APOK3, a pollen killer antidote in Arabidopsis thaliana

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- 11 (doi:10.15454/1.5572370921303193E12)
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- 13 Running title: Pollen killer in Arabidopsis thaliana
- 14 Keywords: transmission ratio distortion, pollen killer, poison-antidote, structural variation,
- 15 Arabidopsis thaliana.

17 Abstract

According to the principles of heredity, each parental allele of hybrids equally participates in 18 19 the progeny. At some loci, however, it happens that one allele is favored to the expense of the 20 other. Gamete killers are genetic systems where one allele (the killer) triggers the death of the 21 gametes carrying the other (killed) allele. They have been found in many organisms, and are of 22 major interest to understand mechanisms of evolution and speciation. Gamete killers are 23 particularly prevalent in plants, where they can compromise crop breeding. Here, we deciphered 24 a pollen killer in Arabidopsis thaliana by exploiting natural variation, de novo genomic 25 sequencing and mutants, and analyzing segregations in crosses. We found that the killer allele 26 carries an antidote gene flanked by two elements mandatory for the killing activity. We 27 identified the gene encoding the antidote, a chimeric protein addressed to mitochondria. This 28 gene appeared in the species by association of domains recruited from other genes, and it 29 recently underwent duplications within a highly variable locus, particularly in the killer 30 genotypes. Exploring the species diversity, we identified sequence polymorphisms correlated 31 with the antidote activity.

32

33 Introduction

Genetic loci that do not comply with Mendel's laws have been observed since the dawn of genetics. First considered as being genetic curiosities, these loci with transmission ratio distortion (TRD) are now recognized to be common in fungi, plants and animals, with a particularly high incidence in plants (Fishman and McIntosh 2019). They are of major interest to understand genomic evolution, adaptation and speciation (Presgraves, 2010; Lindholm et al, 39 2016; Fishman & Sweigart, 2018; Agren & Clarck, 2018). In addition, they have significant 40 impacts on plant breeding, disturbing QTL mapping and hampering the use of genetic 41 resources. Cases of TRD have been reported in multiple plant species, with most studies 42 conducted in rice and in Arabidopsis thaliana. In rice, TRD is very common in inter-specific 43 and sub-specific crosses, and often linked to hybrid sterility (Ouyang and Zhang 2018), limiting 44 intersubspecific crosses suitable for breeding (Matsubara et al. 2011; Zhang et al. 2020). For 45 instance, 18 genomic regions were recently found to be distorted in a cross between Oryza 46 sativa ssp japonica and O. sativa ssp indica (Zhang et al. 2020). In the genus Arabidopsis, many 47 examples of inter or intra-specific hybrid incompatibilities were also reported (reviewed in Vaid 48 and Laitinen, 2019). In A. thaliana, TRD was observed in over half of a set of 17 F2 populations 49 (Salomé et al, (2012). More recently, at least one TRD was detected in ~25% of a set of 500 F2 50 populations, corresponding to more than one hundred distorted genomic regions (Seymour et 51 al. 2019).

52 Causes of TRD are often classified into two main non-exclusive types, *i.e.* (i) Bateson-53 Dobzhansky-Muller (BDM) incompatibilities, where independently evolved alleles result in 54 deleterious or sub-optimal phenotypes when brought together, and (ii) allele specific gamete 55 elimination, where one allele takes over the alternative allele in the gametes produced by a 56 heterozygote (reviewed in Ouyang and Zhang, 2013). Allele-specific gamete elimination can 57 occur at the meiotic stage, hence designated meiotic driver. It is the case, for example, of the B 58 chromosomes of cereals (Östergren 1945; Houben 2017) and the driving centromere in yellow 59 monkeyflower (Finseth et al. 2015; Finseth et al. 2021). Alternatively, gamete elimination occurs after meiosis when the favoured (killer) allele induces a defect in the gametes that carry 60 61 the alternative (killed) one, eventually causing their underrepresentation in the next generation. Such a situation was observed for the *wtf* genes in fission yeast (Nuckolls et al. 2017), the *Spok* 62 63 genes in *Podospora anserina* (Grognet et al. 2014), the SD system in Drosophila melanogaster 64 (Larracuente and Presgraves 2012), and the Sa (Long et al. 2008) and S5 (Yang et al. 2012) loci 65 in rice. In plants, loci causing TRD by allele specific gamete elimination are designated gamete 66 killers, or more specifically pollen killers (PK) when they affect the male gametes. In the 67 unraveled TRD cases in A. thaliana, the identification of causal genes showed that the 68 distortions resulted from BDM incompatibilities between parental alleles (or epialleles), most 69 often located at physically unlinked loci (Bomblies et al. 2007; Bikard et al. 2009; Durand et 70 al. 2012; Agorio et al. 2017; Jiao et al. 2021), or at one locus (Smith et al, 2011). However, in 71 contrast to rice where several gamete killers have been studied (Ouyang and Zhang 2013), PKs

