Parallel patterns of development between independent cases of hybrid seed

inviability in *Mimulus*

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Summary

Rationale: The evolutionary drivers of many reproductive barriers are unknown. Hybrid

seed inviability (HSI) is a common barrier in angiosperms. We test the idea that conflict

between maternal and paternal interests in resource allocation to developing offspring

(i.e. parental conflict) drives HSI in two independent incidences of HSI.

Methods: We quantified HSI between *M. guttatus* and two clades of *M. decorus* with

oppositely asymmetric HSI. In the northern, weaker-conflict clade, seeds are inviabile

when *M. decorus* is the mother, while in the southern, stronger-conflict clade, inviability

occurs when *M. decorus* is the father. We quantified whole-seed development for hybrids

and parents to assess whether reciprocal F1 seeds show parent-of-origin dependent

growth phenotypes, as predicted by conflict.

Key Results: Crosses between *M. guttatus* and both clades of *M. decorus* show parent-of-

origin effects on reciprocal F1 seed development. Inviable hybrid seeds exhibit paternal-

excess phenotypes, wherein endosperm is large and chaotic. In contrast, viable hybrid

seeds show maternal-excess phenotypes, wherein endosperm development is precocious.

Main Conclusions: We find strong parent-of-origin effects on development in reciprocal

F1s that are repeated across independent incidences of HSI in *Mimulus.* These patterns

suggest that parental conflict may play a strong role in shaping the evolution of HSI.

Introduction

The repeatability of speciation is a contentious topic in evolutionary biology. Much pre-zygotic reproductive isolation can be attributed to adaptations to the abiotic or biotic environment (Coyne & Orr 2004), and the repeatability of extrinsic reproductive isolation may be directly related to the repeatability of adaptation (i.e. Rundle *et al.* 2000; Rolán-Alvarez *et al.* 2004; Stankowski 2013; Soria-Carrasco *et al.* 2014; Stuart *et al.* 2017). Yet, intrinsic post-zygotic reproductive isolation also often manifests as canonical hybrid phenotypes (i.e. abdominal ablation in hybrid *Drosophila* species pairs- Gavin-Smyth & Matute 2013; CMS hybrid sterility phenotypes in plants- reviewed in Hanson & Bentolila 2004; Chase 2007; Rieseberg & Blackman 2010; hybrid necrosis in multiple plant and fungi species pairs- reviewed in Bomblies & Weigel 2007), and much less is known about the evolutionary mechanisms that cause this repeatability at the phenotypic level. Moreover, in many systems it is unclear whether these common and repeated incompatibility phenotypes are developmentally similar, and whether this can inform our understanding of the drivers of hybrid incompatibilities. A classic hybrid incompatibility phenotype in plants is that of hybrid seed inviability (HSI).

Proper seed development is achieved through the effective coordination of three tissues with differing genetic compositions: the maternally derived seed coat, the developing embryo (1m:1p genetic composition), and a nutritive tissue that sustains the embryo until germination- the endosperm. In diploid species, seed development begins with a double fertilization event; one in which the ovule is fertilized and the developing embryo is formed, while the other involves the fertilization of a diploid central cell that gives rise to a triploid endosperm tissue. The endosperm is thus comprised of 2m:1p genetic composition. This ratio is essential for appropriate seed development, because many genes exhibit parent-of-origin specific expression in the endosperm (i.e. imprinting; Köhler & Weinhofer-Molisch 2010). In *Arabidopsis*, this is caused primarily by DNA methylation and histone methylation (Köhler *et al.* 2012), the later of which are controlled by the Fertilization Independent Seed- Polycomb Group Complex (FIS-PcG complex; Köhler *et al.* 2003; Köhler *et al.* 2005; Gehring *et al.* 2006; Makarevich *et al.*

2006; Köhler & Makarevic 2006; Gehring *et al.* 2009; Hsieh *et al.* 2009; Wolff *et al.*

2011; Waters *et al.* 2011; Derkacheva *et al.* 2016). Indeed, imprinting in plants is thought

to have evolved as a mechanism to decrease conflict over paternal and maternal interests

in nutritive tissue growth (i.e. parental conflict; Trivers 1974; Haig & Westoby 1989;

Köhler *et al.* 2010).

