

## **Differences in effective ploidy as drivers of genome-wide endosperm expression asymmetries and seed failure in wild tomato hybrids**

Morgane Roth<sup>\*,1</sup>, Ana M. Florez-Rueda<sup>\*,2</sup> and Thomas Städler<sup>\*</sup>

<sup>\*</sup> Plant Ecological Genetics, Institute of Integrative Biology & Zurich–Basel Plant Science Center, ETH Zurich, 8092 Zurich, Switzerland

<sup>1</sup> Current address: Agroscope, Research Division Plant Breeding, 8820 Wädenswil, Switzerland

<sup>2</sup> Current address: Plant Developmental Genetics, Department of Plant and Microbial Biology & Zurich–Basel Plant Science Center, University of Zurich, 8008 Zurich, Switzerland

**Running title:** expression asymmetries in hybrid endosperm

**Keywords:** endosperm, hybrid seed failure, effective ploidy, gene expression, wild tomatoes

**Corresponding author:** Dr. Thomas Städler, Plant Ecological Genetics, Institute of Integrative Biology & Zurich–Basel Plant Science Center, ETH Zurich, Universitätstrasse 16, 8092 Zurich, Switzerland. Phone: +41-44-6327429; E-mail: [thomas.staedler@env.ethz.ch](mailto:thomas.staedler@env.ethz.ch)

## 1 **Abstract**

2 Endosperm misdevelopment leading to hybrid seed failure is a common cause of postzygotic  
3 isolation in angiosperms and is observed in both interploidy and homoploid crosses between  
4 closely related lineages. Moreover, parental dosage is critical for successful endosperm and seed  
5 development, typically requiring a ratio of two maternal to one paternal genome(s) in within-  
6 species crosses. The recently revived concept of ‘effective ploidy’ can largely explain the  
7 outcome of experimental crosses that (partly) ameliorate hybrid seed failure by manipulating the  
8 actual ploidy in one of the parents. However, genome-wide expression perturbations  
9 concomitant with levels of hybrid seed failure have yet to be reported. The tomato clade  
10 (*Solanum* section *Lycopersicon*), encompassing closely related diploids with partial-to-complete  
11 hybrid seed failure and diverse mating systems, provides outstanding opportunities to study these  
12 issues. Here we compared replicated endosperm transcriptomes from six crosses within and  
13 among three wild tomato lineages. Strikingly, both strongly inviable hybrid crosses displayed  
14 conspicuous, asymmetric expression perturbations with strong signatures of cross direction. In  
15 particular, *Solanum peruvianum*, the species inferred to have evolved higher effective ploidy  
16 than the other two, drove hybrid expression landscapes in both maternal and paternal roles. This  
17 global expression divergence was mirrored in functionally important gene families such as  
18 transcription factors and E3 ubiquitin ligases, and revealed differences in cell-cycle tuning  
19 between lineages that match phenotypic differences in developing endosperm and mature seed  
20 size between reciprocal crosses. Our work initiates the exploration of links between parental  
21 conflict, genomic imprinting, expression dosage and hybrid seed failure in flowering plants.

## 22 **Introduction**

23 Hybrid seed failure (HSF) is a common phenotype mediating early-acting postzygotic  
24 reproductive isolation in flowering plants. HSF does not necessarily result from F1 embryo  
25 defects as embryos may be rescued from developing seeds and grown to become fertile plants  
26 (Sharma *et al.* 1996). Such observations have been widely interpreted as evidence for hybrid  
27 endosperms' compromised ability to correctly nourish the embryo (Lester and Kang 1998;  
28 Sekine *et al.* 2013; Rebernig *et al.* 2015). As the products of double fertilization, embryo and  
29 endosperm are genetically closely related, yet these fertilization products are strongly dissimilar,  
30 concomitant with their different genome composition (embryo diploid, 1m:1p; endosperm  
31 triploid, 2m:1p) and methylation profiles (Gehring *et al.* 2009). This original 'brotherhood'  
32 between endosperm and embryo evolved over long periods of coevolutionary history, which  
33 might have contributed to the success of flowering plants (Baroux *et al.* 2002).

34 The frequent occurrence of HSF in interploidy crosses has been interpreted to be a  
35 consequence of endosperm sensitivity to parental dosage, establishing a reproductive barrier  
36 termed the 'triploid block' (Köhler *et al.* 2010; Stoute *et al.* 2012). A well-known feature of  
37 interploidy seed failure are the typically contrasting phenotypes of reciprocal developing and/or  
38 mature hybrid seeds (Cooper and Brink 1945; Valentine and Woodell 1963; Scott *et al.* 1998;  
39 Leblanc *et al.* 2002). Specifically, these asymmetric phenotypes comprise smaller seeds when  
40 the ovule parent is of higher ploidy ('maternal-excess phenotype') and larger seeds when the  
41 pollen parent is of higher ploidy ('paternal-excess phenotype'; Haig and Westoby 1991). As  
42 endosperm size—which largely determines mature seed size—is affected in corresponding  
43 directions in such reciprocal interploidy crosses, parental-excess phenotypes have been regarded  
44 as a direct consequence of asymmetric parental dosage in their endosperms (Scott *et al.* 1998;  
45 Sabelli and Larkins 2009; Stoute *et al.* 2012).

46 Importantly, such inferred dosage sensitivity is also suspected to play a role in the  
47 developmental trajectory and (often) abortion of homoploid hybrid seeds with similar symptoms  
48 of parental excess (Josefsson *et al.* 2006; Rebernig *et al.* 2015; Oneal *et al.* 2016; Lafon-Placette  
49 *et al.* 2017, 2018). Phenotypic asymmetries between seeds from reciprocal homoploid crosses  
50 indicate that incompatibilities expressed in hybrid endosperm encompass parental effects. These  
51 phenomena might be caused by differences in so-called 'effective ploidy, a compound property  
52 thought to determine dosage requirements for specific genes in a given lineage (reviewed in

53 Lafon-Placette and Köhler 2016), and in classical work on tuber-bearing *Solanum* species  
54 proposed as ‘endosperm balance number’ (EBN; Johnston *et al.* 1980; Ortiz and Ehlenfeld  
55 1992). In crosses between homoploid species with different effective ploidy, the species with  
56 higher effective ploidy would mimic the lineage with higher actual (karyotypic) ploidy in an  
57 interploidy cross.

58 From an evolutionary point of view, variation in effective ploidy or ‘genetic strength’ is  
59 regarded as a potential consequence of divergence between species in levels of parental conflict.  
60 According to this line of thinking, maternal interests ought to restrict seed growth to allocate  
61 resources equally among all seeds (from potentially different fathers). In contrast, paternal  
62 interests ought to promote growth only for their own sires in the face of other potential fathers,  
63 setting up competition for resource allocation between seeds from the same mother (Haig and  
64 Westoby 1991; Brandvain and Haig 2005). Under this scenario, the smaller seeds observed in  
65 maternal-excess crosses could be a manifestation of growth restrictions of maternal origin, while  
66 the larger seeds in paternal-excess crosses might reveal weakened maternal control over resource  
67 allocation, thus leading to paternally-driven overgrowth.

68 Thus far, dissimilar seed phenotypes have been revealed in interploidy crosses, yet without  
69 addressing variability in parental conflict strength between lineages. Indeed, while interploidy  
70 crosses can reveal parental effects, parental conflict is not expected to depend on ploidy level *per*  
71 *se*. Arguably, studies on homoploid interspecific hybrids are more suitable to investigate whether  
72 parental conflict strength has evolved in response to differences in mating system, long-term  
73 demographic history, and/or other evolutionary forces. Relevant studies have recently been  
74 performed in two Brassicaceae genera, *Arabidopsis* and *Capsella*, where it was shown that the  
75 parent with the outcrossing breeding system (*A. lyrata*, *A. arenosa* and *C. grandiflora*,  
76 respectively) drives seed phenotypes of maternal- and paternal-excess (Josefsson *et al.* 2006;  
77 Rebernic *et al.* 2015; Lafon-Placette *et al.* 2017, 2018); experimentally increasing the ploidy of  
78 the inbreeding species partly restored seed viability (Josefsson *et al.* 2006; Lafon-Placette *et al.*  
79 2017). Beyond these phenotypic evidences, divergence in dosage between parental species of  
80 flowering plants and its consequences for genome-wide expression modulation appear to not  
81 have previously been quantified.

82 To date, genome-wide studies on endosperm gene expression have mainly focused on  
83 characterizing genomic imprinting, *i.e.* the parent-of-origin–dependent expression of genes. A  
84 trend for elevated expression of imprinted genes in species with higher parental conflict was

85 found between closely related species, but it is currently not known whether this might  
86 contribute to incidences of HSF (Klosinska *et al.* 2016; Roth *et al.* 2018b). Of note, genomic  
87 imprinting is extensively perturbed in failing wild tomato hybrid endosperm (Florez-Rueda *et al.*  
88 2016), but it is unclear whether mis-imprinting *per se* or total expression-level changes of  
89 functionally important genes (plausibly including imprinted genes) underpin hybrid seed  
90 abortion. We may hypothesize that parental imbalances caused by divergent effective ploidy in  
91 homoploid crosses affect global expression levels and dosage-sensitive processes such as  
92 genomic imprinting. Moreover, we expect such parental imbalances to be reflected by opposite  
93 patterns of expression change in the reciprocal crosses.

94 Wild tomatoes (*Solanum* section *Lycopersicon*) provide a well-suited plant system to study  
95 developmental and evolutionary questions on HSF (Florez-Rueda *et al.* 2016; Roth *et al.* 2018a).  
96 We have recently shown that crosses between *S. arcanum* var. marañón (A), *S. chilense* (C) and  
97 *S. peruvianum* (P) result in different degrees of endosperm disruption leading to partial or  
98 complete seed inviability (Roth *et al.* 2018a). In particular, crosses between A and C yield  
99 variable proportions of viable and inviable seeds (here categorized as ‘weak-HSF’) whereas  
100 crosses between P and either A or C result in near-complete seed failure (termed ‘strong-HSF’;  
101 Figure S1). Moreover, marked phenotypic asymmetries are characteristic of seeds from  
102 reciprocal crosses of the strong-HSF category, where endosperms fathered by species P (*i.e.*  
103 from crosses AP and CP) correspond to paternal-excess phenotypes and endosperms of P  
104 maternal plants (*i.e.* from crosses PA and PC) correspond to maternal-excess phenotypes  
105 (Florez-Rueda 2014; Roth *et al.* 2018a). We thus hypothesized that lineage P experienced higher  
106 levels of parental conflict that led to its increased effective ploidy compared to C and A during  
107 their evolutionary divergence.

