

1 **TITLE**

2 Cytoplasmic-nuclear incompatibility between wild-isolates of *Caenorhabditis nouraguensis*

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9 **Running title:** Speciation genetics in *C. nouraguensis*

10 **Keywords:** Dobzhansky-Muller incompatibility, speciation, cytoplasmic, mitochondria, *Caenorhabditis*

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ABSTRACT

How species arise is a fundamental question in biology. Species can be defined as populations of interbreeding individuals that are reproductively isolated from other such populations. Therefore, understanding how reproductive barriers evolve between populations is essential for understanding the process of speciation. Hybrid incompatibility (e.g. hybrid sterility and lethality) is a common and strong reproductive barrier in nature, but few studies have molecularly identified its genetic basis. Here we report a lethal incompatibility between two wild-isolates of the nematode *Caenorhabditis nouraguensis*. Hybrid inviability results from the incompatibility between a maternally inherited cytoplasmic factor from each strain and a recessive nuclear locus from the other. We have excluded the possibility that maternally inherited endosymbiotic bacteria cause the incompatibility by treating both strains with tetracycline and show that hybrid death is unaffected. Furthermore, cytoplasmic-nuclear incompatibility commonly occurs between other wild-isolates, indicating that this is a significant reproductive barrier within *C. nouraguensis*. We hypothesize that the maternally inherited cytoplasmic factor is the mitochondrial genome and that mitochondrial dysfunction underlies hybrid death. This system has the potential to shed light on the dynamics of divergent mitochondrial-nuclear coevolution and its role in promoting speciation.

INTRODUCTION

How species arise is a fundamental and still unanswered question in biology. Under the biological species concept, species consist of populations of interbreeding individuals that are reproductively isolated from other such populations (Mayr 1942). Thus, to understand speciation, we must learn how reproductive barriers evolve between populations. Post-zygotic reproductive barriers are commonly found in nature, and occur when hybrid progeny are relatively unfit in comparison to their parents and serve as inefficient bridges for gene flow between populations. Hybrids can be extrinsically unfit, in that they are maladapted to their environment (e.g. hybrids exhibit an intermediate phenotype which is unfit in parental environments) or intrinsically unfit, in that they are developmentally abnormal (e.g. hybrids are sterile or inviable) (Coyne and Orr 2004).

The Bateson-Dobzhansky-Muller (BDM) model hypothesizes that hybrids are intrinsically unfit due to incompatible gene combinations. In its simplest form, the model predicts that at least two genetic loci, each having evolved independently in one of two divergent lineages, have deleterious epistatic interactions in hybrids. This model has gained support by the molecular identification of genes required for hybrid dysfunction in several genera (Presgraves 2010). Identifying these genes and the natural forces that drive their evolution is one of the major objectives of speciation genetics. Darwin suggested that differential ecological adaptation by natural selection was the major driving force for speciation. Some of the molecularly identified “incompatibility genes” do indeed show signs of selection (Ting 1998; Presgraves *et al.* 2003; Barbash *et al.* 2004; Brideau *et al.* 2006; Oliver *et al.* 2009; Chae *et al.* 2014; Phadnis *et al.* 2015), but do not always have a clear role in promoting ecological adaptation (Tao *et al.* 2001; Ferree and Barbash 2009; Phadnis and Orr 2009; Seidel *et al.* 2011). However, there are currently only a handful of known incompatibility genes from a limited number of genera. Additional studies from a wider range of taxa are needed to gain a better understanding of the evolutionary forces that drive speciation.

Some studies on the genetic basis of hybrid incompatibility have focused on strong post-zygotic reproductive barriers between well-defined species. These studies reveal that many genetic

54 variants contribute to dysfunction of hybrids (Coyne and Orr 1998), but provide little insight into the
55 dynamics of the accumulation of such variants or their relative roles in initiating speciation. For
56 example, theoretical work indicates that the number of genetic incompatibilities increases greater
57 than linearly with the number of genetic differences between two lineages (Orr 1995). Therefore, a
58 small number of genetic incompatibilities may initially reduce gene flow and promote genetic
59 divergence between populations, while others evolve after strong reproductive barriers have already
60 been established. Given this, studies of incomplete post-zygotic barriers between young species or
61 divergent populations within species are essential to understand the evolutionary forces that may
62 initiate speciation.

63 Despite the paucity of molecularly identified incompatibility genes, the segregation of
64 deleterious phenotypes in a number of interspecific hybridizations indicates that incompatibilities
65 between cytoplasmic and nuclear genomes occur frequently (Ellison and Burton 2008; Ellison *et al.*
66 2008; Sambatti *et al.* 2008; Arnqvist *et al.* 2010; Ross *et al.* 2011; Aalto *et al.* 2013). Furthermore,
67 several studies have definitively mapped these incompatibility loci to the mitochondrial genome and
68 nuclear genes with mitochondrial functions (Lee *et al.* 2008; Chou *et al.* 2010; Luo *et al.* 2013;
69 Meiklejohn *et al.* 2013; Huang *et al.* 2015). Aerobic eukaryotic organisms rely on mitochondria to
70 generate energy required for diverse biological processes. The mitochondrial genome encodes a
71 small fraction of mitochondrial proteins, but nuclear genes are required for proper replication,
72 transcription, and translation of mtDNA as well as other mitochondrial proteins (Gustafsson *et al.*
73 2016). Given the interdependence of the nuclear and mitochondrial genomes, they are expected to
74 coevolve by the accumulation of compatible mutations that maintain mitochondrial function. By
75 extension, distinct lineages that undergo unique mitochondrial-nuclear coevolution may be
76 incompatible and result in mitochondrial dysfunction. Several theories have been proposed to explain
77 what drives the rapid coevolution of these two genomes, including adaptation to different carbon
78 sources (Lee *et al.* 2008), arms races between the genomes caused by genetic conflict over the
79 relative fitness of males and females (Fujii *et al.* 2011), and the accumulation of deleterious mtDNA

00 mutations and the evolution of compensatory nuclear variants that rescue mitochondrial function
01 (Rand *et al.* 2004; Oliveira *et al.* 2008; Osada and Akashi 2012). However, given the scarcity of
02 molecularly identified cases of mitochondrial-nuclear incompatibilities, additional studies are required
03 to form more complete theories regarding the forces that drive their evolution.

04 Here we report incompatibility between the cytoplasmic and nuclear genomes of two distinct
05 wild-isolates of the male-female nematode *Caenorhabditis nouraguensis*. Cytoplasmic-nuclear
06 incompatibility is not specific to these two strains, but is also observed upon hybridization of other
07 distinct wild-isolates of *C. nouraguensis*, indicating that this is a naturally widespread reproductive
08 barrier within the species. The cytoplasmic-nuclear incompatibility we identify between strains of *C.*
09 *nouraguensis* may provide an excellent opportunity for a detailed study of mitochondrial-nuclear
10 incompatibility, the forces that drive the coevolution of these genomes, and their possible role in
11 speciation.

12

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Strain isolation and maintenance

All strains of *C. nouraguensis* used in this study were derived from single gravid females isolated in 2009 or 2011 from rotten fruit or flowers found in French Guiana (Kiontke *et al.* 2011), and have not been subjected to further inbreeding. Strains were kindly provided by Marie-Anne Felix (“JU” prefix) and Christian Braendle (“NIC” prefix). Strain stocks were stored at -80°C. Thawed strains were maintained at 25°C on standard NGM plates spread with a thin lawn of OP50 bacteria (Brenner 1974).

Hybridizing JU1825 and NIC59

To quantify inviability, we crossed one virgin L4 female and male, with 10-15 replicates for each cross. The edge of each plate was coated with a palmitic acid solution (10 mg/mL in 95% ethanol) and allowed to air dry, resulting in a physical barrier that helps prevent worms from leaving the plate’s surface. The plates were placed at 25°C overnight, during which the worms matured to adulthood and began mating. The next day, each female-male couple was placed onto a new plate streaked with OP50 and rimmed with palmitic acid. Each couple was then allowed to mate and lay eggs for 5 hours at 25°C, and then were permanently removed. The embryos laid within those 5 hours were counted immediately. Approximately 17 hours later, we counted the number of embryos that failed to hatch per plate. These unhatched embryos were scored as dead since *C. nouraguensis* embryogenesis is normally completed within 13 hours at 25°C (data not shown). We defined the percentage of embryonic lethality as the number of unhatched embryos divided by the total number of embryos laid. Approximately 20 hours later, we placed the plates at 4°C for an hour and then counted the number of healthy L4 larvae and young adults per plate. We defined the percentage of viable progeny as the total number of L4 larvae and young adults divided by the total number of embryos laid.

