postmating reproductive barriers,

even small amounts of introgression can lead to species collapse in sympatry, especially if

premating barriers are disrupted by environmental change (Behm et al., 2010; Kleindorfer et

al., 2014; Xiong & Mallet, 2022). Alternatively, species can persist despite ongoing

introgression, depending on the circumstances (Kay et al., 2018; Kenney & Sweigart, 2016;

Servedio & Hermisson, 2020). Past introgression in the *Eunanus* group may have predated the

evolution of the strong postmating barriers we see today. We argue that postmating

reproductive barriers likely played an important role in reducing gene flow as divergence

increased, contradicting the hypothesis that postmating barriers are 'after-the-fact' byproducts

with little influence on speciation trajectories.

Cryptic diversity in Mimulus section Eunanus

Genetic data allow us to uncover cryptic variation in the form of distinct genetic lineages

that are not readily distinguished by morphological features in the field (Bickford et al., 2007;

Struck et al., 2018). Our population from Sespe Creek does not appear to match any of the

likely species from the area, and we find that it is a genetically distinct lineage with a history of

introgression. In addition, it appears to be reproductively isolated from other members of the

group by strong hybrid seed inviability. We do not yet know the exact nature of its origin, or

how widely distributed this lineage is; more sampling from the area and genetic data from

more species in the group will be necessary to fully resolve these questions. Studies of

speciation in plants often focus on ecologically mediated premating reproductive isolation, but

cryptic diversity may be better explained by postmating barriers (Coughlan & Matute, 2020).

Mimulus section *Eunanus* is home to many more understudied, small, pink-flowered taxa; if our

study is any indication, strong postmating reproductive isolation may play an outsized role in

generating diversity in this group.

Parallel evolution of hybrid seed inviability in Mimulus

Hybrid seed inviability has been found repeatedly in species pairs from the *Mimulus*

guttatus species complex (section *Simiolus*) (Coughlan et al., 2020; Oneal et al., 2016; Sandstedt

& Sweigart, 2022). By demonstrating hybrid seed inviability in a distant section of *Mimulus,* we

show that this pattern is widespread and important, both across *Mimulus* and likely in plants

more broadly. In the *M. guttatus* complex and other systems, hybrid seed inviability has been

tied to parental conflict in resource allocation, a process mediated by the endosperm (Coughlan

et al., 2020; Haig & Westoby, 1991; Lafon-Placette et al., 2017; Oneal et al., 2016; Rebernig et

al., 2015; Roth et al., 2019; Sandstedt & Sweigart, 2022). We do not find clear evidence of

parental conflict in our system -- hybrid seed sizes tended to track maternal seed sizes, without

the telltale overgrowth or undergrowth phenotypes. However, hybrid seed size is not always a

good predictor of parental conflict (Sandstedt & Sweigart, 2022), so future work to characterize

differences in seed development would be required to rule out a conflict hypothesis.

Alternatively, differences in parental seed sizes between our species could result in

Dobhzansky-Muller-like incompatibilities during hybrid seed development, without invoking

parental conflict as a driver. Seed size is an important life history trait tied to ecological

strategies; larger seeds tend to have more success establishing under a variety of hazardous

conditions, from nutrient deprivation to low soil moisture to deep burial (Leishman et al.,

2000). Larger, heavier seeds may also prevent long-range dispersal and keep offspring in

maternal habitats for which they are locally adapted, as is the case in dune-adapted plants

(Bowers, 1982; Schwarzbach et al., 2001). Both *M. johnstonii* and the Sespe Creek population

are found on unstable scree slopes, which may pose a particular challenge to seed

establishment or favor local dispersal to maintain local adaptation. This habitat preference is

therefore a possible candidate for a selective force, which could have acted in parallel in *M.*

johnstonii and Sespe Creek to drive seed size differences leading to hybrid inviability.

Postmating prezygotic isolation

Crossing failure (postmating prezygotic isolation) can be caused by a failure of pollen

tube germination, failure of pollen tube growth, failure of fertilization, or even early seed

abortion (Wheeler et al., 2001); it may be a passive incompatibility between pollen and pistil, or

an active rejection mechanism to prevent maladaptive hybridization (Hogenboom et al., 1975;

Roda & Hopkins, 2019; Rushworth et al., 2022). Most studies on the mechanisms of postmating

prezygotic isolation come from systems with self-incompatibility, where they are thought to be

related to self-incompatibility mechanisms, e.g. *Solanum* (Bernacchi & Tanksley, 1997; Tovar-