108 The present study seeks to (i) quantify molecular perturbations of gene expression levels in  
109 (partly or entirely) failing wild tomato endosperm, (ii) assess the prediction of genome-wide  
110 asymmetries in patterns of endosperm expression levels between reciprocal strong-HSF crosses,  
111 (iii) identify candidate genes/gene families with potentially important roles in expression  
112 perturbation, and (iv) discuss the role of parental conflict-driven differences in effective ploidy  
113 in causing or contributing to hybrid seed failure.

## 114 **Materials and Methods**

### 115 *Plant material and crosses*

116 Seeds were obtained from the Tomato Genetics Resource Center (TGRC, University of  
117 California, Davis, USA; <https://tgrc.ucdavis.edu>). We crossed three genotypes (one per species)  
118 in a full diallele design with all reciprocal crosses producing seed phenotypes typical for weak or  
119 strong seed inviability, respectively (Roth *et al.* 2018a; Figure S1). Genotypes were chosen from  
120 population LA2185 (Amazonas, Peru) for *S. arcanum* var. marañón (A), population LA4329  
121 (Antofagasta, Chile) for *S. chilense* (C) and population LA2744 (Arica and Parinacota, Chile) for  
122 *S. peruvianum* (P) to be used in hybrid crosses (Figure S2). In addition, we chose three  
123 genotypes from additional populations of each species in order to perform intraspecific  
124 reciprocal crosses (referred to as ‘controls’; Figure S2). The corresponding populations are  
125 LA1626 (Ancash, Peru) for A, LA2748 (Tarapaca, Chile) for C and LA2964 (Tacna, Peru) for P.  
126 The latter three populations were not used in hybrid crosses. As detailed in Roth *et al.* (2018a),  
127 all crosses produced normal quantities of seeds per fruit. Plants were grown from seed in an  
128 insect-free greenhouse at ETHZ (Lindau-Eschikon, canton Zurich, Switzerland). They were  
129 regularly repotted in 5-l pots using fresh soil (Ricoter Substrate 214, Ricoter Erdaufbereitung  
130 AG, Aarberg, Switzerland) and fertilizing granules (Gartensegen, Hauert HBG Dünger AG,  
131 Grossaffoltern, Switzerland). Additional liquid fertilizer was applied once or twice per  
132 month depending on the season (Wuxal<sup>®</sup> NPK solution, Aglukon Spezialdünger GmbH and Co.  
133 KG, Düsseldorf, Germany). Plants were watered two to four times per week.

134 Well before the onset of the experiments, cuttings yielded multiple ramets per genotype,  
135 from which we chose three to serve as biological replicates. All clones were maintained in a  
136 climate chamber for the duration of the whole experiment (12 h light at 18 Klux and 50%  
137 relative humidity, 12 h darkness at 0 Klux with 60% relative humidity). Reciprocal crosses were  
138 named with the two initial letters of parental lineages within brackets (all reciprocal crosses are:  
139 [AC], [AP], [CP], [AA], [CC], [PP]), and individual crosses designated by the initial letters of  
140 parental lineages without brackets, indicating the cross direction ‘mother × father’: **AA1**,  
141 LA2185A × LA1626B; **AA2**, LA1626B × LA2185A; **CC1**, LA4329B × LA2748B; **CC2**,  
142 LA2748B × LA4329B; **PP1**, LA2744B × LA2964A; **PP2**, LA2964A × LA2744B; **AC**,  
143 LA2185A × LA4329B; **CA**, LA4329B × LA2185A; **AP**, LA2185A × LA2744B; **PA**, LA2744B  
144 × LA2185A; **CP**, LA4329B × LA2744B; **PC**, LA2744B × LA4329B. This implies that AC, AP,

145 and AA1 share the same mother, that CA, CP, and CC1 share the same mother, and that PA, PC,  
146 and PP1 share the same mother. Each cross was performed three times using clonal replicates of  
147 each genotype. Fruits were sampled 12 days after manual pollinations (12 DAP)—corresponding  
148 to the early globular embryo stage—embedded, and endosperms were sampled from fruit  
149 cryosections via laser-assisted microdissection. Methods for endosperm sampling, RNA  
150 extraction, library preparation and sequencing are detailed in our previous study (Roth *et al.*  
151 2018b).

152

### 153 ***Alignment and counting methods***

154 Short read alignment was done as previously described (Roth *et al.* 2018b). Briefly, RNA-Seq  
155 quality assessment of all samples was performed with the FastQC program  
156 (<http://bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/>). Adapters were removed with cutadapt  
157 (Martin 2011). Trimming and quality filtering were done with the Perl script trimmingreads.pl  
158 from the NGSQC Toolkit version 2.3 (Patel and Jain 2012). Read mapping was performed with  
159 TopHat version 2.1.0 (Trapnell *et al.* 2009) against the SL2.50 reference genome of the  
160 cultivated tomato var. Heinz (The Tomato Genome Consortium 2012) with the corresponding  
161 annotation ITAG2.4 (International Tomato Annotation Consortium; <https://solgenomics.net/>).  
162 Mapping quality check was done with Qualimap version 2.2 (Okonechnikov *et al.* 2016) and  
163 RSeQC (Wang *et al.* 2012). Total reads per gene were counted from bam files with HTseq  
164 (Anders *et al.* 2015) using the gff ITAG2.4 annotation file (The Tomato Genome Consortium  
165 2012). Only reads with mapping quality above 20 were retained.

166

### 167 ***Statistical analyses***

168 Differential gene expression analysis (DGE) was performed with the R package EdgeR  
169 (Robinson *et al.* 2010; R Development Core Team 2014). Only genes with at least one read  
170 count per million in at least two of the 36 libraries were kept, resulting in a set of 22,006 genes.  
171 We used Multidimensional Scaling (MDS) plots to assess variation between biological  
172 replicates, using the function plotMDS in EdgeR and target groups ‘species’ for intraspecific  
173 crosses and ‘cross type’ for the whole dataset. A negative binomial model was fitted to each  
174 gene using individual crosses as factors, estimating trended dispersions (variance parameters).  
175 Differentially Expressed Genes (DEGs) were identified in the selected pairwise comparisons



176 using different contrasts with a generalized linear model likelihood ratio test ( $P$ -value correction  
177 with the Benjamini–Hochberg method for a false discovery rate [FDR] of 5%).

178 In each comparison, we used specific contrasts to compare two classes of crosses according  
179 to different criteria: (i) their seed phenotype (*e.g.* in the ‘strong–intra’ comparison, strongly  
180 abortive crosses were compared to intraspecific crosses by pooling all replicates of all strong-  
181 HSF crosses together (*i.e.* AP, PA, CP, and PC) and comparing them to all replicates of all  
182 intraspecific crosses pooled together (*i.e.* AA1, AA2, CC1, CC2, PP1, and PP2)); (ii) hybrids  
183 compared to their respective intraspecific cross sharing the same mother (*e.g.* in the ‘PA-PP1’  
184 comparison, all replicates of the PA cross were compared to all replicates of the PP1 cross); (iii)  
185 cross direction by comparing reciprocal crosses (*e.g.* in the ‘PA-AP’ comparison, all replicates of  
186 the PA cross were compared to all replicates of the AP cross); and (iv) the species in  
187 intraspecific crosses (*e.g.* in the ‘[AA]-[CC]’ comparison, we compared all replicates of AA1  
188 and AA2 to all replicates of CC1 and CC2); in total we report 18 different contrasts (Table S1,  
189 sheet ‘Contrasts’). Count data used for creating heat maps were obtained from normalized counts  
190 per million, averaged across replicates for each cross. Heat maps were plotted with the R  
191 package ‘gplots’ using hierarchical clustering (R Development Core Team 2014; Warnes *et al.*  
192 2016). The R package ‘topGO’ (Alexa and Rahnenführer 2016) was used to identify enriched  
193 Gene Ontology (GO) terms from ITAG 2.4 downloaded from Plant Ensembl Biomart  
194 datamining platform (Kinsella *et al.* 2011), using as gene universe the set of 22,006 endosperm-  
195 expressed genes. Venn diagrams were obtained with the R package ‘venneuler’ (Wilkinson  
196 2011).