Parental conflict is the hypothesis that maternal and paternal interests in resources

allocation to offspring differ in non-monogamous systems (Trivers 1974; Haig &

Westoby 1989). As maternity is guaranteed, selection should favor equal distribution of

resources from mothers to offspring, but when paternity is variable, selection should

favor the evolution of paternally derived alleles which increase resource expenditure on

developing offspring (Trivers 1974; Haig & Westoby 1989). If populations have evolved

differentially in this co-evolutionary arms race, then mismatches between resource-

restrictive maternal alleles and resource-acquiring paternal alleles in hybrids can lead to

developmental defects, and ultimately, death. One prediction of parental conflict is that

reciprocal F1s should show significantly different developmental trajectories (Willi 2013;

Raunsgard *et al.* 2018). When strong-conflict populations are crossed to weaker conflict

populations as the maternal donor, they should produce growth-restrictive phenotypes, as

strong resource-repressing alleles outweigh the relatively weaker resource-acquiring

paternal alleles. In contrast, when strong conflict populations are crossed to weaker

conflict populations as the paternal contributor, seed should exhibit growth-excessive

phenotypes, as strong, resource-acquiring paternal alleles outweigh weaker maternal

resource-restrictive alleles (Raunsgard *et al.* 2018).

In *Arabidopsis* hybrid seed inviability in interploidy crosses, maternal-restrictive

and paternal-excess phenotypes are observed (Scott *et al.* 1998). Inviability in this case

arises because of de-repression of normally imprinted genes, particularly that of *ADM,*

SUVH7, PEG2, and *PEG9*, which are all associated with carbohydrate sequestration and

cellularization in normally developing seeds (Kradofler *et al.* 2013; Wolff *et al.* 2015).

Overexpression of these alleles causes excessive growth and improper cellularization of

the endosperm associated with paternal excess, while maternal excess is often associated

with precocious endosperm development (Scott *et al.* 1998; reviewed in Lafon-Placette &

Köhler 2016). Defects in endosperm growth are the cause of hybrid seed inviability; both

embryo rescues and dosage rescue experiments strongly suggest that in these interploidy

crosses, hybrid seed inviability is due specifically to inappropriate development and

growth of the endosperm, rather than incompatibilities arising in the embryo itself

(Bushell *et al.* 2003; Josefsson *et al.* 2006; Dilkes *et al.* 2008; Erilova *et al.* 2009;

Kradolfer *et al.* 2013).

While hybrid seed inviability is quite common in diploid species pairs (Tiffin *et*

al. 2001), far fewer studies have determined the mechanistic underpinnings of hybrid

seed inviability among diploids. In plants with nuclear endosperm development, such as

Arabidopsis and *Capsella,* hybrid seed inviability mimic interploidy crosses with a

delayed or premature endosperm cellularization, depending on the maternal and paternal

donor in the cross, and endosperm defects are intrinsically linked with hybrid seed

inviability (Joseffson *et al.* 2006; Burkart-Waco *et al.* 2012; Rebernig *et al.* 2015; Lafon-

Placette *et al.* 2017l Lafon-Placette *et al.* 2018). In plants with cellular endosperm

development (i.e. *Solanum* and *Mimulus*), hybrid seed inviability is much less explored,

although there is some evidence to suggest that inappropriate replication of endosperm is

at least partially causative of hybrid seed inviability in both *M. nudatus* and *M. guttatus*

inviable hybrid seeds (Oneal *et al.* 2016), and in wild tomato varieties (Lafon-Placette *et*

al. 2016; Roth *et al.* 2017).

We previously reported a wide diversity of hybrid seed barriers between *M.*

guttatus and its morphological variant, *M. decorus* which confer relatively strong

reproductive isolation (Coughlan *et al.* 2018). We found that *M. decorus* is in fact

multiple biological species; a diploid northern clade that exhibits strong asymmetric

hybrid seed inviability when it is the maternal donor in crosses to *M. guttatus*; a diploid

southern clade that exhibits strong asymmetric hybrid seed inviability when it is the

paternal donor in crosses to *M. guttatus;* and at least one tetraploid taxon that exhibits

variable levels of hybrid seed inviability (Coughlan *et al.* 2018). Because the direction of

inviability differs between *M. guttatus* and each clade of diploid *M. decorus*, there must

be independent evolution of maternal and paternal alleles causing inviability between

northern and southern *M. decorus,* even though they are each other's closest relative

(Coughlan *et al.* 2018). Hybrid seed inviability between *M. guttatus* and each clade of *M.*

decorus thus represents two independent incidences of hybrid seed inviability. Here, we

delve into the developmental basis of hybrid seed inviability using the *Mimulus guttatus*

species complex as a model. We test whether hybrid seed inviability between different

diploid clades of *M. decorus* and *M. guttatus* are associated with similar developmental

defects, whether these defects are endosperm related, and whether they are consistent

with paternal excess/maternal restriction, as hypothesized by parental conflict. In

addition, we assess the level of developmental parallelism of inviable and viable hybrid

seeds between these two independent incidences of hybrid seed inviability.