have been reported only once in *A. thaliana* (Simon et al, 2016), and to our knowledge none
has been molecularly deciphered so far in this species.

74 Meiotic drivers and gamete killers have retained particular attention for their potential in 75 triggering genomic conflicts (Lindholm et al. 2016; Agren and Clark 2018). The most intriguing 76 feature of gamete killers is that killer alleles trigger a defect in the gametes that do not carry 77 them. This can be explained by one of two main genetic models (Bravo Nunez et al. 2018), 78 schematically represented in Figure 1. In both models, all the genes responsible for gamete 79 elimination are tightly linked and the killing factor is produced before (or during) meiosis, and 80 still present in all the developing gametes. In the 'killer-target' model, a partner (the target), 81 necessary for the killing activity, is encoded by the killed allele and expressed after meiosis, 82 thus present only in gametes that carry it. This model applies to the SD system of D. 83 *melanogaster* and the Sa locus of rice, for example (Bravo Nunez et al. 2018). In the 'poison-84 antidote' model, the killer allele also produces an antidote that counteracts the poison, but 85 whereas the poison produced before meiosis subsists in the gametes, the antidote does not, so 86 only the gametes that are able to produce it are rescued. Poison-antidote type segregation 87 distorters have been described in fungi and plants and include the fission yeast wtf genes 88 (Nuckolls et al. 2017) and the rice *qHMS7* PK (Yu et al. 2018).

89 Here we decipher one of the PKs that were uncovered to contribute to a male sterility observed 90 in hybrids between two A. thaliana natural variants, Shahdara (Sha) and Mr-0 (Simon et al, 91 2016). We show that this PK, located at the bottom of chromosome 3, belongs to the poison-92 antidote class, and we identified the antidote gene. This gene is chimeric and encodes a 93 mitochondrial protein; it originated and evolved in the species A. thaliana within a highly 94 variable locus. We precisely characterized the locus, showing that it contains at least two killer 95 elements required for its activity, flanking the antidote gene. By exploring the diversity within 96 the species, we found this PK in a number of A. thaliana hybrids. We then showed that in the 97 killer genotypes, the locus strongly differs from those of neutral and killed genotypes by 98 important structural variations, including duplications of the antidote gene. Lastly, we identified 99 in the antidote several polymorphisms that correlate with its protective activity.

100 **Results**

Elements leading to a segregation bias at the L3 locus are common in natural variants of *A. thaliana*

103 Amongst the PKs detected in the selfed progeny of Mr-0 x Sha hybrids (Simon et al. 2016), the L3 locus, located at the bottom of chromosome 3, induced a deficit in Sha homozygous 104 105 progenies. This was linked to the death of pollen grains carrying the Sha allele at this locus. We 106 also observed a strong bias at L3 against the Rak-2 allele in the Mr-0 x Rak-2 F2 population 107 (Simon et al. 2016), suggesting that some natural variants other than Sha possess at L3 alleles 108 sensitive to the Mr-0 killer effect. Likewise, other variants than Mr-0 could carry killer alleles. 109 After crossing 30 accessions belonging to different diversity groups (Simon et al. 2012) to Mr-0 110 and/or Sha, we analyzed the segregation at L3 in the progeny of the hybrids to reveal a possible 111 killed or killer behaviour. Similar to Sha, 14 of the 26 accessions tested in crosses with Mr-0 112 for the killed status showed a bias in the progeny of their hybrid (Table 1). Genotype 113 proportions were consistent with a 1:1 distribution of homozygotes Mr-0 and heterozygotes in most of the biased segregations, as expected if there is a gametophytic defect in these hybrids 114 115 (Table1 Source Data 1). On the other hand, among 18 accessions analyzed for a killer 116 behaviour, five induced a bias in the progeny of their hybrid with Sha, as did Mr-0 (Table 1), 117 with a distribution of genotypes that was consistent with a gametophytic defect (Table1 Source 118 Data 2). Among the 14 accessions that were tested for both killed and killer status, five 119 accessions, including Col-0, had a neutral behaviour (neither killed nor killer). And, coherently, 120 none of these 14 accessions was found to have both a killed and a killer behaviour (Table 1).