Determining cytoplasmic-nuclear compatibility between various strains of *C. nouraguensis*

To test for an incompatibility between one strain's cytoplasm and another strain's nuclear genome, we compared the viabilities of backcrosses that differ only in the F1 hybrid female's cytoplasmic genotype (e.g. (NIC59); NIC59/JU1837 F1 female x JU1837 male vs (JU1837); NIC59/JU1837 F1 female x JU1837 male, Figure 3A). The genotype is designated by the following nomenclature: (cytoplasmic genotype); nuclear genotype. The cytoplasmic genotype indicates genetic elements that are only maternally inherited, such as the mitochondrial genome. We performed a Fisher's exact test to determine whether there were significant differences in the proportions of viable and inviable F2 progeny between the two types of crosses. We also calculated the relative viability of the two crosses (e.g. the percent viability of the (NIC59); NIC59/JU1837 F1 female x JU1837 male cross divided by the percent viability of (JU1837); NIC59/JU1837 F1 female x JU1837 male cross). Cytoplasmic-nuclear combinations that show a statistically significant difference in viabilities between the two types of crosses and a relative viability <1 were considered to be cytoplasmic-nuclear incompatibilities. Three biological replicates were performed for each cytoplasmic-nuclear combination except for JU1825 cytoplasmic - NIC24 nuclear and JU1825 cytoplasmic - NIC54 nuclear, which have four replicates each. For each biological replicate, 10 F1 hybrid L4 females were crossed to 10 L4 males on the same plate overnight at 25°C. The next day, they were moved to a new plate and allowed to lay embryos at 25°C for 1 hour. The parents were then removed and the percent viable progeny and embryonic lethality were calculated as described in the previous section of the Materials and Methods. The heat map used to visualize the median relative viability for each cytoplasmic nuclear combination was made using the heatmap.2 function from the gplot package in R.

Molecular Methods

To determine if either JU1825 or NIC59 are infected with *Wolbachia*, we performed PCR on crude lysates of both strains using degenerate primers targeted against two genes that are conserved

55 in *Wolbachia* (Baldo *et al.* 2006). Specifically, we attempted to detect *gatB* (*gatB_F1* with M13
56 adapter, TGTAACACGACGGCCAGTGAKTTAAAYCGYGCAGGBGTT, and *gatB_R1* with M13
57 adapter, CAGGAAACAGCTATGACCTGGYAAAYTCRGGYAAAGATGA) and *fbpA* (*fbpA_F3*,
58 GTTAACCCTGATGCYYAYGAYCC, and *fbpA_R3*, TCTACTTCCTTYGAYTCDCCRCC). As controls,
59 we performed PCR on squash preps of *Drosophila melanogaster* w¹¹¹⁸ mutant strains (Bloomington
60 stock number 3605) that were infected or not infected with *Wolbachia*. *Drosophila melanogaster*
61 strains were kindly provided by the laboratories of Harmit Malik and Leo Pallanck.

62

63 **Tetracycline treatment of JU1825 and NIC59**

64 Both JU1825 and NIC59 were passaged on 50 ug/mL tetracycline NGM plates streaked with
65 OP50 for nine generations. Both strains were treated by placing 10 L4 females and 10 L4 males on a
66 fresh tetracycline plate and allowing them to mate and produce the next generation of L4 progeny,
67 which were then moved to a fresh tetracycline plate. Tetracycline plates were made by allowing NGM
68 plates with OP50 lawns to soak up a mixture of tetracycline and 1x M9. The plates were left
69 uncovered at room temperature until dry, and then used the following day.

70

71 **Statistics**

72 P values were determined using R (v 3.2.5). Several statistical tests were used (Kruskal-Wallis test
73 followed by Dunn's test, and Fisher's exact test). When we performed several comparisons on the
74 same dataset, we used the Bonferroni method to correct p-values for multiple testing. Most plots were
75 made using the ggplot2 package in R.

76

77 **Data Availability**

78 The authors state that all data necessary for confirming the conclusions presented in the article are
79 represented fully within the article and Supplemental Material.

RESULTS

Two strains of *C. nouraguensis* exhibit F2 hybrid breakdown

Two strains of *C. nouraguensis*, JU1825 and NIC59, were derived from single gravid females that were isolated approximately 112 kilometers apart in French Guiana (Kiontke *et al.* 2011). Both of these strains were designated as belonging to *C. nouraguensis* based on having highly similar ITS2 rDNA sequences, which serves as a good species barcode within the *Caenorhabditis* genus, and because they produced many viable F1 offspring when crossed (Kiontke *et al.* 2011; Félix *et al.* 2014). We found that both strains produce high numbers of viable progeny in intra-strain crosses. We have also confirmed the previous finding of F1 hybrid viability by crossing NIC59 females to JU1825 males, and vice versa, showing that the F1 hybrids resulting from these inter-strain crosses exhibit levels of viability comparable to those seen in intra-strain crosses (Figure 1).

However, not all reproductive barriers act in the F1 generation. There are many cases of F2 hybrid breakdown, in which reduction of hybrid fitness begins to manifest itself in the F2 generation due to recessive incompatibility loci (Masly *et al.* 2006; Bikard *et al.* 2009; Stelkens *et al.* 2015). To test for F2 hybrid inviability, we mated hybrid F1 siblings derived from either JU1825 female x NIC59 male crosses, or from NIC59 female x JU1825 male crosses, and assayed the F2 generation for reductions in fitness. These F1 hybrids are referred to as “(J); N/J” and “(N); N/J” respectively, where the genotype is designated by the following nomenclature: (cytoplasmic genotype); nuclear genotype. The cytoplasmic genotype indicates genetic elements that are only maternally inherited, such as the mitochondrial genome. We found that both types of F1 sibling crosses resulted in a significant decrease in the percentage of viable progeny, with on average only 71% and 63% of F2 embryos maturing to the L4 or young adult stage (Figure 1). These results indicate that there are divergent genomic loci between NIC59 and JU1825 that cause inviability only when they become homozygous in F2 hybrids. Additionally, there is no difference in sex-specific mortality in hybrids in comparison to intra-strain crosses which implies that these loci are autosomally linked, as we show later (Figure 1).

07 **Incompatibilities between cytoplasmic and nuclear genomes cause F2 inviability**

08 To further understand the genetic architecture of hybrid breakdown between JU1825 and
09 NIC59, we tested whether maternally or paternally inherited factors are required for F2 inviability. We
10 reasoned that backcrossing F1 females to parental males would test whether maternal factors are
11 required for reduced hybrid fitness, while backcrossing F1 males to parental females would test
12 whether paternal factors are required. For example, backcrossing F1 hybrid females to JU1825 males
13 will result in an F2 population with a 50% chance of being heterozygous (NIC59/JU1825) and a 50%
14 chance of being homozygous (JU1825/JU1825) for any given autosomal locus. Therefore, this cross
15 will test for maternally deposited NIC59 factors that are incompatible with homozygous JU1825
16 autosomal loci. The same logic can be applied to crosses of F1 hybrid males to parental strain
17 females.

18 All instances of backcrossing F1 hybrid males to parental strain females resulted in levels of
19 F2 viability similar to those observed in parental strains. Therefore, paternal factors do not have a
20 major effect on F2 inviability (Figure 2A). Only two crosses consistently resulted in significantly
21 reduced viability. The first is when (N); N/J F1 females were crossed to JU1825 males, with on
22 average only 36% of F2 hybrids maturing to the L4 or young adult stage. This cross implies that there
23 are maternally derived NIC59 factors distributed to F2 embryos, and these factors are incompatible
24 with recessive JU1825 nuclear loci. The second is when (J); N/J F1 females are crossed to NIC59
25 males, with on average only 52% of the F2 hybrids maturing to the L4 or young adult stage (Figure
26 2B). This cross implies that there are also maternally derived JU1825 factors distributed to F2
27 embryos, and these factors are incompatible with recessive NIC59 nuclear loci. The viability of (J);
28 N/J F1 female x JU1825 male crosses can also be significantly reduced in comparison to intra-strain
29 crosses, but varies within and between experiments (Figure S1).