Méndez et al., 2014), *Nicotiana* (Kuboyama et al., 1994), and *Lilium* (Ascher & Drewlow, 1975),

though a mechanism unrelated to self-incompatibility has been described in *Brassica* (Fujii et

al., 2019). Since *Mimulus* lacks self-incompatibility mechanisms, this group provides an

opportunity to investigate how interspecific incompatibility may arise on its own. In other

systems with differences in style length, germinating pollen tubes can under- or over-shoot the

ovules (Gore et al., 1990; Williams & Rouse, 1988). Style length could be important in our

system, since *M. brevipes* styles are substantially longer than *M. fremontii* styles, though our

case is unusual in that pollen from the long-styled parent fails while pollen from the short-

styled parent is successful. Pollen competition driving differential coevolution of the pollen and

pistil is another possible source of incompatibilities (Brandvain & Haig, 2005; Skogsmyr &

Lankinen, 2002), a scenario which has been documented in the *M. guttatus* complex (Aagaard

et al., 2013; Fishman et al., 2008) and *Arabidopsis* (Takeuchi & Higashiyama, 2012).

Hybrid male sterility

Hybrid male sterility has been characterized multiple times in *Mimulus* sections Simiolus

and Erythranthe, with a variety of genetic causes, including a nuclear DMI interaction (Sweigart

et al., 2006), a cytoplasmic-nuclear interaction (Fishman & Willis, 2006), or underdominant

chromosomal rearrangements (Stathos & Fishman, 2014), but the relative frequency of these

mechanisms across plants is unknown. *M. brevipes* and *M. fremontii* are more genetically

divergent than most pairs for which male sterility has been studied, in *Mimulus* or elsewhere.

Since they still produce viable hybrids and sterility is not 100% complete, genetic mapping could

be used in the future to determine the mechanisms underlying sterility in this system, and the

degree of parallelism with other cases in *Mimulus.*

Future directions

As the first in-depth genomic and phenotypic investigation of speciation within *Mimulus*

section *Eunanus,* this study fills an important phylogenetic gap within the speciation literature,

helping to position the genus *Mimulus* as a leading model for broad phylogenetically informed

comparisons of how species form and diverge. Our study system highlights both universal and

idiosyncratic patterns in the speciation process; we add to a growing body of evidence that

hybrid seed inviability and hybrid male sterility are important barriers to gene flow in *Mimulus*

and across plant taxa; and we demonstrate the complexity of gene discordance and historical

introgression among species despite substantial overall divergence. In addition, we lay the

groundwork for fruitful avenues of future mechanistic study: seed size evolution and hybrid

seed inviability; style length and postmating prezygotic isolation; and highly divergent hybrid

male sterility are all worthy of future exploration in this group. Out study also provides the

starting point for a more complete phylogenetic sampling of section *Eunanus*, which would

enhance our understanding of cryptic divergence and the interplay between ecological,

geographic, and genetic forces driving the diversification of species.

Author contributions

Research conceived and designed jointly by M.C.F and A.L.S. Data collected and analyzed by

M.C.F. Manuscript written by M.C.F and A.L.S.

Data accessibility

All newly generated whole genome sequence data are deposited at the NCBI Sequence Read

Archive (accession PRJNA922914). Other data will be made available on Dryad Digital

Repository upon publication.

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The authors declare no competing interests.

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Figure 1. Phylogenetic relationships and divergence between sampled species in *Mimulus*
section *Eunanus*. (A) Representative floral images for sampled species. (B) Map of occurrence
records and sampled populations from the GBIF database for five species within California and
Baja California. Inset highlights focal region for sampling, where species ranges overlap. Smaller
icons indicate GBIF records (GBIF.org, 2022) for each species, which include iNaturalist research
grade observations and herbarium collections. Larger named icons indicate sampled
populations used in this study. The range of *M. nanus* extends into Nevada, Oregon, and
Washington; population N01 (*M. nanus*) was collected from Washington state and is not
shown. Population S25, referred to as Sespe Creek, is treated as a separate lineage. (C)
Maximum likelihood phylogeny inferred using RAxML from the 'complete' dataset of genome-
wide SNPs, rooted by the *M. aurantiacus* complex. All nodes except those marked with open
circles have 100% bootstrap support. Species divergence times were estimated using
synonymous divergence relative to synonymous diversity. All sampled populations are
monophyletic with strong support, with the exception of one sample from B11 that clusters
with B19 (marked with an asterisk). (D) Nucleotide heterozygosity (h_s), pairwise diversity (π_s),
and divergence (d_s) at genome-wide synonymous sites, indicating substantially higher between-
species divergence than within-species diversity. Bars represent species or comparison means,
while points represent individual pairwise sample comparisons. Diversity includes both within-
and between-population comparison where possible. Sespe creek is substantially diverged from

 its closest sampled relative, *M. constrictus* (SxC d_s=6.0%). J = *M. johnstonii*, B = *M. brevipes,* F =

628 *M. fremontii*, S = Sespe creek population, C = *M. constrictus*, N = *M. nanus*, AUR = *M.*

629 *aurantiacus* complex*.