197

### 198 **Data availability**

199 Raw sequence data for the RNA-sequencing dataset used in this study are available from the  
200 Sequence Read Archive (<https://trace.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Traces/sra/>) with the accession numbers  
201 PRJNA427095 (18 hybrid endosperm libraries), SRP132466 (18 within-species endosperm  
202 libraries and five parental plants; Roth *et al.* 2018b), and SRX1850236 (parent LA4329B;  
203 Florez-Rueda *et al.* 2016). Supplemental Material, Figure S1 details the distribution of seed  
204 viability in all crosses used in this study, which are a subset of a larger phenotypic study of  
205 (hybrid) seed viability (Roth *et al.* 2018a). Figure S2 is a diagram of the crossing design  
206 representing the six reciprocal crosses used for our endosperm RNA-Seq experiment. Table S1 is  
207 as large Excel table containing four data sheets: ‘Contrasts’ contains the list of 18 comparisons

208 with their corresponding contrasts used in this study, ‘DEGs’ summarizes differential gene  
209 expression (DGE) for each of them, ‘GO\_enrichment’ summarizes GO-term enrichments for  
210 differentially expressed genes (DEGs) in selected categories, and ‘DGE\_imprinted\_genes’ lists  
211 the status of candidate imprinted genes and their differential expression in all tested contrasts.  
212

## 213 **Results and Discussion**

### 214 *Molecular responses to hybridization correspond to hybrid seed failure severity*

215 Seeds with similar phenotypes are likely to have similar expression patterns in the endosperm  
216 and low proportions of DEGs between them. In turn, we hypothesized that the magnitude of  
217 gene expression differences between two crosses would broadly match their developmental  
218 trajectories (along the gradient intraspecific – weak HSF – strong HSF). We assessed this  
219 hypothesis with a suite of DGE analyses. After filtering our dataset for lowly expressed genes  
220 across the 36 libraries, 22,006 genes remained for DGE analysis, indicating that 63.4% of the  
221 ITAG2.4-annotated genes were jointly expressed in the 12-DAP endosperm of our various cross  
222 types. The multidimensional scaling (MDS) plot using expression data from only the  
223 intraspecific crosses revealed that samples broadly group by species and cross direction (Figure  
224 1A). In particular, differences in the overall gene expression landscape between [CC] and [PP]  
225 endosperms appear to be fewer than between [CC] and [AA] or [PP] and [AA] endosperms: 817  
226 DEGs were found between [PP] and [CC], 1,226 DEGs between [CC] and [AA], and 1,184  
227 DEGs between [PP] and [AA]. This apparent genome-wide expression divergence broadly  
228 reflects the differences in divergence time between A, C and P (Städler *et al.* 2008; Beddows *et*  
229 *al.* 2017). A positive correlation between genomic and expression divergence is expected from  
230 theory (Nuzhdin *et al.* 2004; Renaut *et al.* 2012). However, while our results support this notion,  
231 the correlation between expression and sequence divergence appears to be either positive  
232 (Nuzhdin *et al.* 2004; Khaitovich *et al.* 2005; Renaut *et al.* 2012) or non-significant (Jeukens *et*  
233 *al.* 2010; Wolf *et al.* 2010; Moyers and Rieseberg 2013) in previous empirical studies.

234 The global expression landscape represented by the joint analysis of all 36 samples  
235 revealed several expression profiles corresponding to different seed phenotypes (Figure 1B); the  
236 y-axis mainly separates intraspecific and weak-HSF crosses [AA], [CC], [PP] and [AC] from  
237 strong-HSF crosses [AP] and [CP]. We quantified these expression changes and found that many  
238 more genes are differentially expressed between strong-HSF ([AP] and [CP]) and intraspecific

239 endosperms ([AA], [CC] and [PP]) than between weak-HSF ([AC]) and intraspecific  
240 endosperms (3,026 vs. 682 DEGs; Figure 2A; Table S1, sheet ‘DEGs’). Interestingly, 85.5% of  
241 DEGs between strong-HSF and intraspecific endosperms overlap with DEGs between strong-  
242 HSF and weak-HSF endosperms (with the same direction of expression changes relative to  
243 strong-HSF endosperms; Table S1, sheet ‘DEGs’). Expression differences in hybrid endosperms  
244 are likely a product of hybridization *per se* (Hegarty *et al.* 2009; Combes *et al.* 2015; Raza *et al.*  
245 2017), but expression perturbation may also be expected to be stronger when parental species are  
246 more genetically diverged (Landry *et al.* 2007; Stelkens and Seehausen 2009; He *et al.* 2010).  
247 Because expression differences among intraspecific crosses reflect genetic divergence between  
248 lineages (Figure 1A), we might have expected [CP] to exhibit the least-altered expression pattern  
249 among all hybrids. To the contrary, [CP] and [AP] hybrid endosperms revealed the most  
250 dissimilar expression patterns compared to their parental intraspecific crosses, while [AC]  
251 endosperms were close to their parental intraspecific crosses in terms of overall expression  
252 landscape (Figures 1B, 2B). Also, interspecific expression differences contributed more to DEGs  
253 observed between individual hybrids and their corresponding intraspecific cross (sharing the  
254 same mother) in weak-HSF hybrids (52.5–54.4%) than in strong-HSF hybrids (only 19.3–  
255 31.9%). This suggests that gene expression divergence between parental species alone cannot  
256 explain the extensive expression changes in strongly abortive endosperms (Figure 3); rather,  
257 epistatic interactions might rewire gene regulation and generate unique expression landscapes in  
258 [AP] and [CP] hybrids which might be responsible for their extreme phenotypes and near-  
259 complete inviability (Renaut *et al.* 2009; Dion-Côté *et al.* 2014; Roth *et al.* 2018a).

260 As a consequence of extensive transcriptomic changes, a wide range of biological functions  
261 were affected in strong-HSF endosperms. DEGs between strong-HSF and intraspecific  
262 endosperms were enriched for carbohydrate and lipid metabolism, transcription regulation,  
263 chromatin conformation, cell cycle, cell structure (cell wall, microtubules), signalling (peptides,  
264 hormones, response to stress) and transport (100 GO terms; Table S1, sheet ‘GO\_enrichment’).  
265 The far fewer DEGs between weak-HSF and intraspecific endosperms were mainly enriched for  
266 terms related to carbohydrate and lipid metabolism (34 GO terms; Table S1, sheet  
267 ‘GO\_enrichment’). Changes related to signalling and cell wall modifications have been reported  
268 as potential contributors to HSF in *Arabidopsis* hybrid endosperm (Burkart-Waco *et al.* 2013),  
269 but functions relating to global transcriptome changes during endosperm-based HSF remain  
270 poorly documented. Interestingly, functions enriched among imprinted genes (*i.e.* those with

271 parent-of-origin–dependent expression) whose expression levels may be critical for seed  
272 development, seem to overlap with perturbed functions observed in strong-HSF endosperms. In  
273 particular, ten enriched GO terms found among strong-HSF DEGs were in common with GO  
274 terms enriched among wild tomato imprinted genes (Roth *et al.* 2018b; Table S1, sheet  
275 ‘GO\_enrichment’). These GO terms correspond mainly to transcription factor activity, metabolic  
276 processes and signalling and are also found enriched among imprinted genes in other species  
277 such as *A. thaliana*, rice, maize and sorghum (Gehring *et al.* 2011; Luo *et al.* 2011; Waters *et al.*  
278 2013; Zhang *et al.* 2016). Focusing on 58 conserved imprinted genes previously identified in our  
279 three wild tomato species (Roth *et al.* 2018b), we found that 23 were differentially expressed in  
280 strong-HSF endosperm vs. only four in weak-HSF endosperm, when compared to intraspecific  
281 crosses (Table S1, sheet ‘DGE\_imprinted\_genes’). While we have previously shown that  
282 maternal-to-paternal expression ratios are markedly perturbed in abortive [CP] crosses (Florez-  
283 Rueda *et al.* 2016), our results demonstrate that total expression levels of imprinted genes are  
284 also affected and could contribute to HSF in strong-HSF crosses.

### 285 286 ***Expression asymmetries between reciprocal crosses match parental-excess phenotypes***

287 For the entire transcriptome data set, we found the strongest expression differences between the  
288 reciprocals of strong-HSF crosses. Indeed, the expression landscapes of crosses with P as the  
289 ovule parent (PA and PC) on the one hand and crosses with P as the pollen parent (AP and CP)  
290 on the other hand, are fundamentally dissimilar (x-axis of the MDS plot; Figure 1B). This  
291 marked expression divergence corresponds to opposite seed phenotypes, comprising larger seeds  
292 in AP and CP crosses (‘paternal excess’-like) and smaller seeds in PA and PC crosses (‘maternal  
293 excess’-like; see Introduction).

294 The DGE analysis revealed that about one third of all endosperm-expressed genes were  
295 differentially expressed between both the PA and AP ( $n = 7,227$  genes) and the PC and CP  
296 crosses ( $n = 7,153$  genes; Figure 2C). This indicates profound parental dosage differences  
297 between reciprocals which qualitatively inherit the same parental genomes but differ in the  
298 dosage from each parent due to the asymmetric 2m:1p endosperm genomic content. In both the  
299 [AP] and [CP] reciprocal crosses, more genes were overexpressed when P was in the paternal  
300 than when it was in the maternal role (Figure 2C). Moreover, of these two sets of DEGs, 4,477  
301 genes were in common and shared the same direction of expression change in both the ‘PA-AP’  
302 and ‘PC-CP’ comparisons (only 127 genes showed opposite gene expression changes between

303 them). This high proportion of shared gene identity and expression change implies that the  
304 strong-HSF endosperms respond in a highly symmetric fashion relative to parent P, indicating  
305 that the relative dosage of P (two as ovule parent and one as pollen parent) drove global  
306 expression changes between these two reciprocal hybrid crosses. We performed a functional  
307 enrichment analysis for the 4,320 GO-annotated DEGs shared in the two comparisons ‘PA-AP’  
308 and ‘PC-CP’ (with the same direction of expression change with respect to the P parent; Table  
309 S1, sheet ‘GO\_enrichment’). Overall, these DEGs were mainly enriched for expression  
310 regulation, chromatin modifications and a large number of biosynthetic and catalytic processes  
311 (Table 1; Table S1, sheet ‘GO\_enrichment’). Transcription was affected from initiation to RNA  
312 maturation (DNA binding, RNA polymerase II, tRNA, snRNA, posttranscriptional regulation of  
313 gene expression; Table 1; Table S1, sheet ‘GO\_enrichment’). The expression of genes relating to  
314 chromatin modifications was also highly divergent between these crosses (helicases,  
315 nucleosome, replication initiation, chiasma assembly; Table 1; Table S1, sheet  
316 ‘GO\_enrichment’).