30 Interestingly, the F1 female backcross experiments show that almost identical crosses, which
31 differ only in the cytoplasmic genotype of the F1 female, have significantly different rates of F2
32 viability. For instance, (N); N/J F1 female x JU1825 male crosses consistently have significantly lower

33 F2 viability than (J); N/J F1 female x JU1825 male crosses (Figure 2, Figure S1). Similarly, (J); N/J F1
34 female x NIC59 male crosses consistently have significantly lower F2 viability than (N); N/J F1 female
35 x NIC59 male crosses (Figure 2). These F1 hybrid females are expected to be genotypically identical
36 at all nuclear loci, suggesting that something other than the F1 nuclear genome encodes maternal
37 factors that lead to F2 inviability. One possible model to explain the differences in these backcrosses
38 is that the mitochondrial genome is the maternally inherited factor that is incompatible with recessive
39 nuclear loci in the F2 generation. For example, all F2 progeny from (N); N/J F1 female x JU1825 male
40 crosses will inherit only NIC59 mtDNA, which may be incompatible with nuclear loci homozygous (or
41 hemizygous) for JU1825 alleles resulting in inviability (Figure 6A). In comparison, all F2 progeny from
42 (J); N/J F1 female x JU1825 male crosses will inherit only JU1825 mtDNA, which should be
43 compatible with the JU1825 nuclear genome and therefore not result in the same inviability. The
44 same logic can be applied to the (J); N/J F1 female x NIC59 male and (N); N/J F1 female x NIC59
45 male crosses. Therefore, we hypothesize that F2 inviability is the result of two distinct cytoplasmic-
46 nuclear incompatibilities, one between the NIC59 mitochondrial genome and recessive JU1825
47 nuclear loci, and another between the JU1825 mitochondrial genome and recessive NIC59 nuclear
48 loci.

50 **The nuclear incompatibility loci are linked to autosomes**

51 Nematodes commonly have an XX (female) and XO (male) sex determining mechanism
52 (Pires-daSilva 2007). The F1 hybrid female backcross experiments reveal that there is no difference
53 in sex-specific mortality in hybrids in comparison to intra-strain crosses (Figure 2B). However, given
54 the expected genotypes of their F2 populations, these backcrosses on their own do not allow us to
55 determine whether the nuclear incompatibility loci are autosomally or X-linked. In the previous
56 section, we concluded that the inviability of the F2 progeny derived from (N); N/J F1 female x JU1825
57 male crosses is the result of a genetic incompatibility between the NIC59 mitochondrial genome and
58 nuclear loci homozygous (or hemizygous) for JU1825 alleles. If this is true, it is reasonable to assume

59 that the same genetic incompatibility occurs in (N); N/J F1 female x (N); N/J F1 male crosses (Figure
60 1). In this F1 sibling cross, if the JU1825 nuclear incompatibility locus were autosomally linked, both
61 sexes would suffer equal rates of inviability. However, if the nuclear incompatibility locus were linked
62 to the X-chromosome, then we would expect a significant decrease in the proportion of viable males
63 in comparison to intra-strain crosses (Figure S2). However, we observe no significant difference in
64 the proportion of viable males for the (N); N/J F1 female x (N); N/J F1 male cross (Figure 1).
65 Therefore, given the data from the F1 female backcrosses and the F1 sibling crosses, we conclude
66 that the JU1825 nuclear incompatibility locus is autosomally linked. A similar line of reasoning
67 indicates that the NIC59 nuclear incompatibility locus is also autosomally linked.

59 **Endosymbiotic bacteria do not cause hybrid inviability**

70 We hypothesize that mitochondrial genomes are responsible for the cytoplasmic component of
71 the hybrid incompatibility between NIC59 and JU1825. However, we also considered whether
72 endosymbiotic bacteria of the *Rickettsiales* order could be involved. Within this order, bacteria of the
73 *Wolbachia* genus are known to infect certain species of nematodes, and are transmitted to host
74 progeny through female gametes (Werren *et al.* 2008). Furthermore, hybrid lethality in inter-strain and
75 interspecies crosses is sometimes caused by infection with divergent *Wolbachia* strains (Bourtzis *et*
76 *al.* 1996; Bordenstein *et al.* 2001). However, we failed to detect conserved genes typically used to
77 genotype diverse strains of *Wolbachia* in either JU1825 or NIC59 using PCR with degenerate primers
78 (Figure S3A). Additionally, treatment of both strains with tetracycline for nine generations failed to
79 rescue hybrid inviability (Figure S3B). Endosymbiotic bacteria within the *Rickettsiales* order are
80 typically susceptible to tetracycline (McOrist 2000; Darby *et al.* 2015). Thus, endosymbiotic bacteria
81 are unlikely to cause the reproductive barrier between NIC59 and JU1825.

33 **Cytoplasmic-nuclear incompatibility is common within *C. nouraguensis***

34 We hybridized additional wild-isolates to determine whether cytoplasmic-nuclear
35 incompatibilities represent a common reproductive barrier within *C. nouraguensis*, or whether they
36 are an unusual phenotype only observed in hybridizations between NIC59 and JU1825. Specifically,
37 we tested the compatibility of four cytoplasmic genotypes with seven nuclear genotypes (Figure 3).
38 To test for an incompatibility between one strain's cytoplasm and another strain's nuclear genome,
39 we again compared the viabilities of backcrosses that differ only in the F1 hybrid female's cytoplasmic
40 genotype (Figure 3A). Specifically, we compared the viability of the backcross that combines
41 heterotypic cytoplasmic and nuclear genotypes to the viability of the backcross that combines
42 homotypic cytoplasmic and nuclear genotypes. We calculated the relative viability of the two crosses
43 (i.e. heterotypic combination / homotypic combination), and tested for statistically significant
44 differences (see Materials and Methods). Using the same logic as for our JU1825 x NIC59 crosses,
45 we reasoned that lower viability of the heterotypic cytoplasmic-nuclear combination in comparison to
46 the homotypic cytoplasmic-nuclear combination indicates a cytoplasmic-nuclear incompatibility. Three
47 or four biological replicates were performed for each cytoplasmic-nuclear combination.

48 Of the 74 cytoplasmic-nuclear tests performed, 50 (67%) exhibited significant incompatibilities
49 (Figure 3B). Additionally, each cytoplasmic genotype was consistently incompatible with at least one
50 heterotypic nuclear genotype (i.e. all replicates for a particular cytoplasmic-nuclear combination
51 indicate a significant incompatibility). However, there are a number of cytoplasmic-nuclear
52 combinations whose replicates are inconsistent with one another (e.g. some replicates indicate a
53 significant incompatibility while others do not) (Figure 3C and Figure S4). This may indicate that the
54 genetic loci required for hybrid inviability are not fixed between the strains, but rather are
55 polymorphisms segregating within each strain. This is consistent with the fact that none of these
56 strains have been formally inbred. Regardless, given their common occurrence in hybridizations
57 between strains of *C. nouraguensis*, we hypothesize that cytoplasmic-nuclear incompatibilities are a
58 significant reproductive barrier within the species.

9 We generated a heat map to help visualize the median relative viability for each cytoplasmic-
10 nuclear combination (Figure 3C). Strikingly, the NIC59 cytoplasmic genotype exhibits a distinct
11 response to hybridization, being strongly incompatible (i.e. having a low median relative viability) with
12 all of the nuclear genotypes tested. By comparison, the other cytoplasmic genotypes can be relatively
13 compatible with some heterotypic nuclear genotypes or exhibit incompatibilities that are typically
14 weaker than those involving the NIC59 cytoplasmic genotype. Specifically, incompatibilities involving
15 the JU1837 or JU1854 cytoplasmic genotypes have significantly higher relative viability (median=0.72
16 and 0.71, respectively) in comparison to incompatibilities with the NIC59 cytoplasmic genotype
17 (median=0.45) (Figure 3B). Incompatibilities involving the JU1825 cytoplasm exhibit an intermediate
18 level of relative viability (median=0.64) that is statistically indistinguishable from the other cytoplasmic
19 genotypes ($P=0.057$ in comparison to NIC59; $P=1.0$ in comparison to both JU1837 and JU1854). We
20 conclude that the NIC59 cytoplasmic genotype is distinct in terms of the nuclear genotypes it is
21 incompatible with and how severe those incompatibilities are.