121 Table 1: Killed or killer behaviors of natural accessions

Accession	Country	Bias in cross with Mr-0: killed behaviour ⁽¹⁾	Bias in cross with Sha: killer behaviour ⁽²⁾
Shigu-2	Russia	No	Yes
Cant-1	Spain	No	Yes
Etna-2	Italy	No	Yes
Ct-1	Italy	No	Yes
Jea	France	No	Yes
Lov-5	Sweden	No	No
Blh-1	Czech Republic	No	No
Col-0	Poland	No	No
Bur-0	Ireland	No	No
Oy-0	Norway	No	No
Koch-1	Ukrainia	No	nd
N16	Russia	No	nd
Sorbo	Tajikistan	Yes	No
Cvi-0	Cape Verde Islands	Yes	No
Ita-0 ⁽³⁾	Morocco	Yes	No
Are-10	Portugal	Yes	No
Are-1	Portugal	Yes	nd
Kas-2	India	Yes	nd
Kz-1	Kazakhstan	Yes	nd
Kidr-1	Russia	Yes	nd
Kly-1	Russia	Yes	nd
N13	Russia	Yes	nd
Nov-01	Russia	Yes	nd
Rak-2	Russia	Yes	nd
Stepn-1	Russia	Yes	nd
Zal-3	Kyrgyzstan	Yes	nd
Kz-9	Kazakhstan	nd	No
Kas-1	India	nd	No
Qar-8a	Lebanon	nd	No
Etn-0	Italy	nd	No

⁽¹⁾ Table1-Source Data 1: Segregations at L3 in progenies of crosses of Mr-0 with different
 natural accessions.⁽²⁾ Table1-Source Data 2: Segregations at L3 in progenies of crosses of

124 different natural accessions with Sha.⁽³⁾ Ita-0 was tested by crossing not with Mr-0 but with

125 two other killer accessions, Ct-1 and Jea. nd: not determined.

126

127 Therefore, this segregation distorsion at L3 appears to be widespread in crosses between natural

128 accessions of *A. thaliana*, and we focused on the Mr-0 x Sha cross to investigate the underlying

- 129 genetic elements.
- 130

131 The segregation distorter at L3 in Mr-0 x Sha hybrids induces an allele specific impaired

132 pollen development

133 We previously showed that a plant segregating Sha and Mr-0 alleles only at L3 while fixed Sha in the rest of its nuclear genome (hereafter ShaL3^H) presented a strong bias against Sha 134 135 homozygous progenies, which was linked to a deficit in pollen grains carrying the Sha allele 136 (Simon et al. 2016). Here, we tested whether the segregation bias was dependent on the genetic background by comparing the selfed progenies of ShaL3^H with its equivalent in the Mr-0 137 nuclear background (MrL3^H). Their progenies showed very similar deficits in Sha homozygotes 138 139 (Table 2), indicating that the segregation distortion was independent of the fixed parental 140 nuclear background. Accordingly, anthers from both genotypes showed similar proportions of

141 dead pollen (Figure 2).

 Table 2: Segregation analyses at L3 of selfed progenies in two different nuclear backgrounds

Gonotuno		Number o	f plants ⁽¹⁾	$p q^2 (1 \cdot 2 \cdot 1)$	$f \operatorname{Sha}^{(2)}$		
Genotype	Sha	Hz	Mr-0	Total	$- p \chi^2(1:2:1)$	J Sila ()	
MrL3 ^H	14	83	73	170	1.2 10 ^{-9***}	0.08	
$ShaL3^{H(3)}$	18	87	73	178	4.0 10-8 ***	0.10	

142 ⁽¹⁾ genotyped at marker M1 (described in Figure 5 Source Data 3). ⁽²⁾ Frequency of Sha 143 homozygotes (expected frequency 0.25). ⁽³⁾ from Simon *et al.* (2016). *** p < 0.001.