Methods

Growth conditions and plant crossing

Based on previous results, *Mimulus decorus* exhibits two distinct crossing

patterns: the northern clade of *M. decorus* produces inviable seeds when they are the

maternal plant in crosses with *M. guttatus*, while for the southern clade produces inviable

seeds when they are the paternal plant in crosses with *M. guttatus*. To determine the

extent of developmental parallelism, we chose a representative diploid population from

each crossing type of *M. decorus* (northern clade: *IMP*; southern clade: *Odell Creek*) to

cross with an annual population of *M. guttatus*- Iron Mountain (*IM*). For each population,

we planted seed from 3-4 maternal families or inbred lines. For all plants, seeds were

sprinkled onto moist Fafard 4-P soil, left to stratify at 4°C for 1 week, then moved to the

Duke greenhouses (North Carolina, USA). Plants were transferred within the first 3 days

after germination to one plant per 2" pot, then were grown in long days (18h days, 21C

day/ 18C nights).

Crossing Assays

Plants were emasculated and crossed reciprocally, as well as self pollinated to
yield an average of 6 crosses for each pairwise combination of maternal families between
IM×Odell Creek, and IM×IMP (IM×Odell range: 2-13 replicate crosses, IM×IMP: 2-10
replicate crosses for a total of 298 crosses). Fruits were allowed to develop until ripe but
before dehiscence, then seeds for each cross were counted and categorized as inviable or
viable based on morphology for each fruit.

Microscopy and measuring growth

We sought to determine the extent of developmental parallelism of hybrid seeds
in two independent incidences of hybrid seed inviability. We crossed plants, as in above,
but collected fruits at 4,6,8,10 and 14 Days After Pollination (DAP). Fruits were
collected and immediately placed in FAA fixative (2 formaldehyde: 1 acetic acid: 10
ethanol). Plants were processed in a similar manner to White & Turner (2012). In brief,
after at least 24 hours in fixative, fruits were gradually dehydrated in a Tetrabutyl-
Alcohol dehydration series, then mounted in paraffin wax with ~5% gum elemi resin to
increase hardness. Paraffin mounted specimens were then sliced to 8 micron ribbons and
mounted onto slides. We performed a staining series using Safranin-O and Fast-Green,
which stain for nucleic acids and carbohydrates, respectively. Cover slips were then
adhered for permanent storage.
We visualized and photographed at least three developing seeds from a single
fruit for each cross type and time point combination (40 unique combinations, 120 seeds
measured). At least 25 endosperm cell widths were measured per seed using ImageJ
(Scheider *et al.* 2012).

Embryo Rescues

To assess whether hybrid seed inviability was due largely to inappropriate
development of the endosperm tissue, we also performed embryo rescue assays on both
IM×Odell seeds and IMP×IM seeds, which would normally be inviable if left to develop
fully in the seed pod. For this, we crossed IM reciprocally to both IMP and Odell creek,
as well as performed self fertilizations for IMP, Odell Creek, and IM. Fruits were left to
mature for 7 or 9 days. Based on our developmental time series, embryos appear to die
between 10-14 DAP for both sets of crosses. We plated whole developing seeds for each
cross type on a sucrose rich growth media (1/2 MS salts, 0.7% agar, 4% sucrose, adjusted
to pH 5.9) at 7 and 9 DAP. Plates were cold stratified for 2 days, then placed in the Duke
Greenhouses (18h days, 21C day/ 18C nights).

Statistical Analyses

Cross incompatibilities were determined with a linear mixed model using the
package *lme4* and a type III ANOVA using *car* (Bates *et al.* 2015; Fox & Weisberg
2011) in the statistical interface R. All analyses were completed separately for IM×Odell
and IM×IMP crosses. For both total seed number, and proportion viable seed, we treated
cross type as a fixed factor and replicate maternal and paternal lines as random effects
(i.e. *Proportion viable seed ~ Cross Type + (1|maternal replicate) + (1|paternal*
replicate) or *total seed count ~ Cross Type + (1|maternal replicate) + (1|paternal*
replicate)). Pairwise T-tests with Holm correction for multiple testing were performed to
determine which cross types varied significantly from one another. Differences in
developmental trajectories were also assessed using a linear mixed model, as above. In
this case, cross type, DAP, and their interaction were the fixed effects and the seed
replicate was treated as a random effect.