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Figure 2. Signatures of historical introgression between species in *Mimulus* section *Eunanus*.
(A) Genome-wide F_{branch} statistics, an estimate of the proportion of the genome affected by
introgression based on correlated *f4* statistics, using the downsampled SNP dataset. All listed
nonzero F_{branch} values are supported by ABBA-BABA tests with Bonferroni-corrected p-value <
0.001. Seven bold-outlined boxes indicate comparisons with significant gene discordance bias
supporting introgression from TWISST gene tree summaries, using Bonferroni-corrected p-
values <0.01. Full TWISST summaries are in Figure S3. (B) Position along ten linkage groups of
extreme *df* values in 100-SNP windows for each of three tested quartets. Each quartet
(P1,P2;P3,O) tests for signatures of introgression from P3 into P2 (positive outliers) or P3 into
P1 (negative outliers). The top 100 windows with the largest absolute value of *df* are plotted,
with positive *df* values in red and negative in black. From top to bottom, positive outliers show
a history of introgression from *M. fremontii* into Sespe Creek, from *M. nanus* into *M.*
constrictus, and from Sespe Creek into *M. johnstonii*. Total tested windows for each quartet:
9594, 10429, and 14596, respectively.

Figure 3. Postmating prezygotic isolation between at least one species pair. Crossing success

(probability of producing at least one seed from a cross) for intra- and interspecific cross types.

Shown are least-square means and asymptotic confidence intervals from a Firth binomial

model. Letters indicate significance in post-hoc Tukey tests; cross types sharing a letter are not

significantly different. One interspecific cross type, FxB, was significantly reduced compared to

both intraspecific parental crosses, indicating an asymmetric barrier to fruit set. Two other

crosses, FxS and SxF, had low fruit set possibly indicating a reproductive barrier, but were not

significant in the model due to low sample sizes; e.g., 0 out of 4 SxF crosses resulted in seeds. J

= *M. johnstonii*, B = *M. brevipes,* F = *M. fremontii*, S = Sespe creek population.

Figure 4. Strong hybrid seed inviability between multiple species pairs. (A) Representative

seed images from intra- and interspecific laboratory crosses between four species. All images

are adjusted to the same scale. For the SxF cross, marked with an asterisk, the only 'seeds'

produced were not distinguishable from unfertilized ovules and were not counted as seeds for

crossing success or viability scoring, but it is possible they represent early seed abortion. (B)
Proportion of viable seeds produced by intra- and interspecific laboratory crosses. Shown are
least-square means and asymptotic confidence intervals from a Firth binomial model, with
letters indicating significance in post-hoc Tukey tests. Intraspecific, BxF, and FxB crosses are
mostly viable, but all other interspecific cross types have almost complete inviability. (C) Seed
lengths for intraspecific crosses. Violin plots show distribution of data for individual seeds, with
x's marking the means of individual fruits. Letters indicate significance from post-hoc Tukey
tests of an LMM.
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Figure 5. Strong hybrid male sterility in hybrids between *M. brevipes* and *M. fremontii*. (A)
Pollen number (counts per mm^2 on a hemocytometer) and (B) pollen viability (proportion of
pollen grains scored as viable in aniline blue stain). Letters indicate significance in post-hoc
Tukey tests from a poisson (abundance) or binomial (viability) GLMM with population as a
random variable. Each point represents the average across 1-3 flowers from a single individual.
For each panel, groups sharing a letter are not significantly different. (C) Seed production from
hybrid vs. parental fruits as a test of hybrid female sterility, including only fruits that produced
at least one seed. Letters indicate significance in post-hoc Tukey tests from a linear model.
B=*M. brevipes*, F=*M. fremontii*, H=*M. brevipes x M. fremontii* F1 hybrid.
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683 **Table 1. ABBA-BABA test results from downsampled SNP dataset**.
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P1	P2	P3	D	Z-score	Significance	*f4*-ratio	BBAA	ABBA	BABA
J	B	F	0.017	2.8	n.s.	0.009	97294	66664	64434
B	**J**	S	0.045	8.0	***	0.013	155429	53359	48765
J	F	S	0.007	1.4	n.s.	0.002	126129	59205	58393
B	**F**	S	0.047	9.4	***	0.015	129882	60335	54948
B	**J**	C	0.035	6.9	***	0.008	159203	46322	43188