317 DEGs between reciprocal crosses can reveal functions preferentially controlled by one  
318 parent that are perturbed in hybrid endosperms. For example, transcription and chromatin-related  
319 activities were more often—but not exclusively—enriched among genes overexpressed with P as  
320 pollen parent (Table S1, sheet ‘GO\_enrichment’). Other functions seemed to be more  
321 specifically overexpressed when P was the ovule parent, such as energy metabolism (*e.g.* starch  
322 and lipids), stress signals, cell-cycle control (protein phosphorylation, protein serine/threonine  
323 kinase and auxin-related terms) and cell architecture (cell wall; Table 1; Table S1, sheet  
324 ‘GO\_enrichment’). Also, important functional categories among candidate imprinted genes such  
325 as DNA-binding (Waters *et al.* 2011; Roth *et al.* 2018b) were enriched among DEGs between  
326 reciprocal strong-HSF crosses (Table 1; Table S1, sheet ‘GO\_enrichment’). We found that a  
327 large proportion of wild tomato conserved imprinted genes were differentially expressed  
328 between CP and PC (39 out of 58 genes) and between AP and PA (29 out of 58 genes). In  
329 particular, maternally expressed genes (MEGs) were mostly overexpressed in maternal-excess  
330 endosperms (32/32 differentially expressed MEGs overexpressed in PC-CP and 20/22 MEGs  
331 differentially expressed MEGs overexpressed in PA-AP) while paternally expressed genes  
332 (PEGs) tended to be overexpressed in paternal-excess endosperms (7/7 differentially expressed  
333 PEGs overexpressed in CP-PC and 5/7 differentially expressed PEGs overexpressed in AP-PA).  
334 These expression patterns might indicate that parental excess alters specific dosage mechanisms

335 regulating the expression of imprinted genes, which is potentially lethal for the endosperm and  
336 thus the developing seed (Lafon-Placette *et al.* 2018).

337 Because transcription regulation seems to be deeply affected in reciprocal strong-HSF  
338 crosses, we scrutinized expression changes of transcription factors (TFs) and found extensive  
339 expression changes among WRKY and MADS-Box TFs (Figure 4A, B). In the WRKY-  
340 annotated genes, expression was homogeneous between intraspecific and weak-HSF crosses, but  
341 markedly different in strong-HSF endosperms. Two sets of genes were respectively over- and  
342 underexpressed in all strong-HSF crosses when compared to intraspecific and weak-HSF  
343 crosses. Two other sets of genes exhibited different expression levels between reciprocals of  
344 [AP] and [CP] (Figure 4A). The WRKY TF family is very diverse and involved in several major  
345 developmental processes including seed development (Rushton *et al.* 2010). One WRKY TF,  
346 *TRANSPARENT TESTA GLABRA2*, has been reported as a MEG in *A. thaliana* for which  
347 accession-specific dosage is essential for seed survival and involved in the control of endosperm  
348 cellularization (Dilkes *et al.* 2008). Among MADS-Box TFs, we also observed two subsets of  
349 over- and underexpressed genes in paternal-excess endosperms AP and CP compared to all other  
350 cross categories (Figure 4B). MADS-Box genes such as *AGAMOUS-LIKE* (AGL) genes are  
351 linked to the Polycomb Repressive Complex (PRC) and involved in *A. thaliana* endosperm  
352 cellularization during development (Kang *et al.* 2008; Walia *et al.* 2009). The paternal-excess  
353 phenotype of *A. thaliana* × *A. arenosa* interspecific seeds has been linked to the overexpression  
354 of several AGL genes in the developing endosperm (Walia *et al.* 2009), while downregulation of  
355 *AGL62* in *A. thaliana osdl* mutants results in a maternal-excess phenotype (Kradolfer *et al.*  
356 2013).

### 357 358 ***Higher effective ploidy of P might underlie phenotypic and transcriptomic asymmetries***

359 The phenotypic asymmetries between reciprocal, inviable hybrid crosses [AP] and [CP] coincide  
360 with seed phenotypes typically observed in interploidy crosses (see Introduction). However, P  
361 does not have an increased ploidy as all three species studied here are diploid. Although P does  
362 not exhibit higher genome-wide expression levels (Roth *et al.* 2018b), our DGE analysis found  
363 more genes overexpressed than underexpressed in [PP] endosperm compared to either [AA] or  
364 [CC] endosperm, with an overlap of 390 genes overexpressed in [PP] in both comparisons (PP-  
365 AA up = 1,471; PP-AA down = 1,176; PP-CC up = 971; PP-CC down = 851; Table 2; Table S1,  
366 sheet ‘DEGs’). This indicates that compared to both A and C, lineage P features increased

367 expression in the endosperm that is not observed genome-wide but rather restricted to a subset of  
368 genes. Interestingly, among the common set of 390 genes overexpressed in [PP] compared to  
369 both [CC] and [AA], a sizable fraction ( $n = 252$ , 64.6%) comprises genes either overexpressed in  
370 both maternal-excess crosses (PA and PC compared to AP and CP,  $n = 129$ ) or overexpressed in  
371 both paternal-excess crosses (AP and CP compared to PA and PC,  $n = 123$ ; Table S1, sheet  
372 ‘DEGs’). From these sets of genes, genes overexpressed in maternal-excess crosses are mainly  
373 enriched for nutrient reservoir activity ( $P = 0.0145$ ) and galactose metabolism ( $P = 0.0037$ ), and  
374 genes overexpressed in paternal-excess crosses are enriched for DNA binding ( $P = 3.00e-05$ ),  
375 transcription regulation ( $P = 8.00e-05$ ) and biosynthetic process ( $P = 3.55e-05$ ). These  
376 enrichments possibly reflect increased maternal influence on resource allocation in maternal-  
377 excess endosperms and increased paternal influence on the control of gene expression and  
378 growth, respectively.

379 It has recently been shown that imprinted genes in *Capsella*, and especially PEGs, tend to  
380 have increased expression in species with the highest effective ploidy (Lafon-Placette *et al.*  
381 2018). In our recent study on wild tomatoes, only a small fraction of candidate imprinted genes  
382 were significantly differentially expressed between [AA], [CC] and [PP], and these were  
383 exclusively MEGs (Roth *et al.* 2018b; Table S1, sheet ‘DGE\_imprinted\_genes’). MEGs  
384 overexpressed in [PP] were mostly found to be overexpressed in maternal-excess crosses PA and  
385 PC (6 of 7 in PA and 4 of 5 in PC; Table S1, sheet ‘DGE\_imprinted\_genes’). Thus, an increased  
386 expression of imprinted genes in P might contribute only marginally to expression asymmetries  
387 observed between reciprocals of the strong-HSF crosses. Alternatively, the contribution of  
388 imprinted genes might be underestimated because more imprinted genes still remain to be  
389 identified due to technical limitations (*e.g.* lack of parental polymorphism for many genes in the  
390 crosses used; Roth *et al.* 2018b).

391 Among the 41 putative AGL genes expressed in wild tomato endosperm, we found that 28  
392 were jointly overexpressed in both paternal-excess crosses (30 of 34 DEGs in CP-PC and 29 of  
393 31 DEGs in AP-PA comparisons). Among them, eight were also overexpressed in [PP]  
394 compared to both [CC] and [AA] endosperms. This pattern of expression suggests that these  
395 eight AGL genes might be paternally expressed, but their imprinting status could not be assessed  
396 due to lack of SNPs between our parental plants (only one AGL gene was polymorphic in P and  
397 not imprinted; Roth *et al.* 2018b). Yet, AGL genes are potentially subject to imprinting in the  
398 endosperm, as shown by the first-ever identified PEG *PHERES1*, and further AGL genes being

399 maternally or paternally expressed in *Arabidopsis* (Köhler *et al.* 2003; Shirzadi *et al.* 2011; Bai  
400 and Settles 2015). Overall, our data indicate increased expression levels in species P for genes  
401 known to be critical for seed size and seed viability, such as AGL genes. This might reflect the  
402 increased effective ploidy of this species as an evolutionary consequence of higher levels of  
403 parental conflict in P compared to both A and C (Lafon-Placette and Köhler 2016; Lafon-  
404 Placette *et al.* 2018; Roth *et al.* 2018b).

405  
406 ***Molecular functions underlying parental excess reveal differences in cell-cycle tuning***  
407 ***between lineages***

408 GO terms associated with genes differentially expressed between maternal- and paternal-excess  
409 crosses (*i.e.* PA and PC versus AP and CP, respectively) indicated contrasting cell cycle regimes.  
410 DNA replication and chiasma assembly were enriched among genes overexpressed in paternal-  
411 excess endosperms, indicating that AP and CP endosperm cells were probably still dividing at 12  
412 DAP, while proliferation had most likely stopped in the corresponding PA and PC endosperms  
413 (Table S1, sheet ‘GO\_enrichment’). Our previously published morphological measurements of  
414 various [CP] seed compartments between 10 and 13 DAP bolster this inference (Roth *et al.*  
415 2018a). Also, the enrichment in cell cycle control- and cell wall-related terms in DEGs between  
416 hybrid endosperms with P in the maternal vs. paternal role (*i.e.* PA and PC versus AP and CP,  
417 respectively) is plausibly linked to cell-proliferation differences observed between these  
418 endosperms. Related to this, we found striking expression asymmetries in E3 ubiquitin ligases  
419 whose protein products are involved in the control of the cell cycle (Inzé and De Veylder 2006;  
420 Figure 4C). Among the 20 E3 ubiquitin ligase genes expressed in our data set, eight were  
421 overexpressed in maternal-excess compared to paternal-excess endosperms, while only one gene  
422 was differentially expressed between the weak-HSF cases CA and AC (Table S1, sheet ‘DEGs’).

423 The function ‘negative regulation of growth’ was overexpressed in maternal-excess  
424 phenotypes, combined with an increased response to auxin (Table S1, sheet ‘GO\_enrichment’)  
425 which is known to exert negative control of cell division (John *et al.* 1993; Schruff *et al.* 2006;  
426 Orozco-Arroyo *et al.* 2015). *A. thaliana arf* mutants bear a non-functional *AUXIN RESPONSE*  
427 *FACTOR 2* (ARF2) and a paternal-excess phenotype with enlarged seeds due to delayed and  
428 extended cell divisions in seed tissues (Schruff *et al.* 2006). This indicates that maternal factors  
429 control the response to auxin, which is responsible for the control of cell cycle transitions.  
430 Interestingly, five ARFs were found to be MEGs in wild tomato endosperm, and three of them



431 were overexpressed in maternal-excess phenotypes (Solyc04g081240.2, Solyc07g043610.2,  
432 Solyc11g069500.1; Roth *et al.* 2018b; Table S1, sheet ‘DEGs’). Signals for cell differentiation  
433 and response to hormones involved in cell differentiation and seed maturation, such as  
434 brassinosteroids and abscisic acid (Orozco-Arroyo *et al.* 2015), were overrepresented among  
435 genes overexpressed in the maternal-excess endosperms (Table S1, sheet ‘GO\_enrichment’).  
436 Compared to intraspecific PP1 endosperm, genes involved in mitotic chromosome condensation  
437 and regulation of G2/M transition of the mitotic cell cycle were mainly underexpressed in PA  
438 and PC (category ‘down in PA-PP1 & PC-PP1’; Table S1, sheet ‘GO\_enrichment’), whereas  
439 genes involved in fruit ripening and seed dormancy were overexpressed (category ‘up in PA-PP1  
440 & PC-PP1’; Table S1, sheet ‘GO\_enrichment’). These concomitant expression changes probably  
441 reflect our histological observations that maternal-excess endosperms stopped dividing and  
442 already started to differentiate at the early globular embryo stage (Roth *et al.* 2018a).