Results

Post-Mating Reproductive Isolation

212 IMP and Odell Creek show consistent patterns of strong, and asymmetric hybrid
seed inviability when crossed with individuals from Iron Mountain, but in opposing
directions (Figure 1; Odell Creek: $X^2 = 4598$, $df=3$, $p<0.0001$; IMP: $X^2 = 2969$, $df=3$,
$p<0.0001$). IMP produces entirely inviable seeds when the maternal donor in these
crosses, while Odell Creek produces entirely inviable seeds when the paternal donor (and
some inviable seeds when the maternal donor; Figure 1; Coughlan *et al.* 2018). Inviable
hybrid seeds appear larger, disc-like, and shriveled, while viable hybrid seeds appear
smaller overall (as in Coughlan *et al.* 2018). As these crosses differ in what direction of
the cross yields a viable vs inviable seed, there must be independent evolution of
maternal and paternal alleles causing HIS between these two clades of *M. decorus*, even
though they are each other's closest relative (Coughlan *et al.* 2018).

223 We next wanted to determine if there were any post-mating, pre-zygotic barriers
in these crosses. While there is some evidence of pollen-pistil incompatibilities between
annual *M. guttatus* and Odell Creek (Odell Creek: $X^2 = 49.33$, $df=3$, $p<0.0001$; Figure S1),
wherein IM lines set less seed when pollinated by Odell Creek than any other cross type.
We find no evidence of pollen-pistil interactions between IM and IMP, although we note
that IMP has substantially larger ovaries and produces more seeds, regardless of the
pollen donor ($X^2 = 23.7$, $df=3$, $p<0.0001$; Figure S1).

Figure 1: Crosses between *M. guttatus* and each clade of *M. decorus* shows oppositely asymmetric patterns of hybrid seed inviability. Proportion viable seed between three lines of *M. guttatus* (IM) and (A) four maternal families of northern *M. decorus* (IMP) and (B) three maternal families of southern *M. decorus* (Odell Creek). Maternal parent is listed first.

Developmental Trajectories

The three parental species have similar seed development in the context of their morphological attributes. In all three parents, endosperm is tightly packed around the embryo and continues to grow until around 8-10 DAP. At this point, the endosperm is depleted, presumably to feed the growing embryo. Embryo development among the three parents is also quite similar, with IM displaying a slightly accelerated growth, relative to either Odell or IMP (i.e. they reach a heart-shaped embryo around 10 DAP, while this is not achieved in Odell or IMP until around 14 DAP; Figure 2; Figure 3). By 14 DAP the embryo comprises most of the embryo sac, with a thin layer of endosperm remaining.

Hybrid seeds from both the IM×IMP and IM×Odell crosses show distinct developmental trajectories based on the maternal versus paternal donor of the cross, but both hybrid crosses display similar seed trajectories, depending on the fate of the seed (i.e. whether it will remain viable or not). In both sets of crosses, seeds that remain viable

(e.g. IM×IMP and Odell×IM) display a precocious development, with several small

endosperm cells that are quickly degraded by the embryo (Figure 2; Figure 3) . By 14

DAP, the only remaining endosperm is a thin layer which surrounds the embryo (Figure

2; Figure 3). The overall seed size is also much smaller than either parent or the

reciprocal hybrid (Coughlan *et al.* 2018). In contrast, the hybrid seeds which will

eventually become inviable (i.e. IMP×IM and IM×Odell) exhibit a chaotic endosperm

growth, producing fewer, but larger and more diffuse endosperm cells (Figure 2; Figure

3). Embryos in this direction of the cross remain small, relative to both parents and the

reciprocal hybrid (Figure 2; Figure 3). By 14 DAP, most embryos were entirely degraded.

The patterns of precocious endosperm development in viable hybrid seeds and chaotic

endosperm development in inviable hybrid seeds showcase substantial parent-of-origin

effects on endosperm development as a potential cause of embryo inviability. These

maternal-excess and paternal-excess phenotypes are also consistent with conflict between

maternal and paternal interests in resource allocation to endosperm as an evolutionary

explanation for hybrid seed inviability.

Figure 2: Reciprocal hybrids between *M. guttatus* and northern *M. decorus* show significant parent-of-origin effects on endosperm growth. Developing seeds between IM62 x IMP at 4, 6, 8, 10, and 14 Days After Pollination (DAP) are shown. Maternal parent is listed first.