23 **A single BDM incompatibility between a NIC59 cytoplasmic locus and a JU1825 nuclear locus** 24 **causes embryonic lethality**

25 As previously discussed, the backcross that combines the NIC59 cytoplasmic genotype with
26 JU1825 nuclear genotype (i.e. (N); N/J F1 female x JU1825 male, Figure 2B) results in only ~36% of
27 F2 offspring maturing to the L4 or young adult stage. A more detailed characterization of F2 inviability
28 shows that ~50% of F2 offspring fail to complete embryogenesis (Figure 4A). Of the remaining half
29 that complete embryogenesis, ~33% fail to mature to the L4 or young adult stage (data not shown). In
30 comparison, (J); N/J F1 female x JU1825 male crosses result in low levels of embryonic lethality,
31 similar to parental crosses. These data are consistent with F2 embryonic lethality resulting from a
32 single BDM incompatibility between a NIC59 cytoplasmic locus and a single homozygous JU1825
33 autosomal locus.

34 To test the hypothesis of a single BDM incompatibility, we crossed viable F2 females to
35 JU1825 males and assayed F3 viability. Under this hypothesis, the surviving F2 females are expected
36 to have inherited NIC59 mtDNA and be heterozygous (i.e. JU1825/NIC59) at the JU1825 nuclear
37 incompatibility locus (Figure 6A). Therefore, crossing these F2 females to JU1825 males should also
38 result in ~50% embryonic lethality in the F3 generation. This pattern should also be true for additional
39 backcross generations (e.g. F4, F5 etc.). Thus, we generated 15 independent backcross lineages,
40 each consisting of matings between single surviving hybrid females and JU1825 males, and
41 monitored each lineage's viability for four backcross generations. Indeed, the approximately 50%
42 embryonic lethality observed in the F2 generation is also observed in the subsequent backcross
43 generations in all lineages (Figure 4B). These results are consistent with the hypothesis that
44 embryonic lethality is the result of a simple two-locus BDM incompatibility between a purely
45 maternally inherited cytoplasmic NIC59 locus and a single nuclear locus homozygous for JU1825
46 alleles. We hypothesize that the post-embryonic inviability may be a genetically separable phenotype.

48 **The JU1825 cytoplasm appears to be heteroplasmic**

49 As previously discussed, the backcross that combines the JU1825 cytoplasmic genotype with
50 the NIC59 nuclear genotype (i.e. (J); N/J F1 female x NIC59 male crosses) results in ~50% F2
51 viability on average (Figure 2B). Thus, the total F2 inviability could be the result of a single BDM
52 incompatibility between a JU1825 cytoplasmic locus and a single autosomal locus homozygous for
53 NIC59 alleles.

54 To test this hypothesis, we generated 15 independent backcross lineages, each consisting of
55 matings between single surviving hybrid females and NIC59 males, and monitored each lineage's
56 viability for four backcross generations. To our surprise, while some lineages continued to exhibit low
57 levels of viability similar to the F2 generation average (~50%), others began to exhibit and maintain
58 significantly increased viability for multiple backcross generations (Figure 5A). For example, in this
59 particular experiment we found that in the F2 generation a majority of lineages (13/15) had a total

50 viability ranging from 18-50%, while only two exhibited higher viability (68% and 85%). However, by
51 the F5 backcross generation, we found that of the fourteen remaining lineages only four exhibited
52 50% viability or less. Strikingly, by the F5 generation, 5/14 backcross lineages exhibited nearly 100%
53 viability.

54 The rescue of hybrid inviability for some lineages via several generations of backcrossing is
55 peculiar. One hypothesis to explain this phenomenon is that the JU1825 cytoplasmic and/or NIC59
56 nuclear incompatibility loci are not fixed within their respective strains, but rather are segregating
57 polymorphisms. As a specific example, the JU1825 cytoplasmic incompatibility locus could be
58 heteroplasmic for alleles that are either incompatible or compatible with the NIC59 nuclear genome.
59 The mitochondrial genome is present at a high copy number within a single cell, and it is thought that
60 individual mtDNAs are randomly replicated and segregated to daughter cells during cell division.
61 Studies on the inheritance of various mtDNA heteroplasmies show that their frequency amongst
62 siblings from the same mother can be highly variable due to the random sampling of mtDNAs and
63 genetic bottlenecks during female germline development (Wallace and Chalkia 2013). Therefore, it is
64 possible that a NIC59-compatible cytoplasmic allele has increased in frequency in some backcross
65 lineages and rescued inviability.

66 To gain a better understanding of the genetic composition of the JU1825 cytoplasm, we also
67 monitored the viability of (J); N/J female x JU1825 male lineages over four backcross generations.
68 Because this cross combines homotypic JU1825 cytoplasmic and JU1825 nuclear genotypes, we
69 originally predicted that the relatively high rates of F2 viability would persist or possibly increase with
70 additional backcross generations. However, we instead observed that some backcross lineages
71 showed a striking decrease in viability after the F2 generation (Figure 5B). For example, in this
72 particular experiment, lineages in the F2 generation exhibited a uniform distribution of viability, with
73 an average of 74%. By the F5 generation we find two distinct populations of lineages, those with a
74 high viability ranging from 85-96% (6/14 lineages) and those with an astonishingly low viability
75 ranging from 29-55% (8/14 lineages) (Figure 5B). The latter population has an average viability of

36 39%, which is quite similar to that observed in (N); N/J F1 female x JU1825 male crosses (~36%,
37 Figure 2B), indicating that although these lineages inherited their cytoplasm from JU1825 mothers,
38 they now seem to exhibit low levels of viability similar to those observed in the NIC59 cytoplasmic –
39 JU1825 nuclear incompatibility. One hypothesis to explain these data is that the JU1825 cytoplasm
40 harbors a NIC59-like allele which at a certain threshold frequency can mimic the NIC59 cytoplasmic-
41 JU1825 nuclear incompatibility in certain (J); N/J F1 female x JU1825 male backcross lineages.

42 In support of this hypothesis, the rate of embryonic lethality for some (J); N/J female x JU1825
43 male backcross lineages also increases to levels observed in the NIC59 cytoplasmic – JU1825
44 nuclear incompatibility (i.e. 50%) and can be stably inherited for several backcross generations
45 (Figure 5C). Specifically, most lineages (12/14) in the F2 generation exhibited only 0-19% embryonic
46 lethality, while only two lineages exhibited higher rates (38 and 47%). However, by the F5 backcross
47 generation, only about half of the lineages (6/14) exhibited 0-8% embryonic lethality, while 8/14
48 lineages exhibited 35-65% embryonic lethality. Taken together, the results from the two backcross
49 experiments are consistent with the hypothesis that the JU1825 cytoplasm is heteroplasmic and
50 harbors both JU1825-like and NIC59-like incompatibility loci (Figure 6B and C).

DISCUSSION

We discovered a lethal cytoplasmic-nuclear incompatibility between two wild isolates of *C. nouraguensis*, JU1825 and NIC59, and find that such incompatibilities may be widespread between other wild-isolates within the species. We show that maternally inherited endosymbiotic bacteria are not the cause of hybrid inviability, making the mitochondrial genome the most likely candidate for harboring the cytoplasmic incompatibility factor(s). We also propose that the JU1825 cytoplasm is heteroplasmic, and harbors both JU1825-like and NIC59-like incompatibility loci.