443 We thus suggest that hormone concentrations, regulating the progression through the cell  
444 cycle, are mainly under maternal control and perturbed in opposite ways in (PA, PC) versus (AP,  
445 CP) endosperms, contributing to maternal- and paternal-excess endosperm morphologies and the  
446 corresponding seed size differences. As proposed for interploid maize crosses by Leblanc *et al.*  
447 (2002), parental dosage would influence the cell cycle such that (i) rapid mitotic arrest is due to  
448 fast G/M transitions in maternal-excess endosperm, and (ii) a longer phase of cell proliferation is  
449 due to facilitated re-entry into the S-phase (DNA replication phase) and delayed G/M transitions  
450 in paternal-excess endosperm.

451 Further, some authors have argued that HSF due to dosage imbalance is not a result of  
452 perturbed imprinting *per se* but rather a sign that imprinted regulators of cytoplasmic growth rate  
453 are misexpressed (von Wangenheim and Peterson 2004; Li and Dickinson 2010). All eukaryotic  
454 cells progress through the cell cycle by means of precise control of cyclin concentrations.  
455 Although cyclins and their regulation are only partially characterized in plants, it is known that  
456 genes encoding cyclins are controlled by growth hormones (Inzé and De Veylder 2006, and  
457 references therein). Parental control of hormones and other cell-cycle regulators would support  
458 the hypothesis that imprinting evolved to ensure stable production of certain cell components  
459 (Hurst and McVean 1998; Weisstein and Spencer 2003). Also, pervasive maternal control over  
460 hormone supply could be interpreted as a coadapted control of cell signalling between the  
461 endosperm and maternal tissues, thus allowing their synchronized development (Wolf and Hager  
462 2006).

463

464 ***Parental excess in the endosperm mediates perturbed growth of maternal seed tissues***

465 We previously reported that sporophytic tissues were affected by the hybrid state, notably in CP  
466 crosses where both nucellus and seed coat were enlarged compared to [CC] developing seeds  
467 (Roth *et al.* 2018a). Based on studies of *A. thaliana arf* mutants, Schruff *et al.* (2006) proposed  
468 that impaired auxin regulation in sporophytic tissues altered seed size. As highlighted by our  
469 morphological data on some of the same wild tomato hybrid crosses studied here (Roth *et al.*  
470 2018a), seed size and development was impaired in strong-HSF hybrids in a fashion similar to  
471 that observed by Schruff *et al.* (2006). However, in our study CP, CA and CC1 seeds inherited  
472 the same sporophytic genome (from mother C1) yet exhibited different seed viability levels,  
473 suggesting that the perturbation of auxin control is unlikely to originate in sporophytic tissues.  
474 Rather, auxin control is most likely first impaired in the endosperms of [AP] and [CP] hybrids  
475 and might subsequently mediate hormonal perturbation in sporophytic tissues.

476 Recent studies in *A. thaliana* have demonstrated that the endosperm-expressed AGL62  
477 mediates the transport of auxin from the endosperm to the integuments and underlies nucellus  
478 degradation as well as integument initiation and growth during seed development (Figueiredo *et*  
479 *al.* 2016; Xu *et al.* 2016; Fiume *et al.* 2017). These results strengthen the hypothesis that AGL  
480 and auxin deregulation in the endosperm might be tightly linked and indicate that expression  
481 perturbation in the endosperm might trigger physiological abnormalities in maternal  
482 compartments of wild tomato abortive seeds. Our results thus emphasize the central role of the  
483 endosperm as a coordinator of seed development and growth, and they lend support to maternal–  
484 offspring coadaptation of gene expression in the seed (Berger *et al.* 2006; Wolf and Hager 2006;  
485 Nowack *et al.* 2010).

486

487 ***Evolutionary implications of differences in effective ploidy for reproductive isolation***

488 We described the transcriptomes of hybrid endosperms obtained by reciprocally crossing three  
489 homoploid, closely related wild tomato lineages and found that transcriptomic differences were  
490 associated with phenotypic differences between intraspecific, partially viable, and completely  
491 inviable hybrid seeds. Our study system included two crosses with reciprocal strong-HSF  
492 phenotypes ([AP] and [CP]) which also exhibited similar expression signatures. Thus, the [AP]  
493 and [CP] data reflect independently evolved yet similar biological features, suggesting shared

494 molecular and physiological underpinnings of reproductive isolation between closely related  
495 lineages.

496 Moreover, the asymmetric phenotypes and expression landscapes of strongly abortive  
497 hybrid seeds indicate that parental conflict has facilitated the establishment of reproductive  
498 isolation. More specifically, species P appears to drive HSF at both molecular and phenotypic  
499 levels upon hybridization with lineages C or A. We thus propose that P bears an increased  
500 effective endosperm dosage, which can be interpreted as a higher effective ploidy (or EBN;  
501 Johnston *et al.* 1980; Lafon-Placette and Köhler 2016). Recent empirical data in *Capsella*  
502 suggest a positive correlation between levels of parental conflict within lineages and effective  
503 ploidy (Rebernik *et al.* 2015; Lafon-Placette *et al.* 2018). As levels of parental conflict should  
504 negatively correlate with relatedness between parents, such conflict is expected to decrease with  
505 more intense inbreeding (Brandvain and Haig 2005). Although our study included only obligate  
506 outcrossers, lineages A, C and P harbor different levels of range-wide nucleotide diversity;  
507 specifically, P is the most diverse and A the least diverse lineage (Städler *et al.* 2008; Tellier *et*  
508 *al.* 2011; Labate *et al.* 2014). Range-wide nucleotide diversity should reflect long-term effective  
509 population size; all other things being equal, one would expect lower parental conflict between  
510 two randomly drawn plants from the least polymorphic (A) compared to the more polymorphic  
511 lineages (C and, particularly, P). In summary, we infer the relative effective ploidies between  
512 lineages to be  $P \gg C \geq A$ .

513 Lafon-Placette *et al.* (2018) identified higher numbers and expression levels of PEGs in the  
514 obligatory outcrosser *Capsella grandiflora* (inferred to have the highest effective ploidy),  
515 compared to the highly selfing species *C. rubella* and the more ancient selfer *C. orientalis*. In  
516 contrast, our present and previously reported data (Roth *et al.* 2018b) entail that PEGs are  
517 expressed at similar levels between A, C and P. We also found no significant differences in the  
518 proportion of PEGs between A, C and P ( $\chi^2$  test,  $P > 0.05$ ). This lack of a clear signal regarding  
519 the number and expression level of PEGs concomitant with apparent divergence in effective  
520 ploidy within our study system can be reconciled due to the presumably closer levels of parental  
521 conflict among our wild tomato lineages (with A, C and P all being obligate outcrossers),  
522 compared to the *Capsella* system (Lafon-Placette *et al.* 2018).

523 Hybrid crosses between A and C produced variable proportions of viable seeds, suggesting  
524 they have roughly comparable effective ploidies. Despite the occurrence of a few developmental  
525 abnormalities, germinating [CA] F1 hybrids proved viable (Roth *et al.* 2018a), indicating that

526 lineages C and A have accrued only few genetic incompatibilities. On the other hand, in the  
527 crosses selected for the present study, AC seeds were larger than [AA] seeds and much larger  
528 than CA seeds, suggesting a pattern of paternal excess for AC seeds (Roth *et al.* 2018a).  
529 Consequently, C manifests signs of higher effective ploidy compared with A, but this dosage  
530 difference appears small enough to be overcome by natural (endosperm) robustness to  
531 hybridization, at least for a large fraction of seeds. Unfortunately, our dissection protocol does  
532 not allow discriminating the endosperm from viable and non-viable seeds at the pre-globular  
533 embryo stage, which could be useful to compare the transcriptomes of non-viable and viable  
534 hybrids seeds from ‘weak-HSF’ crosses.

535       Importantly, we did not find significant genome-wide differences in expression levels  
536 between [AA], [CC] and [PP] endosperms and relatively few DEGs between them (Figures 1A,  
537 3; Table 2; Table S1, sheet ‘DEGs’). Hence, we propose that the property ‘effective ploidy’  
538 manifests as the stronger expression of a limited number of specific genes controlling dosage-  
539 sensitive mechanisms, such as cell-cycle regulation; we provide a number of candidate  
540 mechanisms controlling this feature. In particular, expression levels of AGL genes seem to  
541 match the inferred genetic-value hierarchy; among the 41 putative AGL genes expressed in our  
542 dataset, eight showed expression differences between the intraspecific crosses [AA], [CC] and  
543 [PP], such that  $P > C$ ,  $P > A$ , and  $C > A$ . All eight genes were overexpressed in the paternal-  
544 excess endosperms AP and CP, and four of them were also overexpressed in AC (the hybrid  
545 combination exhibiting ‘milder’ paternal excess) such that  $AP > PA$ ,  $CP > PC$ , and  $AC > CA$   
546 (Table 3). These eight AGL genes are thus candidates for underpinning different effective  
547 ploidies between tomato lineages, and as a consequence they might be decisive for the  
548 occurrence and/or severity of HSF. Knocking out single or multiple AGL genes in parental  
549 plants or modifying their expression levels in the endosperm, as has been done in *Arabidopsis*  
550 (Walia *et al.* 2009; Kradolfer *et al.* 2013), would allow to validate their specific roles (if any) in  
551 endosperm development and seed failure in *Solanum*. The expression patterns of AGL genes in  
552 intraspecific and reciprocal hybrid comparisons indicate that they might be paternally expressed,  
553 but imprinting could not be assessed for these genes.