F	J	C	0.005	0.9	n.s.	0.001	131898	51052	50586
B	**F**	**C**	0.027	5.7	***	0.007	135187	51425	48736
C	**S**	**J**	0.142	27.5	***	0.049	103893	69306	52109
C	**S**	**F**	0.149	27.2	***	0.059	103887	70221	52046
C	**S**	**B**	0.135	24.9	***	0.048	106972	68191	52012
B	**J**	**N**	0.031	7.6	***	0.006	215279	41581	39069
F	**J**	**N**	0.030	8.1	***	0.007	185137	46328	43605
F	B	N	0.003	0.8	n.s.	0.001	188742	44743	44481
J	**S**	**N**	0.102	24.3	***	0.028	124410	63335	51623
B	**S**	**N**	0.121	27.3	***	0.034	122382	65553	51390
F	**S**	**N**	0.124	31.0	***	0.034	126189	65090	50688
J	**C**	**N**	0.160	30.7	***	0.049	98813	68692	49743
B	**C**	**N**	0.176	31.9	***	0.055	97995	70669	49509
F	**C**	**N**	0.178	33.7	***	0.055	99391	70192	48945
S	**C**	**N**	0.087	16.9	***	0.024	136174	55129	46312

***$p_{corr}<0.001$. n.s.=not significant

J = *M. johnstonii*, B = *M. brevipes,* F = *M. fremontii*, S = Sespe creek population,
C = *M. constrictus*, N = *M. nanus*

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687 **Table 2. Summary of Postmating Reproductive Isolation (RI).**
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Pair a, b	Crossing success RI		Seed viability RI		F1 viability RI		**Total measured RI**	
	a>b	b>a	a>b	b>a	a>b	b>a	a>b	b>a
J, B	0.30	0.10	**0.99**	**1.00**	--	--	**0.99**	**1.00**
J, F	-0.13	-0.05	**0.97**	**1.00**	--	--	**0.97**	**1.00**
B, F	**0.91**	0.13	-0.03	0.09	--	0.57	**0.91**	0.66
J, S	0.35	-0.07	**1.00**	**0.97**	--	--	**1.00**	0.96
B, S	0.05	0.16	**1.00**	**0.99**	--	--	**1.00**	0.99
F, S	1.00	0.68	--	**1.00**	--	--	1.00	**1.00**

a>b indicates reproductive isolation preventing gene flow from species a into species b, calculated by comparing the fitness of b x a crosses relative to b x b crosses, with b>a indicating the reciprocal direction using the fitness of a x b crosses relative to a x a crosses, following (Sobel & Chen, 2014). **Bolded** values include contributions from barriers with significant model results.

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690 **Supplementary Figures and Tables**
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Neighbor-joining tree

Maximum-likelihood tree

ASTRAL tree with
quartet scores

ASTRAL tree with
posterior probabilities

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Figure S1. Comparison of phylogenetic methods. (A) Neighbor-joining tree produced from
'complete' SNP dataset, with heterozygous sites randomly assigned to one allele. (B) Maximum-
likelihood tree produced using RAxML from the 'complete' SNP dataset using the GTR+Gamma
model, with heterozygous sites randomly assigned to one allele. (C) ASTRAL tree produced from
17,524 gene trees, each created using RAxML with the GTR+Gamma model using SNPs from the
'genic' SNP dataset within a given gene's coordinates, with heterozygous sites randomly