In eukaryotes, the mitochondrial genome typically contains a very small fraction of the gene content of a cell, yet it seems to be involved in a disproportionate number of genetic incompatibilities across a diverse range of taxa (Rand *et al.* 2004; Burton and Barreto 2012). However, there are relatively few cases in which incompatibility loci have been definitively mapped to the mitochondrial genome, and therefore a larger sample is required to better understand what drives the evolution of mitochondrial-nuclear incompatibility. Additionally, all of the molecularly identified cases of mitochondrial-nuclear incompatibility have been found between species rather than within species (Lee *et al.* 2008; Chou *et al.* 2010; Luo *et al.* 2013; Meiklejohn *et al.* 2013; Ma *et al.* 2016). Some of these inter-species hybridizations harbor additional genetic incompatibilities or chromosomal rearrangements that cause inviability and sterility (Hunter *et al.* 1996; Fischer *et al.* 2000; Brideau *et al.* 2006; Ferree and Barbash 2009; Mihola *et al.* 2009; Davies *et al.* 2016), making it difficult to discern whether mitochondrial-nuclear incompatibility was instrumental in initiating speciation or evolved after strong reproductive isolation occurred. The incompatibility we describe here provides an excellent opportunity to study the evolutionary genetics and cell biology of incipient speciation as well as mitochondrial-nuclear incompatibility. The ease of breeding, large brood sizes, and short generation time of *C. nouraguensis* should facilitate the mapping and identification of the genes that contribute to hybrid inviability.

Asymmetric cytoplasmic-nuclear incompatibilities

28 Most molecularly characterized BDM incompatibilities are asymmetric, in that only one of two
29 divergent alleles at a locus is incompatible with heterospecific alleles at other loci (e.g. Brideau *et al.*
30 2006; Ferree and Barbash 2009). This is also true of the mitochondrial-nuclear incompatibilities seen
31 in *Saccharomyces* species hybridizations (Lee *et al.* 2008; Chou *et al.* 2010). For example, an intron
32 of the *COX-1* gene in the *Saccharomyces bayanus* mitochondrial genome fails to be correctly spliced
33 by the nuclear encoded *S. cerevisiae* *MRS-1* gene, resulting in hybrid inviability presumably due to
34 a failure of respiration on non-fermentable media. However, a similar incompatibility does not occur
35 between *S. cerevisiae* *COX-1* and *S. bayanus* *MRS-1*. At first glance it may seem as though the
36 cytoplasmic-nuclear incompatibility between JU1825 and NIC59 is symmetric, since both strains have
37 a cytoplasm that is incompatible with the other strain's nuclear genome. However we currently cannot
38 determine whether the JU1825 or NIC59 cytoplasmic and nuclear incompatibility loci are allelic,
39 leaving open the possibility that different genes cause hybrid inviability in the reciprocal crosses.

41 **Cytoplasmic-nuclear incompatibility: both sexes are equally inviable**

42 J.B.S Haldane noted that the heterogametic sex more often suffers from inviability or sterility in
43 inter-species hybridizations than the homogametic sex (Delph and Demuth 2016). It is not known
44 whether "Haldane's rule" also applies in intra-species hybridizations. The lethal cytoplasmic-nuclear
45 incompatibility we identified between the NIC59 and JU1825 wild isolates of *C. nouraguensis* affects
46 females and males equally, suggesting that the two sexes share the same disrupted developmental
47 pathway(s). However, we have not carefully studied other aspects of sex-specific fitness, such as
48 female and male F2 hybrid fertility. Because the mitochondrial genome is inherited only through
49 females, theory predicts that evolution will lead to the accumulation of mtDNA variants that are
50 neutral or increase female fitness, but that are neutral or possibly deleterious to male fitness
51 (Gemmell *et al.* 2004). Because of this, male-specific functions may be more adversely affected
52 during the hybridization of heterotypic mitochondrial and nuclear genomes. This is indeed the case for
53 some known mitochondrial-nuclear incompatibilities. For example, when swapping the mitochondrial

54 genomes between mouse subspecies via pronuclear transfer, one mitochondrial-nuclear combination
55 resulted in reduced male fertility while females had relatively normal fertility (Ma *et al.* 2016).
56 Therefore, further studies of *C. nouraguensis* hybrid male fertility are required to more fully address
57 whether this system follows Haldane's rule, as well as to determine whether there are male-specific
58 mitochondrial-nuclear incompatibilities.

59 60 **JU1825 heteroplasmy**

61 We hypothesize that the JU1825 cytoplasm is heteroplasmic and contains mitochondrial
62 genomes that are both compatible (JU1825-like) and incompatible (NIC59-like) with the JU1825
63 nuclear incompatibility locus. If the JU1825 cytoplasm is naturally heteroplasmic, we predict the
64 NIC59-like mtDNAs are kept at a low frequency within JU1825 by selection. This selection would be
65 relaxed in (J); N/J F1 hybrids and the frequency of NIC59-like mtDNA can increase, reducing
66 incompatibility in backcrosses to NIC59 males and increasing incompatibility in backcrosses to
67 JU1825 males. However, our data cannot rule out the possibility that NIC59-like mtDNA is introduced
68 into F1 females by incomplete degradation and inheritance of paternal NIC59 mtDNA. Interestingly,
69 indirect evidence suggests that paternal mtDNA can be inherited when hybridizing different wild
70 isolates of *Caenorhabditis briggsae* (Hicks *et al.* 2012; Chang *et al.* 2015).

71 The hypothesized heteroplasmy of the JU1825 cytoplasm may explain the greater variance of
72 F2 viability in crosses with (J); N/J F1 females in comparison to those with presumably homoplasmic
73 (N); N/J F1 females. Stochastic segregation and genetic bottlenecking events from JU1825 mothers
74 may result in F1 females with a wide range of frequencies of the NIC59-like cytoplasmic allele, and
75 therefore a wide range of F2 viability when backcrossed to either NIC59 or JU1825 males. This
76 stochastic inheritance may also explain why the degree of F2 viability of (J); N/J F1 female x JU1825
77 male backcrosses can also vary significantly from experiment to experiment (Figure S1).

78 79 **Acknowledgments**

30 We thank Marie-Anne Félix and Christian Braendle for providing the *Caenorhabditis nouraguensis*
31 strains used in this study. We also thank the labs of Harmit Malik and Leo Pallanck for providing
32 *Drosophila melanogaster* strains with and without *Wolbachia*. We thank Janet Young, Harmit Malik,
33 Maitreya Dunham and Irimi Topalidou for helpful discussions and comments on the manuscript. P.L.
34 was supported in part by an NIH Institutional Training Grant (PHS, NRSA, T32GM007270 from
35 NIGMS). This work was supported by an NSF CAREER award to M.A.

36

37 **Figure Legends**

38 **Figure 1. JU1825 and NIC59 exhibit F2 hybrid breakdown.** Crosses are listed on the y-axis.

39 Letters in parentheses to the left of a semi-colon denote the cytoplasmic genotype of an individual
40 (e.g. "(J)" individuals have a JU1825 cytoplasmic genotype), while letters to the right of a semi-colon
41 denote the genotypes of all autosomal loci (i.e. "N/J" individuals are heterozygous NIC59/JU1825
42 throughout the autosomes). Only (J); N/J F1 x (J); N/J F1 and (N); N/J F1 x (N); N/J F1 crosses
43 exhibit a significant decrease in the percentage of viable progeny ($P < 0.01$ and $P < 0.001$, respectively).
44 There are no significant differences in the percentages of viable males between crosses ($P > 0.05$).
45 $N = 14$ or 15 plates per cross. All p-values were calculated by a Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn's
46 test.

47
48 **Figure 2. F2 inviability involves a maternal cytoplasmic effect. (A)** There is no significant
49 difference in the percentage of viable progeny between any of the F1 hybrid male backcrosses and
50 intra-strain crosses ($P > 0.05$). **(B)** Backcrossing hybrid females to parental strain males reveals that
51 only (N); N/J F1 female x JU1825 male crosses and (J); N/J F1 female x NIC59 male crosses exhibit
52 a significant decrease in the percentage of viable progeny in comparison to intra-strain crosses
53 ($P < 0.001$). (N); N/J F1 female x JU1825 male crosses have significantly decreased viability in
54 comparison to (J); N/J F1 female x JU1825 male crosses ($P < 0.001$). Additionally, (J); N/J F1 female x
55 NIC59 male crosses consistently have significantly decreased viability in comparison to (N); N/J F1
56 female x NIC59 male crosses ($P < 0.05$). The viability of (J); N/J F1 female x JU1825 males can differ
57 significantly between experiments (Figure S1). There are no significant differences in the proportion
58 of viable males between the crosses ($P > 0.05$). $N = 14$ or 15 plates per cross. All p-values were
59 calculated by a Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn's test.