554       While genomic imprinting—which is at the core of the parental conflict theory—probably  
555 plays a crucial role in the evolution of effective ploidy (Lafon-Placette *et al.* 2018), our results  
556 indicate that the causal functional drivers might not be restricted to imprinted genes. We suggest  
557 that regulators of parent-specific expression, rather than strictly imprinted genes, might be

558 responsible for evolutionary changes in effective ploidy. Specifically, frequent gene duplication  
559 and neofunctionalization within specific genes families such as MADS-Box TFs (*e.g.* AGL  
560 genes; Martínez-Castilla and Alvarez-Buylla 2003) and/or imprinted genes (Yoshida and  
561 Kawabe 2013; Qiu *et al.* 2014), together with epigenetic variation impacting the control of  
562 transposable elements (Pignatta *et al.* 2014; Lafon-Placette *et al.* 2018), might modify transcript  
563 abundance and expression modes over very short evolutionary timescales. This could explain  
564 why expression levels and imprinting status of specific genes vary between closely related  
565 species such as wild tomato lineages (Roth *et al.* 2018b).

566 It has been shown that *Arabidopsis* AGL genes act within a network and that they can be  
567 non-imprinted, maternally expressed, or paternally expressed (Walia *et al.* 2009; Bai and Settles  
568 2015). Thus, any perturbation of expression levels among co-adapted AGLs in hybrids might be  
569 at the root of the genome-wide perturbations observed in strong-HSF hybrids. Within species,  
570 parental conflict might be stabilized by gene expression co-adaptation within functional  
571 networks, which might also determine the property ‘effective ploidy’. When parental species  
572 have accrued diverged effective ploidies this equilibrium may be disrupted in their hybrids,  
573 acting as a postzygotic reproductive barrier with varying quantitative effects depending on the  
574 disparity of effective ploidies as manifested in the endosperm. In this context, our work is the  
575 first to explore genome-wide expression correlates of dissimilar effective ploidies in the  
576 endosperm, thus enabling the exploration of possible links between parental conflict, expression  
577 dosage and HSF in flowering plants. It may also have practical applications in plant breeding, for  
578 example to enhance hybridization success between crops and their wild relatives by  
579 compensating effective ploidy differences with targeted, experimental ploidy changes.

## 580 **Acknowledgments**

581 We are grateful to Maja Frei and Esther Zürcher for taking expert care of the plants, to Beatrice  
582 Arnold for preparing RNA-Seq libraries, and to Claudia Michel, Silvia Kobel, and Joachim Hehl  
583 for further technical help. We thank Margot Paris for her advice on experimental design and  
584 analyses and Niklaus Zemp, Stefan Zoller and Mathias Scharmann for their generous  
585 bioinformatics advice. We are grateful to Alex Widmer for his general support of this project.  
586 We thank the C.M. Rick Tomato Genetics Resource Center at U.C. Davis for generously  
587 supplying seed samples. We acknowledge the technical support on histological preparations and  
588 laser-microdissections provided by SECTION-LAB (Hiroshima, Japan) and ScopeM (ETH  
589 Zurich, Switzerland). Sequencing data were produced at the Functional Genomics Center Zurich  
590 (University of Zurich, Switzerland). We thank the Genetic Diversity Center (ETH Zurich,  
591 Switzerland) and the Swiss Institute for Bioinformatics (Lausanne, Switzerland) for providing  
592 valuable tools and training for bioinformatics analyses. This work was supported by the Swiss  
593 National Science Foundation [31003A\_130702 to T.S.] and an ETH Research Grant [ETH-40  
594 13-2 to T.S. and Alex Widmer].

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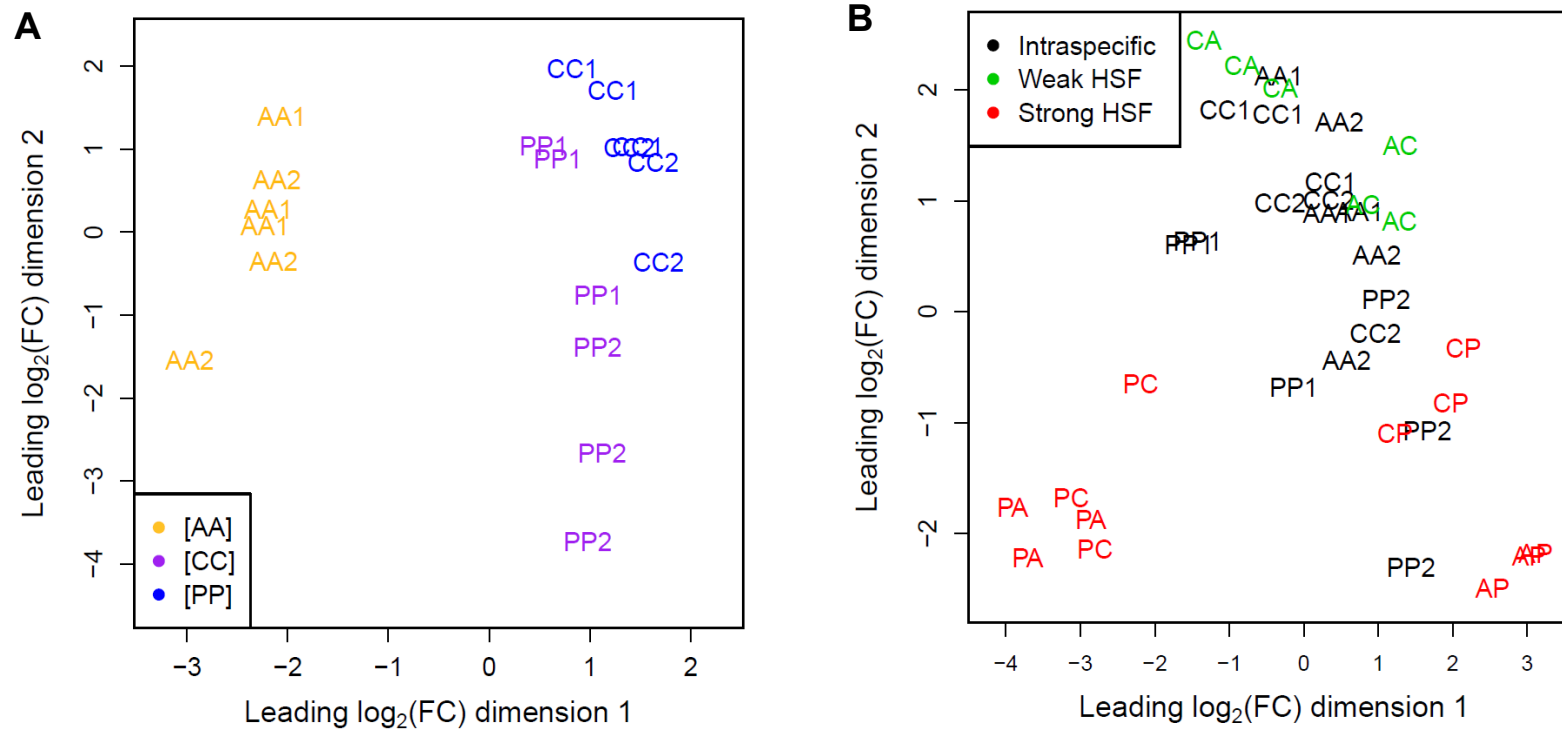
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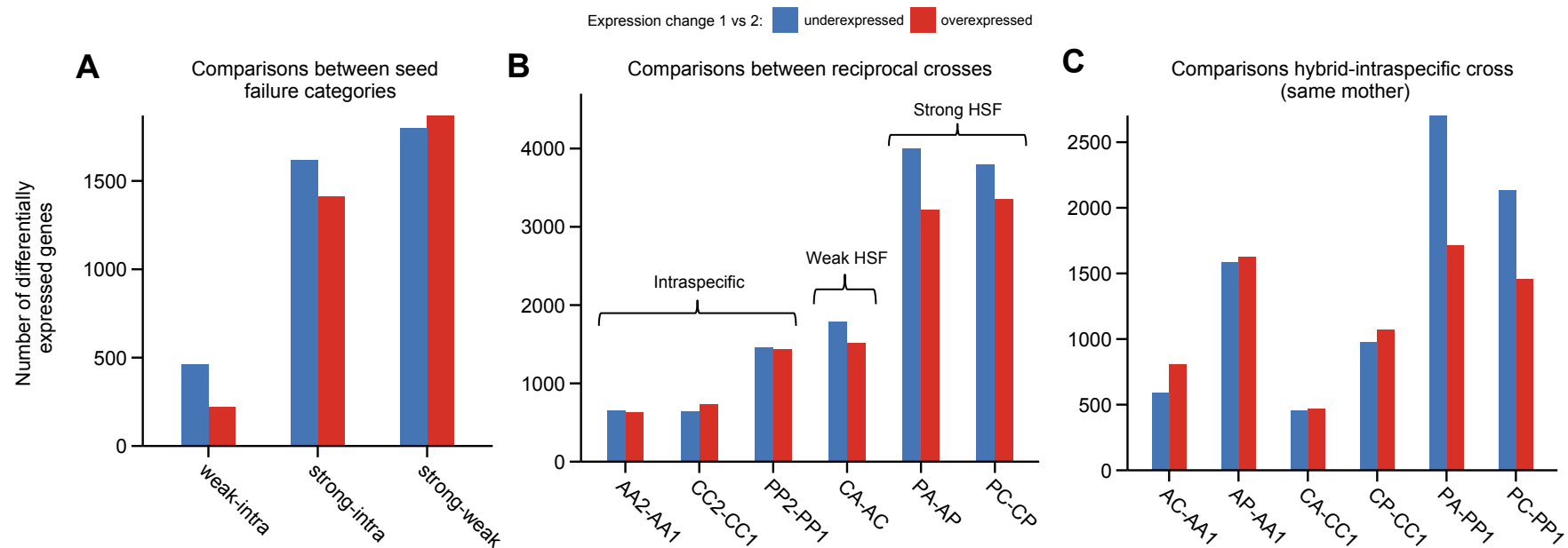
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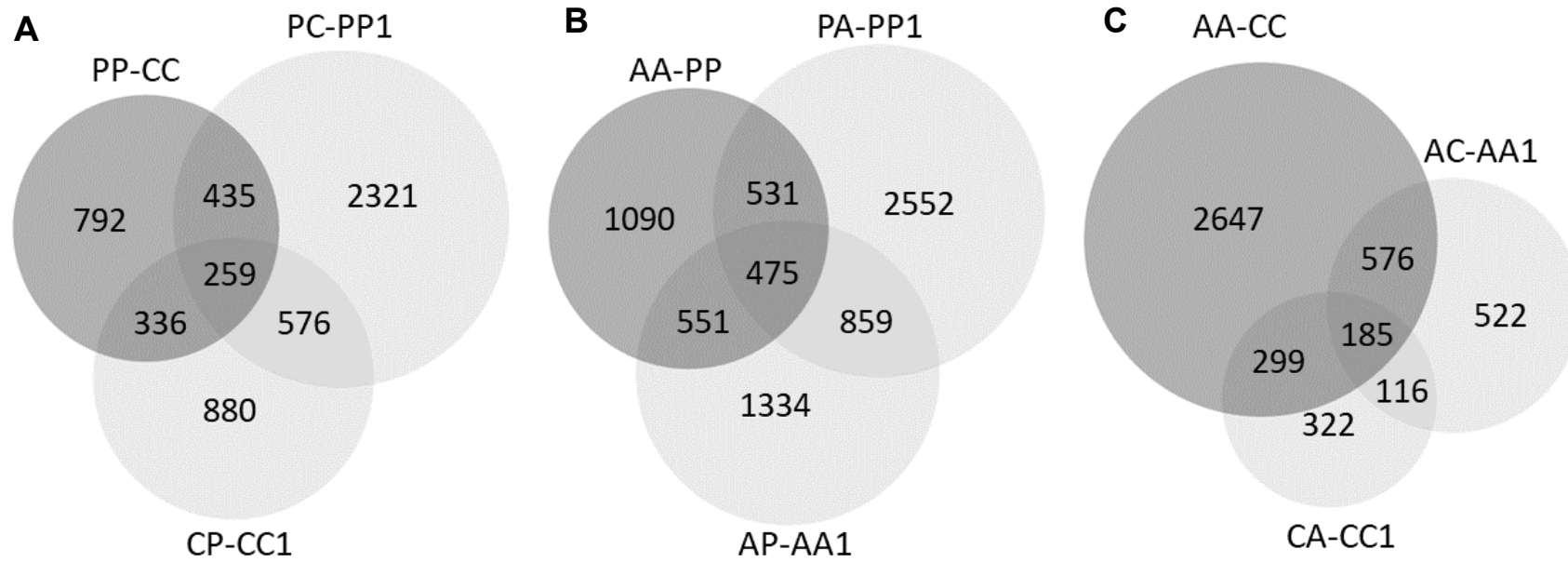