Patterns of maternal-restriction and paternal-excess are recapitulated when looking

simply at endosperm cell width. In both crosses, the type of cross significantly affected

the endosperm cell width (Table 1; Figure 4, Figure S2). Reciprocal F1 hybrids display

the most extreme endosperm cell sizes, with inviable seeds exhibiting the largest

endosperm cell size, and viable seeds displaying the smallest endosperm cells. For both

IM×IMP and IM×Odell Creek crosses, the relationship between cell size and cross type

was dependent on DAP (although we note a significant interaction term, suggesting that

the rate of growth in endosperm cells through time depends on genotype. Table 1; Figure

S2).

Figure 3: Reciprocal hybrids between *M. guttatus* and southern *M. decorus* show significant parent-of-origin effects on endosperm growth. Developing seeds between IM62 x Odell Creek at 4, 6, 8, 10, and 14 Days After Pollination (DAP) are shown. Maternal parent is listed first.

While the two different sets of crosses display quite similar overall patterns of hybrid
seed development, there are some notable distinctions between hybrid seeds formed between
IM×IMP, and IM×Odell Creek. For example, in IMP×IM crosses, the embryo remains
comparatively small, and does not appear to grow past the 6 or 8 DAP. In contrast, seeds formed
from a IM×Odell cross often exhibit a developing embryo up until 10 DAP, suggesting that the
seed is aborted slightly later in this cross.

**Figure 4: Parent-of-origin effects on endosperm growth are recapitulated at the
cellular level. Cell width at 8 Days After Pollination (DAP) for each cross type (maternal
parent listed first), for both *M. guttatus* crossed to IMP (yellow) and Odell Creek (blue) are
shown. See Supplemental Figure 2 for all sampled time points.**

Overall, we see striking parallelism between two distinct seed incompatibilities with
reciprocal F1 seeds displaying either excessive and chaotic growth patterns or precocious and
stunted patterns, depending on whether the seeds are eventually aborted or not. Our findings
suggest that hybrid seed inviability in this group is strongly associated with endosperm
overgrowth phenotypes. We next sought to determine if hybrid seed inviability was primarily
due to abnormal endosperm growth, or whether incompatibilities manifesting in the embryo also
contribute.

Table 1: Mixed model for type III ANOVAs for seed cell size across developmental time for IMP and Odell Creek crossed reciprocally to IM62. Cross Type= both reciprocal F1 crosses and self-fertilizations from each species treated as a separate level; treated as a fixed effect), DAP= Days After Pollination (fixed effect). Seed replicate was treated as a random effect.

	IMP			Odell Creek		
	X^2	DF	p	X^2	DF	p
Intercept	295.04	1	<0.0001	123.74	1	<0.0001
Cross Type	119.848	3	<0.0001	14.92	3	0.0018
DAP	36.033	1	<0.0001	0.0029	1	0.96
Cross Type*DAP	42.583	3	<0.0001	32.95	3	<0.0001

Embryo Rescues

Embryo rescues were generally unsuccessful in these crosses. No seeds germinated when collected 7 DAP. Only a small fraction of IM62 and hybrids which were viable (i.e. OdellxIM and IMxIMP) germinated in the 9 DAP collections (i.e. 5-10%). Overall, this suggests that 7 DAP may be too premature for proper embryo development to occur outside of the maternal environment, while only rapidly developing seeds are able survive transplants at 9 DAP. Unfortunately, determining whether hybrid seed inviability is due solely to endosperm malformation is yet to be determined in this group.

Discussion

As previously reported, the northern and southern clades of *M. decorus* exhibit strong, and asymmetric reproductive isolation with *M. guttatus*, but in opposite directions of the cross. This observation is true for all maternal family/line combinations tested here (as well as multiple populations tested in Coughlan *et al.* 2018), suggesting that HSI is not geographically restricted, as other intrinsic post-zygotic barriers have been found to be (Sweigart *et al.* 2007; Case &

Willis 2008; Martin & Willis 2010; Sicard *et al.* 2015; Barnard-Kubow & Galloway 2017;

Zuellig & Sweigart 2018). Total reproductive isolation in these crosses was ~52% for both both

species pairs, and thus may represent a significant barrier to reproduction. Hybrid seed

inviability has been shown to be a formidable barrier to reproduction in other systems (i.e. Tiffin

et al. 2001; Lowry *et al.* 2008), but the developmental causes of this incompatibility have really

only been quantified for a small number of diploid species pairs. We aimed to determine the

developmental trajectories of inviable and viable hybrid seeds in two independent incidences of

hybrid seed inviability between close relatives in the *Mimulus guttatus* species complex.