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11 **Figure 3. Cytoplasmic nuclear incompatibility is widespread within *C. nouraguensis*. (A)**

L2 To determine whether a particular cytoplasmic-nuclear combination is incompatible, we tested for
L3 statistical differences in viability between the F1 female backcross that combines heterotypic
L4 cytoplasmic and nuclear genotypes (top cross) and the backcross that combines homotypic
L5 cytoplasmic and nuclear genotypes (bottom cross, see Materials and Methods). We also calculated
L6 the relative viability of the first cross to the second. **(B)** A scatter plot depicting all the cytoplasmic-
L7 nuclear compatibility tests performed. Each point corresponds to a single replicate of a certain
L8 cytoplasmic-nuclear combination. Points above the horizontal dashed gray line indicate statistically
L9 significant differences in viability between the two types of crosses mentioned in (A) ($P < 0.0006$ after
L10 Bonferroni correction, Fisher's exact test). Points above the horizontal dashed gray line that have a
L11 relative viability < 1 are considered statistically significant cytoplasmic-nuclear incompatibilities. The
L12 color of a point corresponds to the cytoplasmic genotype being tested. All cytoplasmic genotypes
L13 tested show an incompatibility with one or more heterotypic nuclear genotypes. See Figure S4 for
L14 separate graphs of all combinations. Above the scatterplot are boxplots depicting the relative
L15 viabilities of statistically significant cytoplasmic-nuclear incompatibilities. The color corresponds to
L16 cytoplasmic genotype tested. Incompatibilities involving the NIC59 cytoplasmic genotype have
L17 reduced viability compared to those involving the JU1837 and JU1854 cytoplasmic genotypes
L18 ($P < 0.001$, Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn's test). **(C)** A heatmap depicting the median relative
L19 viability for each cytoplasmic-nuclear combination. Each cytoplasmic-nuclear combination shows the
L20 proportion of replicates that exhibit significant incompatibilities (e.g. 3 out of 3 replicates exhibit
L21 significant incompatibilities for the NIC59 cytoplasm – JU1854 nuclear combination, while only 1 out
L22 of 3 replicates exhibit significant incompatibilities for the JU1837 cytoplasm – JU1854 nuclear
L23 combination). Each cytoplasmic genotype is consistently incompatible with at least one heterotypic
L24 nuclear genotype. The NIC59 cytoplasm has a distinct response to hybridization than the others
L25 tested.

37 **Figure 4. A single BDM incompatibility between a NIC59 cytoplasmic locus and a JU1825**

38 **nuclear locus causes embryonic lethality. (A)** Approximately 50% of the F2 progeny from (N); N/J
39 F1 female x JU1825 male crosses arrest during embryogenesis, significantly higher than that seen in
40 intra-strain crosses ($P < 0.001$). In contrast, (J); N/J F1 female x JU1825 male and parental strain
41 crosses exhibit low and similar levels of embryonic lethality ($P > 0.05$). **(B)** Initially, fifteen (N); N/J F1
42 females were independently backcrossed to single JU1825 males. For each independent lineage, a
43 single surviving F2 female was again backcrossed to a JU1825 male. This backcrossing scheme was
44 repeated until the F5 generation (11 lineages remain). Each colored line represents a single
45 backcross lineage. All backcross lineages exhibit ~50% embryonic lethality throughout the backcross
46 generations, consistent with the hypothesis that an incompatibility between a NIC59 cytoplasmic
47 locus and a single JU1825 nuclear locus causes embryonic lethality. **(C)** Both parental strains were
48 “backcrossed” as a negative control (JU1825 = 14 backcross lineages in the F1 generation, 11
49 lineages by the F4 generation; NIC59 = 15 backcross lineages in the F1 generation, 11 lineages by
50 the F4 generation). All p-values were calculated by a Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn’s test.

52 **Figure 5. The JU1825 cytoplasm is heteroplasmic for JU1825-like and NIC59-like alleles. (A)**

53 The viability of 15 independent (J); N/J female x NIC59 male backcross lineages were followed until
54 the F5 generation. Surprisingly, in some lineages, multiple generations of backcrossing resulted in
55 increased viability (similar to that seen in intra-strain crosses). **(B)** The viability of 15 independent (J);
56 N/J female x JU1825 male backcross lineages were also followed until the F5 generation.
57 Interestingly, multiple generations of backcrossing results in some lineages with significantly reduced
58 viability, similar to that seen in (N); N/J F1 female x JU1825 male crosses. We also examined
59 embryonic lethality, finding that some lineages exhibit the ~50% embryonic lethality seen in (N); N/J
60 F1 female x JU1825 male crosses upon additional generations of backcrossing. These results are
61 consistent with the hypothesis that the JU1825 cytoplasm is heteroplasmic and contains JU1825-like
62 and NIC59-like alleles.

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54 **Figure 6. Mitochondrial-nuclear incompatibility model. (A)** We hypothesize that F2 hybrid
55 breakdown is the result of a Bateson-Dobzhansky-Muller incompatibility between the NIC59
56 mitochondrial genome and a nuclear locus homozygous for the JU1825 allele, and vice versa. As a
57 specific example, when NIC59 females are crossed to JU1825 males, the resulting F1 hybrid females
58 are expected to be heterozygous at all autosomal loci while inheriting only NIC59 mtDNA. When F1
59 females are backcrossed to JU1825 males, F2 inviability results from an incompatibility between
60 NIC59 mtDNA and an autosomal locus homozygous for the JU1825 nuclear allele. **(B)** We
61 hypothesize that the JU1825 cytoplasm is heteroplasmic in F1 females and contains at least one
62 NIC59-like allele. Backcrossing hybrid females with a JU1825 cytoplasm (i.e. (J); N/J females) to
63 NIC59 males for multiple generations can allow the NIC59-like cytoplasmic allele to increase in
64 frequency and dilute out the effects of the incompatible JU1825-like mtDNA (e.g. top right F2 female).
65 This eventually may allow the NIC59 nuclear locus to become homozygous and restore the viability of
66 a lineage. On the other hand, the NIC59-like mtDNA can stay at a low frequency in viable F2 females
67 (e.g. bottom right F2 female). Backcrossing these F2 females to NIC59 males results in levels of
68 inviability similar to the F2 generation. **(C)** By a similar line of reasoning, backcrossing hybrid females
69 with a JU1825 cytoplasm to JU1825 males for multiple generations can allow the NIC59-like mtDNA
70 to increase in frequency, where it can mimic the same genetic incompatibility seen in (N); N/J F1
71 female x JU1825 male crosses (Figure 6A).

32

33 **Supplemental Figure 1. Variability of (J); N/J F1 female x JU1825 male crosses across**
34 **experiments.** Three biological replicates of the same type of backcross experiment. (J); N/J F1
35 female x JU1825 male crosses can either exhibit similar or significantly decreased rates of viability in
36 comparison to intra-strain crosses across experiments (Experiment 1, non-significant, $P > 0.05$;
37 Experiment 2, non-significant, $P > 0.05$; Experiment 3, $P > 0.05$, non-significant in comparison to
38 JU1825 x JU1825 crosses, $P < 0.05$ significant in comparison to NIC59 x NIC59 crosses). However,

(J); N/J F1 female x JU1825 male crosses consistently exhibit significantly increased rates of viability in comparison to (N); N/J F1 female x JU1825 male crosses (Experiment 1, **, $P < 0.01$; Experiment 2, **, $P < 0.01$; Experiment 3, *, $P < 0.05$). Experiments 1 and 2 are data from Figures 2 and 5, respectively. All p-values were calculated by a Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn's test.