**Figure 1** Multidimensional scaling plot representing the distances between endosperm samples (*i.e.* sequencing libraries) based on the joint expression levels of 22,006 genes. (A) All 18 samples representing intraspecific, reciprocal crosses [AA], [CC] and [PP]. (B) All 36 endosperm samples (*i.e.* intraspecific as well as hybrid) analyzed jointly. HSF, hybrid seed failure;  $\log_2(\text{FC})$ ,  $\log_2$ -fold change.

A, *S. arcanum* var. marañón; C, *S. chilense*; P, *S. peruvianum*. AA1, LA2185A  $\times$  LA1626B; AA2, LA1626B  $\times$  LA2185A; CC1, LA4329B  $\times$  LA2748B; CC2, LA2748B  $\times$  LA4329B; PP1, LA2744B  $\times$  LA2964A; PP2, LA2964A  $\times$  LA2744B; AC, LA2185A  $\times$  LA4329B; CA, LA4329B  $\times$  LA2185A; AP, LA2185A  $\times$  LA2744B; PA, LA2744B  $\times$  LA2185A; CP, LA4329B  $\times$  LA2744B; PC, LA2744B  $\times$  LA4329B. Cross specifications are identical in all other display items.

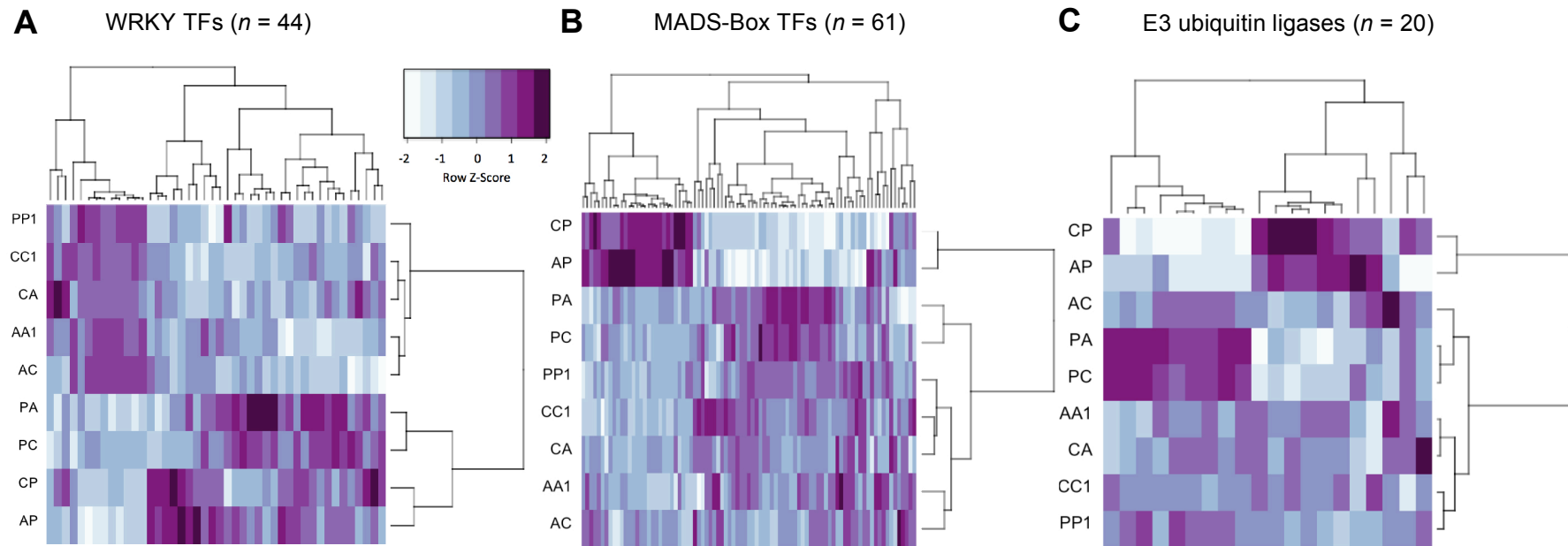


**Figure 2** Overview of numbers of differentially expressed genes (DEGs) in different cross comparisons. The direction of expression change refers to the first term as compared to the second term (*e.g.* genes upregulated in ‘weak-intra’ refers to genes upregulated in ‘weak’ compared to ‘intra’). Blue, underexpressed genes; red, overexpressed genes. (A) DEGs between designated classes of seed failure phenotype (*i.e.* intraspecific, weak hybrid seed failure (HSF), strong HSF). (B) DEGs between reciprocal crosses. (C) DEGs between hybrid and intraspecific crosses sharing the same mother.



**Figure 3** Venn diagrams representing the overlap between DEGs identified in different cross comparisons. (A) Comparisons involving lineages C and P; (B) comparisons involving lineages A and P; (C) comparisons involving lineages A and C.





**Figure 4** Heat maps representing expression variability for selected gene families among intraspecific and hybrid crosses sharing the same mother. (A) WRKY transcription factors (TFs); (B) MADS-Box TFs; (C) E3 ubiquitin ligases. Color scale according to Z-score (darker colors correspond to stronger expression values); samples and genes ordered by hierarchical clustering.

**Table 1 Top 10 GO-terms enriched among genes differentially expressed in reciprocal PA-AP and PC-CP hybrid endosperm**

Direction of change	Ontology category	GO-term ID	GO term description	#Annotated genes	#Observed genes	#Expected genes	Corrected <i>P</i> -value
Overexpressed when P is father (AP and CP crosses)	MF	4,161	dimethylallyltranstransferase activity	20	20	2	1.75E-17
	MF	3,677	DNA binding	1,358	247	163	3.25E-15
	MF	8,234	cysteine-type peptidase activity	133	49	16	2.00E-11
	MF	46,983	protein dimerization activity	354	90	43	1.63E-09
	BP	6,334	nucleosome assembly	41	20	5	7.75E-08
	BP	6,508	proteolysis	684	122	78	7.75E-08
	MF	8,289	lipid binding	125	33	15	1.50E-07
	MF	1,104	RNA polymerase II transcription cofactor activity	28	13	3	5.58E-05
	MF	46,982	protein heterodimerization activity	118	31	14	1.14E-04
	MF	30,599	pectinesterase activity	49	17	6	1.94E-04
Overexpressed when P is mother (PA and PC crosses)	MF	3,700	transcription factor activity	473	98	42	1.95E-14
	MF	43,565	sequence-specific DNA binding	265	62	23	3.75E-11
	MF	8,146	sulfotransferase activity	18	11	2	7.17E-07
	BP	6,355	regulation of transcription, DNA-templated	1,086	143	98	2.05E-06
	MF	45,735	nutrient reservoir activity	30	13	3	6.63E-06
	BP	9,734	auxin-activated signaling pathway	48	17	4	4.75E-05
	MF	4,722	protein serine/threonine phosphatase activity	79	20	7	1.20E-04
	MF	8,289	lipid binding	125	25	11	2.08E-04
	MF	4,674	protein serine/threonine kinase activity	413	61	36	4.36E-04
	BP	6,468	protein phosphorylation	934	122	84	7.67E-04

MF, molecular function; BP, biological process.