assigned to one allele. Each node is labelled with the quartet support scores for the consensus,
1st alternative, and 2nd alternative topologies. (D) The same ASTRAL consensus tree shown in (C)
but with posterior probabilities for each node.
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704   **Figure S2. *F_branch* results 'complete' SNP dataset.** Results are qualitatively consistent with the
705   'downsampled' dataset (Fig 2) but estimated *F_branch* values tend to be higher for the full dataset.
706   J = *M. johnstonii*, B = *M. brevipes,* F = *M. fremontii*, S = Sespe creek population, C = *M.*
707   *constrictus*, N = *M. nanus.*
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Consensus topology	Alternate topology 1	Alternate topology 2	Binomial Test p_{corr}
C S F O 7207 (41.1%)	F S C O 7330 (41.8%)	F C S O 2987 (17.0%)	<0.001
C S J O 7,253 (41.4%)	J S C O 7,299 (41.6%)	J C S O 2,972 (17.0%)	<0.001
C S B O 7,183 (41.4%)	B S C O 7,287 (41.6%)	B C S O 3,054 (17.0%)	<0.001
F S N O 12,874 (73.5%)	N S F O 2,667 (15.2%)	N F S O 1,983 (11.3%)	<0.001
J S N O 12,869 (73.4%)	N S J O 2,613 (14.9%)	N J S O 2,042 (11.7%)	<0.001
B S N O 12,828 (73.2%)	N S B O 2,638 (15.1%)	N B S O 2,059 (11.7%)	<0.001
C S N O 12,312 (70.3%)	N S C O 2,773 (15.8%)	N C S O 2,439 (13.9%)	<0.001
F C N O 11,114 (63.4%)	N C F O 3,350 (19.1%)	N F C O 3,061 (17.5%)	0.006
B F S O 12,328 (70.3%)	S F B O 2,744 (15.7%)	S B F O 2,452 (14.0%)	0.001
J B F O 8,528 (48.7%)	F B J O 4,673 (26.7%)	F J B O 4,323 (24.7%)	0.004

709
Figure S3. TWISST gene tree discordance summaries. Twenty trios were tested, using *M.*
aurantiacus as the outgroup in all tests. Shown are the ten trios with significant

overrepresentation of one alternate topology over another (binomial test, expected ratio 1:1,

Bonferroni-corrected p_{corr}<0.05). For each trio, the number of genes support each topology are

given, along with the percentage of total trees. A total of 17,524 genes were used for all trios. J

= *M. johnstonii*, B = *M. brevipes,* F = *M. fremontii*, S = Sespe creek population, C = *M. constrictus*,

N = *M. nanus*, O = *M. aurantiacus* complex*.*

Figure S4. TreeMix network analysis results for four migration edges. The edge (C to N) was

selected in the network with a single edge, which was the best model according to OptM; other

edges improved the log-likelihood of the model by progressively decreasing amounts. Migration

weights for the four-edge model are provided next to each edge.

Figure S5. Summary of best-supported introgression events from multiple methods. Three

introgression events were supported by f_{branch} , TWISST, and TreeMix results. The exact identity

and direction of individual introgression events may be different due to shared ancestry and

incomplete sampling; for example, signatures of introgression from all of *M. fremontii, M.*

johnstonii, and M. brevipes into Sespe Creek may be caused by a single event in a common

ancestor, an unsampled relative, or just one of the sampled species.

732
733 **Figure S6. Seed counts do not indicate hybrid deficiency.** Seed counts per fruit for fruits
734 producing at least one seed. *M. brevipes* produces more seeds per fruit than the other species,
735 but interspecific crosses do not show a reduction in seed count relative to intraspecific crosses.
736 Letters indicate significance in post-hoc Tukey tests from a linear model; cross types sharing a
737 letter are not significantly different.
738

739
Figure S7. Crossing success in BxF hybrids is additive on maternal and paternal sides. Crossing
success (probability of at least one seed produced from a cross) from crosses involving *M.*
brevipes x *M. fremontii* F1 hybrids and their parental species. Shown are least-square means
and asymptotic confidence intervals from a binomial GLMM. Letters indicate significance in
post-hoc Tukey tests; cross types sharing a letter are not significantly different. HxB crosses
have intermediate crossing success compared to BxB and FxB crosses (gold bars), indicating an
additive effect of maternal species. Similarly, FxH crosses have intermediate crossing success
compared to FxB and FxF crosses (right three bars), indicating an additive effect of paternal
species. HxH have intermediate success compared to BxH and FxH (gray bars), as well as
compared to HxB and HxF (middle three bars), further supporting additive patterns. B = *M.*
brevipes, F = *M. fremontii*, H = F1 hybrids between *M. brevipes* and *M. fremontii*.
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Figure S8. Seed measurements for all intra- and interspecific cross types. (A) Seed length and
(B) length/width ratios. Violin plots show distribution of individual seeds. Letters indicate
significance from post-hoc Tukey tests after running six independent species-pair models. One
species pair had a significant reciprocal difference in hybrid seed size, while three pairs had a
significant reciprocal difference in seed length/width ratio; length/width ratio was elevated
compared to both parents for six cross types.
759
760 **Table S1. Population location information and number of samples used per population.**
761