Supplemental Figure 2. Nuclear incompatibility loci are linked to autosomes, not sex

chromosomes. F1 intercrosses allow us to infer that the nuclear incompatibility loci are autosomal, not X-linked. From the (N); N/J F1 x JU1825 male backcross experiment (Figure 2), we concluded that F2 inviability was the result of a genetic incompatibility between the NIC59 mitochondrial genome and nuclear loci homozygous or hemizygous for JU1825 alleles. It is reasonable to assume that the same genetic incompatibility contributes to F2 inviability in (N); N/J F1 female x (N); N/J F1 male crosses. If the nuclear incompatibility locus were X-linked, F2 males would have a 50% chance of being hemizygous for the JU1825 nuclear incompatibility locus while F2 females can only be heterozygous or homozygous for NIC59 alleles. Therefore, if the locus were X-linked, half of F2 males would be inviable while females would be unaffected. If the nuclear incompatibility locus were autosomally linked, then both sexes have an equal chance of being homozygous for the JU1825 nuclear incompatibility locus. Therefore, both sexes are expected to suffer equal rates of inviability. We do not observe a significant decrease in the proportion of viable F2 males (Figure 1), so we conclude that the JU1825 nuclear incompatibility locus or loci are linked to autosomes. The same line of reasoning can be used to show that the NIC59 incompatibility locus or loci are also autosomally linked.

Supplemental Figure 3. Endosymbiotic bacteria do not cause cytoplasmic-nuclear

incompatibility. (A) PCR on both JU1825 and NIC59 crude lysates (10 adult worms per lysate, 5 females and 5 males) with degenerate primers against the *Wolbachia fbpA* or *gatB* loci fails to amplify the expected products. w^{1118} (wol+) and w^{1118} (wol-) *D. melanogaster* flies serve as positive and

15 negative controls, respectively. PCR on crude lysates of OP50 (bacterial food source of NIC59 and
16 JU1825) also fails to amplify the expected products. PCR on JU2079, an inbred strain derived from
17 JU1825, also fails to amplify the expected *gatB* product. **(B)** Both tetracycline-treated (J);N/J F1
18 female x NIC59 male and (N);N/J F1 female x JU1825 male crosses exhibit significantly decreased
19 levels of viability in comparison to tetracycline treated intra-strain crosses ($P < 0.01$). Additionally, there
20 are no statistical differences in viability between NIC59 x NIC59 and JU1825 x JU1825 tetracycline
21 treated intra-strain crosses ($P > 0.05$). $N = 14$ or 15 for each cross. All p-values were calculated by a
22 Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn's test.

23
24 **Supplemental Figure 4. Cytoplasmic-nuclear tests separated by nuclear genotype.** Each graph
25 depicts all the cytoplasmic-nuclear tests performed between four cytoplasmic genotypes and a single
26 nuclear genotype. This is the same data that is grouped into a single graph in Figure 3B. Each
27 cytoplasmic-nuclear combination has three biological replicates (except for JU1825 cytoplasm –
28 NIC24 nuclear and JU1825 cytoplasm – NIC54 nuclear combinations, which have four replicates).
29 Although there appear to be many cases of significant cytoplasmic-nuclear incompatibility (relative
30 viability < 1 and $P < 0.0006$ after Bonferroni correction), there can be discrepancies between replicates
31 (e.g. one replicate of the JU1825 cytoplasm – NIC24 nuclear combination indicates a significant
32 incompatibility, while the other three do not).

33

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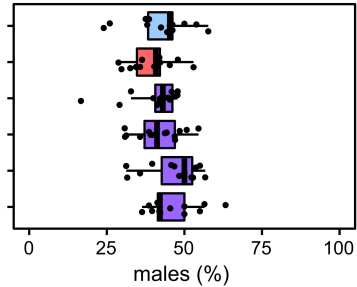
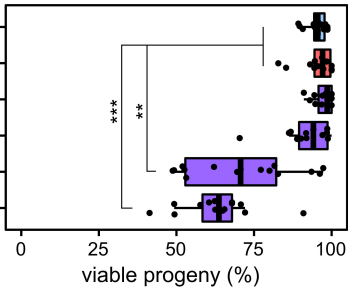
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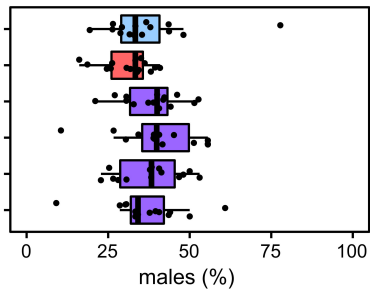
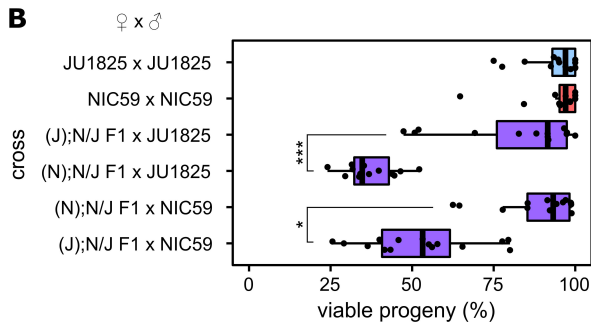
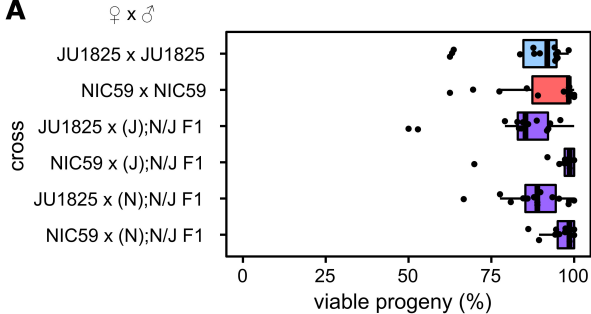
70

♀ x ♂

CROSS

JU1825 x JU1825
 NIC59 x NIC59
 JU1825 x NIC59
 NIC59 x JU1825
 (J);N/J F1 x (J);N/J F1
 (N);N/J F1 x (N);N/J F1





A

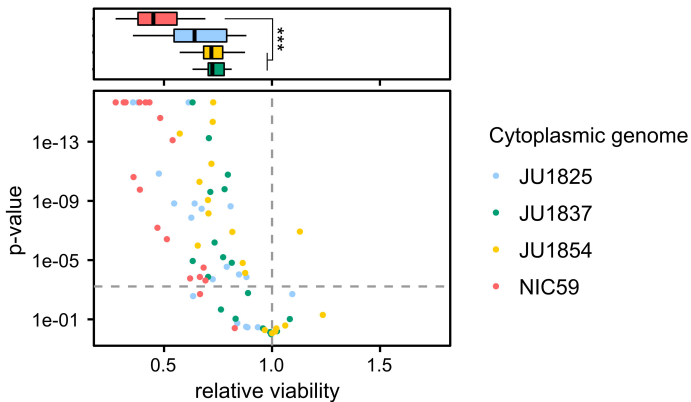
% viable F2

(NIC59); NIC59/JU1837 F1 ♀ x JU1837 ♂ → 41

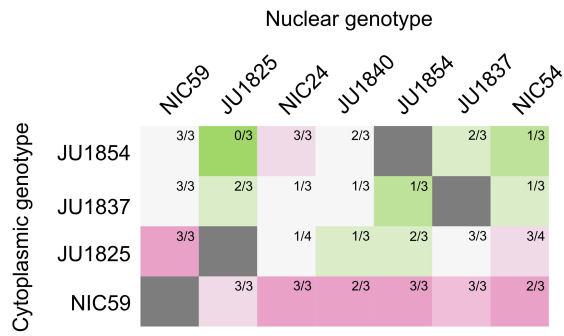
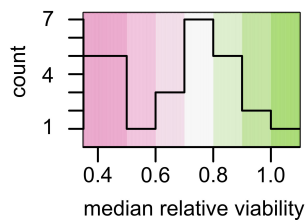
(JU1837); NIC59/JU1837 F1 ♀ x JU1837 ♂ → 99