**Table 3 Expression pattern and annotation of eight AGL genes potentially contributing to differences in effective ploidy between species**

Gene model	Among-species comparisons			Reciprocal hybrid comparisons			Source	
	[PP]-[AA]	[PP]-[CC]	[CC]-[AA]	AP-PA	CP-PC	AC-CA	TFDB v3.0 <sup>a</sup>	Annotation in ITAG2.4
Solyc01g097850	UP	UP	UP	UP	UP	UP	AGAMOUS-like 62	MADS-box TF 31
Solyc01g103870	UP	UP	UP	UP	UP	ns	AGAMOUS-like 98	SRF-type TF family protein
Solyc03g033570	UP	UP	UP	UP	UP	UP	Not found	Agamous-like MADS-box protein AGL62
Solyc04g025110	UP	UP	UP	UP	UP	ns	AGAMOUS-like 62	MADS-box TF 8
Solyc04g047870	UP	UP	UP	UP	UP	ns	AGAMOUS-like 62	MADS box TF 1
Solyc06g054680	UP	UP	UP	UP	UP	UP	AGAMOUS-like 62	MADS-box TF
Solyc11g069770	UP	UP	UP	UP	UP	UP	AGAMOUS-like 62	TF MADS-box
Solyc12g016150	UP	UP	UP	UP	UP	ns	AGAMOUS-like 96	MADS-box protein (fragment)

TF, transcription factor. Up, overexpressed in first cross of each pairwise comparison; ns, non-significant expression change.

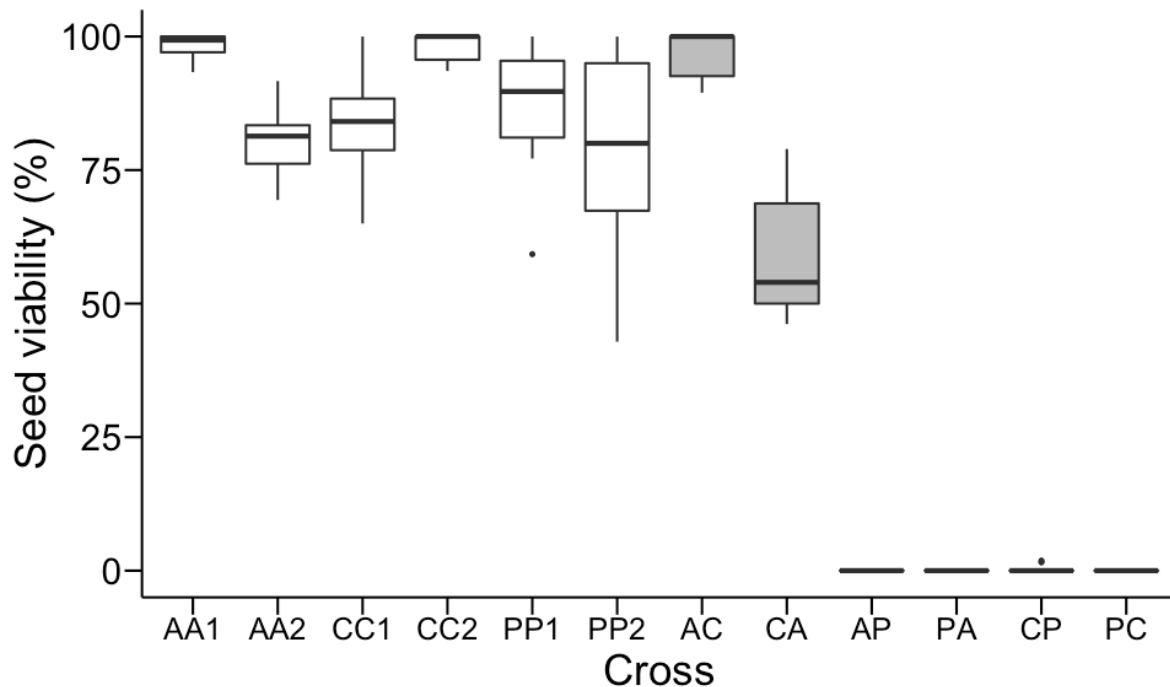
<sup>a</sup>Transcription Factor Database v3.0 ([http://planttfdb\\_v3.cbi.pku.edu.cn/](http://planttfdb_v3.cbi.pku.edu.cn/)).

**Table 2 Contingency table of differentially expressed genes (DEGs) in among-species vs. reciprocal hybrid comparisons**

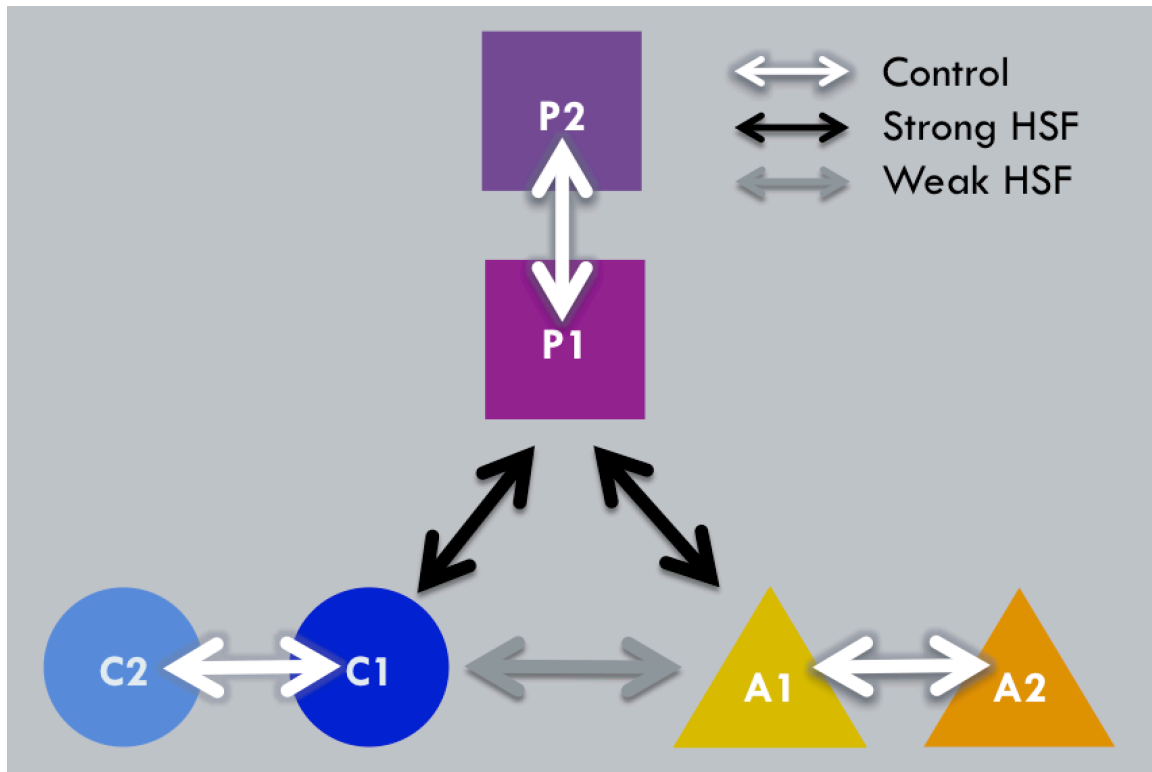
	Up in PA (down in AP)	Down in PA (up in AP)	Total # DEGs found
Up in [PP] (down in [AA])	544	385	1,471
Down in [PP] (up in [AA])	98	588	1,176
Total # DEGs found	3,222	4,005	
	Up in PC (down in CP)	Down in PC (up in CP)	Total # DEGs found
Up in [PP] (down in [CC])	409	270	971
Down in [PP] (up in [CC])	79	407	851
Total # DEGs found	3,354	3,799	
	Up in CA (down in AC)	Down in CA (up in AC)	Total # DEGs found
Up in [CC] (down in [AA])	392	258	2,198
Down in [CC] (up in [AA])	236	351	1,509
Total # DEGs found	1,513	1,784	

Comparisons among species (first column) each include both reciprocal crosses (e.g. PP1, PP2, AA1 and AA2 were used to compare expression levels of species P and A).

## SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION



**Figure S1** Box plot representing the distribution of seed viability in all crosses used in this study. Assessment of seed viability was performed visually at fruit maturity 60 days after pollination (data source: Roth *et al.* 2018a). Open boxes, intraspecific crosses; grey boxes, hybrid crosses. A, *S. arcanum* var. marañón; C, *S. chilense*; P, *S. peruvianum*. **AA1**, LA2185A × LA1626B; **AA2**, LA1626B × LA2185A; **CC1**, LA4329B × LA2748B; **CC2**, LA2748B × LA4329B; **PP1**, LA2744B × LA2964A; **PP2**, LA2964A × LA2744B; **AC**, LA2185A × LA4329B; **CA**, LA4329B × LA2185A; **AP**, LA2185A × LA2744B; **PA**, LA2744B × LA2185A; **CP**, LA4329B × LA2744B; **PC**, LA2744B × LA4329B. Cross specifications are identical in all other display items.



**Figure S2** Crossing design representing the six reciprocal crosses used for our endosperm RNA-Seq experiment. Arrows represent reciprocal crosses (white, intraspecific; black, hybrid crosses resulting in strong hybrid seed failure (HSF); grey, hybrid crosses resulting in weak HSF). Each shape represents one wild tomato genotype sampled from separate populations in species A (*S. arcanum* var. marañón; triangles), C (*S. chilense*; circles) and P (*S. peruvianum*; squares). **A1**, LA2185A; **A2**, LA1626B; **C1**, LA4329B; **C2**, LA2748B; **P1**, LA2744B; **P2**, LA2964A.

**Table S1** File composed of four data sheets: ‘Contrasts’ contains the list of 18 comparisons with their corresponding contrasts used in this study; ‘DEGs’ summarizes differential gene expression (DGE) for each of them; ‘GO\_enrichment’ summarizes GO-term enrichments for differentially expressed genes (DEGs) in selected categories; ‘DGE\_imprinted\_genes’ lists the status of candidate imprinted genes and their differential expression in all tested contrasts (separate Excel data file).