Population	Species	Latitude	Longitude	Samples sequenced	Seed families	Samples used in crosses†	
						1st gen	2nd gen
J31	*M. johnstonii*	34.401950	-117.81580	5	4	9	7
B07	*M. brevipes*	34.358990	-118.39803	3	5	14	1
B11	*M. brevipes*	33.656155	-117.45298	6	5	13	7
B12	*M. brevipes*	32.889920	-116.57440	4	6	23	2
B19	*M. brevipes*	33.333300	-116.94200	4	6	33	20
F06	*M. fremontii*	34.693000	-119.32900	2	4	9	--
F21	*M. fremontii*	34.460560	-117.67316	3	4	11	--
F22	*M. fremontii*	34.376390	-117.59682	2	3	6	--
S25	'Sespe Creek'	34.565773	-119.26081	2	1	3	3
N01	*M. nanus*	42.638395	-118.57760	2	--	--	--
C01	*M. constrictus*	34.798960	-119.00466	1	--	--	--

764 **Table S2. Sequencing and coverage information.**

Sample info			Read pairs			Coverage per base	
Sample†	Pop	Batch	Raw	Aligned	%	All sites	% with >=4X coverage
BREV07_3_1	B07	1	47,522,461	13,277,523	27.9%	12.47	39.03%
BREV07_5_1	B07	1	49,800,600	15,174,402	30.5%	14.04	39.09%
BREV12_3_1	B12	1	49,704,577	15,840,128	31.9%	15.68	37.55%
BREV12_5_1	B12	1	49,785,466	14,465,999	29.1%	13.52	39.79%
BREV12_6_1	B19	1	49,555,797	15,518,193	31.3%	14.54	39.49%
BREV19_1_1	B19	1	49,652,489	16,050,274	32.3%	15.62	37.83%
FREM22_6_1	F22	1	49,332,251	8,451,160	17.1%	7.30	33.81%
JOHN31_5_1	J31	1	49,714,033	13,727,590	27.6%	12.82	37.51%
BREV07_6_1	B07	2	25,682,314	5,672,576	22.1%	5.67	32.30%
BREV11_5_3	B11	2	28,911,480	5,804,484	20.1%	5.35	31.82%
BREV12_4_1	B12	2	28,052,293	6,443,496	23.0%	6.28	33.38%
BREV19_2_1	B19	2	29,339,237	7,002,395	23.9%	6.87	33.83%
BREV19_3_1	B19	2	36,190,791	3,248,019	9.0%	3.10	21.10%
BREV19_4_1	B19	2	14,858,533	2,429,889	16.4%	2.19	16.18%
FREM06_3_2	F06	2	30,075,452	5,408,560	18.0%	4.51	26.45%
FREM06_4_3	F06	2	29,784,495	6,422,159	21.6%	5.68	29.74%
FREM21_2_1	F21	2	33,601,408	5,451,858	16.2%	4.60	27.10%
FREM22_5_1	F22	2	24,172,306	2,679,095	11.1%	2.35	19.37%
JOHN31_1_1	J31	2	47,347,007	6,441,313	13.6%	6.20	31.22%
JOHN31_2_1	J31	2	64,312,829	10,195,170	15.9%	9.88	36.43%
JOHN31_4_1	J31	2	23,147,570	3,938,270	17.0%	3.82	24.04%
JOHN31_5_2	J31	2	32,146,268	5,382,624	16.7%	4.86	25.48%
BREV11_1_11	B11	3	12,194,294	3,311,065	27.2%	3.16	18.64%
BREV11_3_4	B11	3	16,149,111	4,165,590	25.8%	3.88	24.46%
BREV11_5_1	B11	3	19,609,920	5,018,757	25.6%	4.72	26.70%
BREV11_6_11	B11	3	17,240,947	4,349,611	25.2%	4.02	26.63%
FREM21_3_11	F21	3	31,307,714	5,636,788	18.0%	4.86	30.25%
FREM21_4_11	F21	3	23,442,361	4,186,587	17.9%	3.67	24.90%
SESP25_1_1	S25	3	37,881,366	8,233,912	21.7%	7.70	34.70%
SESP25_1_2	S25	3	22,013,442	5,056,136	23.0%	4.58	29.93%
NANU01_1	N01	3	15,545,612	2,612,978	16.8%	2.26	14.32%
NANU01_2	N01	3	14,729,812	2,603,428	17.7%	2.38	17.61%

CONS01_1_1	C01		4	16,909,453	4,072,713	24.1%	4.10	16.6%
AURA_ari	AURA	SRX6077155	15,314,328	5,630,656	36.8%	7.14	64.06%
AURA_aur	AURA	SRX6077153	18,453,062	7,584,963	41.1%	10.02	75.92%
AURA_gra	AURA	SRX6077242	12,454,896	6,061,103	48.7%	7.84	66.98%
AURA_pun	AURA	SRX6077404	14,056,153	5,076,335	36.1%	6.53	60.90%
CLEV_cle	AURA	SRX6077240	12,810,520	4,567,552	35.7%	5.58	53.01%

† 1st number indicates population, 2nd number indicates maternal family, 3rd number refers to the individual plant. *M. nanus* samples (NANU01_1 and NANU01_2) are from distinct wild plants.