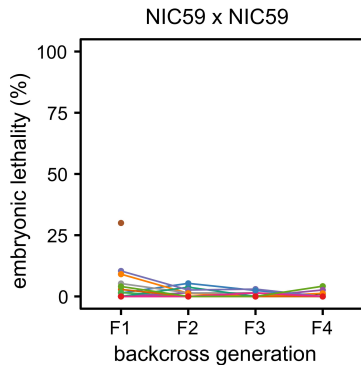
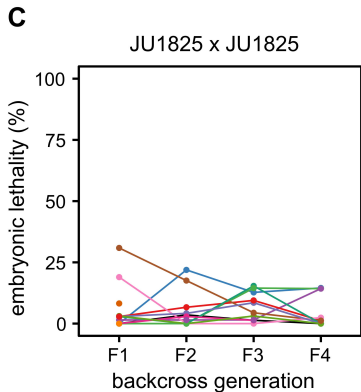
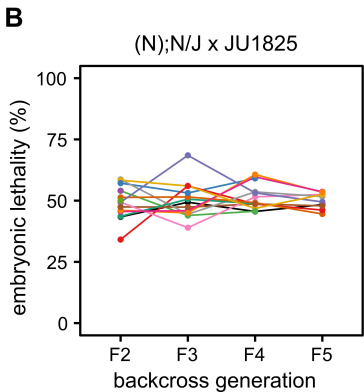
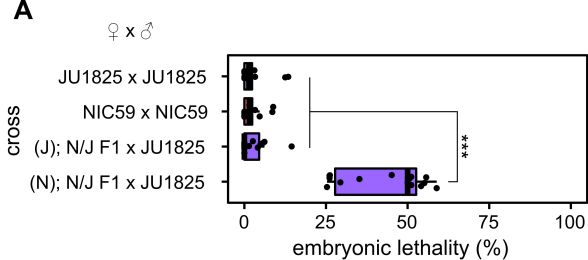
$41 / 99 = 0.41 =$ NIC59 cyto-JU1837 nuc
relative viability

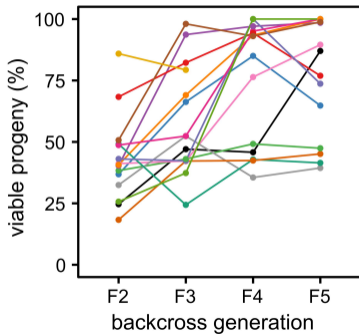
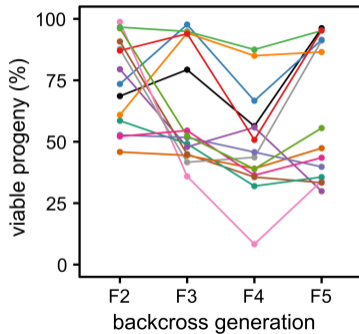
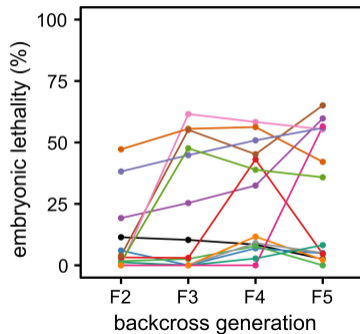
B

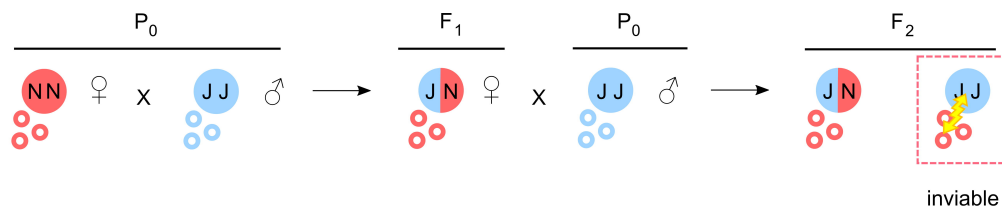
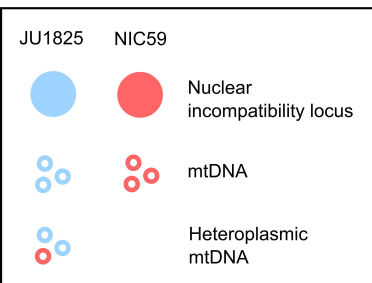
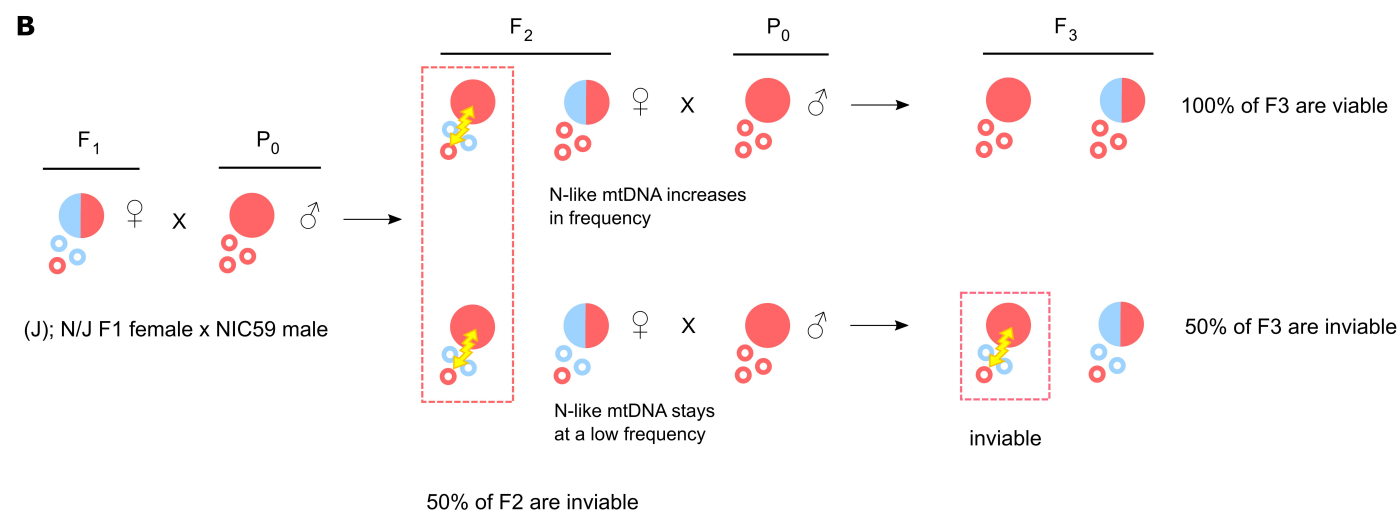
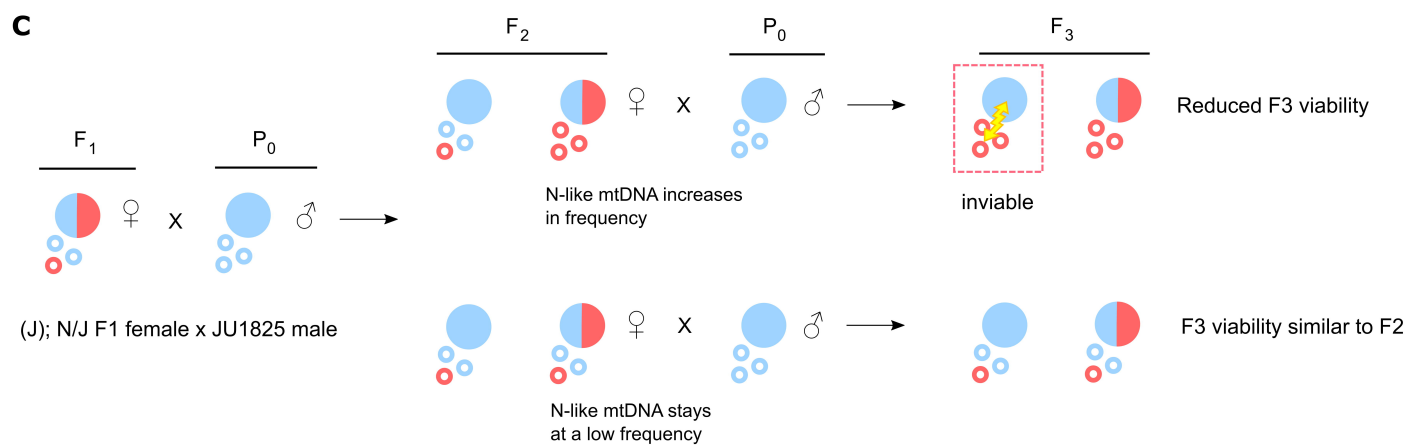


C





A**(J);N/J x NIC59****B****(J);N/J x JU1825****(J);N/J x JU1825**

A**B****C**

Viable F2