144

We further studied the ShaL3^H genotype, which flowers earlier than MrL3^H. We observed a strong distortion when ShaL3^H was used as male in a cross with Sha, but no distortion when it served as female parent (Table 3). These results confirmed that the segregation distortion was only due to a PK.

 Table 3: Transmission of the Sha allele in a heterozygous context from the male and female sides

Mother plant	Numł	per of pl	ants ⁽¹⁾	$p \chi^2(1:1)$	f Sha ⁽²⁾		
	Sha	Hz	Total	<i>p</i> χ (1.1)	J Slia 🖓		
Sha x ShaL3 ^H	40	132	172	2.3 10-12***	0.23		
ShaL3 ^H x Sha	78	90	168	0.4 ^{NS}	0.46		

149 ⁽¹⁾ genotyped at marker M9 (described in Figure 5 Source Data 3). ⁽²⁾ Frequency of Sha 150 homozygotes in the test-cross (expected frequency 0.5). *** p < 0.001; NS, not significant.

151

152 We used cytological approaches to determine whether the male dysfunction occurred during

153 meiosis or during pollen development and to specify its timing. The male meiosis of ShaL3^H

154 plants was identical to that of fixed siblings at all stages (Figure 3), excluding a meiotic defect

as the source of the segregation bias in ShaL3^H plants. During male gametogenesis, abnormal

156 pollen grains were observed in anthers of ShaL3^H plants from the bicellular stage, after the first

157 pollen division (Figure 4). The proportion of abnormal pollen increased in the tricellular stage,

- and about 35% of mature pollen grains were dead in ShaL3^H plants (Figure 4), which reflects
- an incomplete penetrance since 50% dead pollen would be expected if the PK effect was total.
- 160 We concluded that, in these plants, the Sha allele at L3 is poorly transmitted because most of
- 161 the Sha pollen grains fail to develop properly from the binucleate stage and eventually die.
- 162

163 The PK at L3 contains three genetic elements

164 L3 was previously mapped in a 280 Kb interval at the bottom of chromosome 3 (Simon et al. 2016). We fine-mapped the PK in the genotype ShaL3^H using the presence of a segregation bias 165 in the self-descent of recombinants as a robust phenotypic trait to narrow down the L3 interval: 166 167 genetic markers fixed for Sha or Mr-0 alleles in recombinants with a significant bias in their 168 progeny were excluded from the candidate interval. This strategy allowed us to map all the 169 genetic elements necessary for the PK activity in an interval hereafter called PK3, 170 corresponding to the region flanked by markers M5 and M13 (68 Kb in Col-0) (Figure 5A). 171 Out of a total of 4,717 plants genotyped, we found six recombinants between M5 and M13. 172 Recombination points of these recombinants, 27D6, 25A7, 52D12, 52D7, 8F10BH2 and 23G9 173 were finely localized. Only three of these plants, 52D7, 8F10BH2 and 23G9, were recombined 174 between M6 and M12, which are very close to M5 and M13, respectively (Figure 5 Source Data 175 1). None of them presented a bias in its progeny whereas 27D6, 25A7 and 52D12, which are 176 heterozygous between M6 and M12, did. Pollen viability of the recombinants, assessed by 177 Alexander stainings, were consistent with the presence or absence of bias in their progenies 178 (Figure 5B). Further information on the genetic structure of the PK3 was obtained from the 179 three plants recombined between M6 and M12. First, by crossing 52D7 and 8F10BH2 with Sha, 180 we converted their fixed portion of the interval into a heterozygous region (Figure 5A). The 181 offsprings of these new genotypes (named i-52D7 and i-8F10BH2) did not show any 182 segregation bias, whereas their siblings heterozygous along the whole interval did (Figure 5 183 Source Data 2). This indicated that the parts of the PK3 interval that were heterozygous in 52D7 184 and in 8F10BH2 both contained elements necessary for the PK activity. We thus segmented the 185 PK3 locus into three genetic intervals, named PK3A, PK3B and PK3C (Figure 5A), PK3A and 186 PK3C both carrying elements necessary for a functional PK. Then, in order to evaluate the 187 PK3B interval, we crossed fixed progenies of 23G9 and 52D7 that inherited the recombination 188 events from their parents, and obtain a plant (23G9#15 x 52D7#7) heterozygous at both PK3A 189 and PK3C and fixed Mr-0 at PK3B (Figure 5A). The absence of segregation bias in the selfed 190 progeny of this plant showed that PK3B also carried an element necessary for the PK activity.