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767
768 **Table S3. Pedigree information for *M. brevipes* and *M. fremontii* F1 families.**
769

				Number of individuals used		
Line name	Line type	Maternal	Paternal	Pollen viability	Maternal crosses	Paternal crosses
BF1	BxF F1 hybrid	B19_3_2	F6_4_3	0	1	1
BF2	BxF F1 hybrid	B12_5_2	F21_3_1	2	1	1
BF3	BxF F1 hybrid	B19_1_1	F6_3_1	7	7	6
BF5	BxF F1 hybrid	B19_4_14	F21_4_11	4	2	0

770
771
772 **Table S4. Nucleotide diversity and divergence values at synonymous sites.** Values were
773 calculated using pixy for all individual pairwise comparisons, then averaged across comparisons
774 within a group.
775

Species	Heterozygosity	Diversity
AUR	0.0025	0.0163
B	0.0198	0.0229
C	0.0135	--
F	0.0209	0.0316
J	0.0170	0.0174
N	0.0154	0.0324
S	0.0180	0.0178

Species 1	Species 2	Divergence
AUR	C	0.0940
AUR	N	0.0945
AUR	S	0.0991
AUR	B	0.1000
AUR	J	0.1005
AUR	F	0.1027
B	J	0.0525
B	F	0.0599

B	S	0.0697
B	C	0.0707
B	N	0.0830
C	S	0.0605
C	J	0.0702
C	F	0.0730
C	N	0.0753
F	J	0.0598
F	S	0.0715
F	N	0.0860
J	S	0.0692
J	N	0.0828
N	S	0.0791

778 **Table S5. ABBA-BABA test results for the 'complete' SNP dataset.**

P1	P2	P3	D	Z-score	Significance	*f4*-ratio	BBAA	ABBA	BABA
B	J	F	0.025	4.1	***	0.017	140199	101734	96787
B	J	S	0.077	14.5	***	0.023	225194	81493	69780
J	F	S	0.012	2.5	n.s.	0.004	193112	89515	87397
B	F	S	0.080	16.0	***	0.027	192818	93743	79920
B	J	C	0.060	12.4	***	0.015	217482	60440	53601
J	F	C	0.001	0.3	n.s.	0.000	190562	65810	65623
B	F	C	0.054	11.7	***	0.016	189827	68457	61448
C	S	J	0.193	38.6	***	0.072	128359	98268	66479
C	S	F	0.199	39.8	***	0.093	129273	101021	67419
C	S	B	0.186	35.9	***	0.077	133849	94966	65145
B	J	N	0.058	13.7	***	0.011	310955	59579	53098
F	J	N	0.027	8.0	***	0.006	281234	65746	62337
B	F	N	0.024	7.2	***	0.005	280189	64934	61873
J	S	N	0.091	24.8	***	0.027	184994	88233	73578
B	S	N	0.127	28.9	***	0.037	179236	92602	71726
F	S	N	0.110	28.9	***	0.032	190288	90971	73014
J	C	N	0.099	23.1	***	0.032	126808	82206	67332
B	C	N	0.131	25.7	***	0.042	124234	85599	65732
F	C	N	0.114	23.8	***	0.037	129720	84553	67229
S	C	N	0.036	7.9	***	0.010	166409	65159	60632