We show that hybrid seed inviability is strongly associated with developmental defects in

endosperm deposition. In inviable directions of the cross, seeds show a paternal-excess

phenotype, where endosperm is chaotically distributed, and the cells are few and large. In the

viable directions of the cross, seeds show a maternal-restrictive phenotype, where endosperm

develops precociously, as witnessed by the general lack of endosperm remaining when seeds are

fully developed, as well as the generally smaller size of both the cells and final seeds (Coughlan

et al. 2018). Overall, these developmental patterns fit with a parental conflict model of hybrid

inviability, wherein paternal excess is more likely to lead to seed abortion. Unfortunately, given

the generally low success rate of the embryo rescues, it remains unclear whether hybrid seed

inviability is due strictly to malformation of the endosperm, or whether genetic incompatibilities

in the embryo also contribute.

Maternal-restriction/paternal excess endosperm phenotypes have been shown in hybrids

between wild species pairs of both *Arabidopsis* and *Capsella*, which have a nuclear-type

endosperm development (Rebernig *et al.* 2015; Lafon-Placette *et al.* 2017). In diploid

Arabidopsis and *Capsella* crosses, as well as interploidy crosses, endosperm over-proliferation is

accompanied by a failure of endosperm cells to cellularize (Scott *et al.* 1998; Bushell *et al.* 2003;

Rebernig *et al.* 2015; Lafon-Placette *et al.* 2017), and at least in *Capsella,* paternal excess is

associated with inviability, but maternal excess still produces viable seed (Rebernig *et al.* 2015).

Initial findings from species with cellular-type endosperm development (e.g. wild tomatoes and

other *Mimulus* species pairs) also show endosperm defects as a major cause of hybrid inviability

(Roth *et al.* 2017; Oneal *et al.* 2016). However, these defects to not represent defects in rates of

cellularization, but rather rates of proliferation, cell size and distribution, and optical density

(Oneal *et al.* 2016; Roth *et al.* 2017). Our results are consistent with findings from other *Mimulus*

and wild tomato studies, where inviable seeds display large-celled, chaotically distributed

endosperm cells, but there are fewer of them, suggesting that issues in the regular timing of

mitosis may be at play.

The developmental trajectories of viable vs non-viable hybrid seeds are strikingly similar

between Odell×IM, and IMP×IM crosses, despite the fact that inviability occurs in the opposite

cross direction. Because hybrid seed inviability in this group manifests in opposite directions of

the cross between *M. guttatus* and each of the diploid clades of *M. decorus*, there must be

independent evolution of alleles contributing to hybrid seed inviability between these clades of

M. decorus. This degree of developmental parallelism in independent incidences of hybrid seed

inviability suggests that similar evolutionary pressures may be causing hybrid seed inviability

within this complex. Given the maternal-restriction/paternal-excess phenotypes that we observe,

one potential hypothesis is that of parental conflict. Despite considerable developmental

parallelism, it remains to be seen how constrained the genetic targets of selection are between

these species pairs. In other post-zygotic reproductive barriers, canonical hybrid incompatibilities

often share similar genetic bases. For example, hybrid necrosis is often caused by interactions

involving R genes (reviewed in Bomblies & Weigel 2007), and CMS almost always involves

PPR genes (polcentric peptide repeat genes; reviewed in Rieseberg & Blackman 2010). Yet,

whether this remains true for hybrid seed inviability remains to be seen. Indeed, one may predict

that the genomic target size for influencing resource provisioning to seeds is presumably larger

than the number of genes responsible for auoto-immune function or managing organelle

expression, as is the case with hybrid necrosis and CMS, respectively. However, this prediction

remains to be tested. Indeed, a thorough examination of the molecular and developmental

genetics of hybrid seed inviability in this system is necessary to answer these questions, and can

inform our understanding of the proximate and ultimate causes of hybrid seed inviability.

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Data Availability

Data for the manuscript will be made publically available.

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529 **Supplemental Figures**

531 **Figure S1: Total number of seeds in crosses for (A) three lines from IM and four maternal**

532 **families of IMP selfed and crossed reciprocally and (B) three lines of IM and three**

533 **maternal families of Odell Creek (Od) selfed and crossed reciprocally.**

Figure S2: Cell lengths across all cross types for 5 developmental stages for both IMxIMP

(top) and IMxOdell (bottom) crosses. Panels from left to right are each DAP.