***p$_{corr}$<0.001, n.s.=not significant

781 **Table S6. Crossing success and seed viability for each cross type.**

Maternal species	Paternal species	Cross type	Crossing success (total crosses)	Seed viability (total seeds)
M. johnstonii	*M. johnstonii*	JxJ	0.538 (39)	0.745 (306)
M. johnstonii	*M. brevipes*	JxB	0.440 (25)	**0.000 (98)**
M. johnstonii	*M. fremontii*	JxF	0.600 (10)	**0.000 (78)**
M. johnstonii	Sespe Creek	JxS	0.600 (5)	**0.015 (66)**
M. brevipes	*M. johnstonii*	BxJ	0.484 (31)	**0.006 (630)**
M. brevipes	*M. brevipes*	BxB	0.902 (51)	0.981 (7292)
M. brevipes	*M. fremontii*	BxF	0.694 (36)	0.821 (2226)
M. brevipes	Sespe Creek	BxS	0.500 (6)	**0.018 (217)**
M. fremontii	*M. johnstonii*	FxJ	0.500 (20)	**0.012 (246)**
M. fremontii	*M. brevipes*	FxB	**0.017 (58)**	0.952 (21)
M. fremontii	*M. fremontii*	FxF	0.382 (55)	0.902 (911)
M. fremontii	Sespe Creek	FxS	0.091 (11)	**0.000 (8)**
Sespe Creek	*M. johnstonii*	SxJ	0.125 (8)	**0.000 (4)**
Sespe Creek	*M. brevipes*	SxB	0.333 (6)	**0.000 (38)**
Sespe Creek	*M. fremontii*	SxF	0.000 (4)	n/a (0)
Sespe Creek	Sespe Creek	SxS	0.409 (22)	0.909 (88)

Bolded values are significant in Tukey tests compared to both parental cross types.

783 **Table S7. Average seed measurements and sample sizes by cross type.**

Maternal species	Paternal species	Cross type	Seeds measured (number of fruits)	Average seed length (mm)	Average seed length/width ratio
M. johnstonii	*M. johnstonii*	JxJ	67 (7)	0.858	2.070
M. johnstonii	*M. brevipes*	JxB	50 (7)	0.865	4.729
M. johnstonii	*M. fremontii*	JxF	26 (3)	0.687	4.580
M. johnstonii	Sespe Creek	JxS	12 (1)	0.726	3.038
M. brevipes	*M. johnstonii*	BxJ	66 (5)	0.447	2.060
M. brevipes	*M. brevipes*	BxB	60 (4)	0.597	1.813
M. brevipes	*M. fremontii*	BxF	45 (3)	0.470	1.677
M. brevipes	Sespe Creek	BxS	56 (2)	0.523	2.155
M. fremontii	*M. johnstonii*	FxJ	9 (2)	0.579	2.901
M. fremontii	*M. brevipes*	FxB	15 (1)	0.584	1.989
M. fremontii	*M. fremontii*	FxF	27 (3)	0.641	2.149
M. fremontii	Sespe Creek	FxS	8 (1)	0.377	3.134

Sespe Creek	*M. johnstonii*	SxJ	22 (1)	0.415	3.274
Sespe Creek	*M. brevipes*	SxB	38 (2)	0.409	3.384
Sespe Creek	*M. fremontii*	SxF	15 (1)†	0.224†	2.965†
Sespe Creek	Sespe Creek	SxS	61 (6)	0.757	1.757

Bolded values are significant in Tukey tests compared to both parental cross types.

†Measured SxF 'seeds' were indistinguishable from unfertilized ovules.

785 **Table S8. Pollen viability and counts with sample sizes.**

Maternal species	Paternal species	Cross type	Average pollen viability (number of individuals) †	Pollen per unit area (number of individuals)
M. brevipes	*M. brevipes*	BxB	0.839 (13)	55.6 (13)
M. brevipes	*M. fremontii*	BxF	**0.235 (12)**	16.6 (13)
M. fremontii	*M. fremontii*	FxF	0.922 (8)	5.6 (10)

†excluding flowers with <10 counted pollen grains

787 **Table S9. Statistical model structures and AIC values compared to null model equivalents.**

Trait of interest	Model structure	Model type	AIC	AIC of null model †
Crossing success	Fruit_produced ~ Cross_type	BRGLM (Firth binomial)	**467.4**	576.2
Crossing success of BxF hybrids	Fruit_produced ~ Cross_type + (1 | Maternal_family)	GLMER (binomial)	**253.3**	291.7
Seed viability	cbind(viable_seeds,inviable_seeds) ~ Cross_type	BRGLM (Firth binomial)	**1566.2**	10533.6
Seed length (pure species only)	Length ~ Cross_type + (1 | Fruit)	LMER	**-600.8**	-598.5
Seed length (all cross types)	Length ~ Cross_type + (1 | Fruit)	LMER	-1131.6	-1141.3
Seed length/width ratio	Length/width ~ Cross_type + (1 | Fruit)	LMER	**1041.0**	1122.1
Pollen counts	round(Pollen_per_square) ~ Cross_type + (1 | Population)	GLMER (binomial)	**435.2**	438.2
Pollen viability	cbind(n_viable, n_inviable) ~ Cross_type + (1 | Population)	GLMER (binomial)	**491.0**	501.2
Female fertility	Seed_count ~ Cross_type	LM	**900.8**	913.5

†null model is the equivalent model excluding Cross_type as a model term.

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