191 Therefore, each of the three parts of the PK3 interval contains at least one element required for

192 the PK activity. On one hand, Mr-0 alleles were required at PK3A and at PK3C: these two

193 intervals thus contain killer elements. On the other hand, when the Sha allele was absent at

194 PK3B while PK3A and PK3C were heterozygous, the PK was no longer active, indicating that

- 195 either a target element from Sha was missing, or an antidote from Mr-0 was present in all the
- 196 pollen grains produced.
- 197

198 The PK3 locus is highly variable

199 To highlight differences between Sha and Mr-0, we sequenced the entire locus in both 200 accessions. The overall structure of the PK3 locus in Sha was very similar to that of Col-0 201 (Figure 6A), the main differences being the deletion of the transposable element (TE) 202 AT3G62455, a 1308 bp insertion in the intron of AT3G62460, and an insertion of approximately 203 1 Kb in the intergenic region between AT3G62540 and AT3G62550. In contrast, the PK3 locus 204 in Mr-0 locus was particularly complex as compared to Col-0 and Sha, showing many structural 205 variations such as large deletions, insertions, duplications and inversions (Figure 6A). Two TEs 206 present in Col-0, AT3G62455 and AT3G62520, were missing in Mr-0. The TEs AT3G62475, 207 AT3G62480 and AT3G62490 that are located in the PK3A region of Sha, were absent from this 208 region in Mr-0, but its PK3B region presented a large insertion of over 20 Kb that contained 209 several TEs including AT3G62475, AT3G62480 and AT3G62490 homologues. Nonetheless, 210 the same protein coding genes are present in the three genotypes, even though Mr-0 has two 211 copies of the gene AT3G62510 and three copies of the genes AT3G62528, AT3G62530 and 212 AT3G62540, with one copy of AT3G62530 and AT3G62540 being inserted into the second 213 intron of AT3G62610 (Figure 6A).

214 Because the PK3 locus is highly rearranged between these three accessions, we looked at other 215 variants of known status for the PK phenotype. The entire genomes of 10 such variants, four 216 killers, three killed and three neutral, were de novo sequenced. PK3 sequence alignments 217 revealed structural variations relative to Col-0 in all the killers (Figure 6B). On the contrary, 218 PK3 loci of killed and neutral natural variants, excepted Bur-0, are mostly colinear with Col-0 219 (Figure 6B). When comparing the synteny of protein coding genes at the locus between A. 220 thaliana accessions and A. lyrata (Figure 7), we observed that the locus structure in Ita-0 is 221 similar to that of A. lyrata. This locus structure is also found in other Brassicaceae, such 222 Boechera stricta (Figure 7). In contrast, Col-0, the two other neutral accessions Blh-1 and Oy-0, 223 and Sha have a duplication of the A. lyrata gene AL5G45290, that encodes a pentatricopeptide 224 repeat protein (PPR), resulting in two nearly identical genes (AT3G62470 and AT3G62540).

Five additional protein coding genes (*AT3G62499* to *AT3G62530*) compared to the *A. lyrata* and Ita-0 sequences were found between the two PPR paralogues in these accessions. We also observed a great variability in the number of copies of all these genes according to the accessions. Compared to Col-0, Blh-1, Oy-0 and Sha, where they were present once, some of them were absent in the other killed accessions Cvi-0 and Are-10. On the contrary, in the killers, they have undergone a variable number of duplications, with one to four copies depending on both the genes and the accessions (Figure 7).

- 232 Given the complexity and diversity of the locus, no obvious candidate gene appeared for killer 233 or target/antidote elements. For the killer elements, an additional difficulty results from the fact 234 that two elements are necessary for the killing activity, one located in the PK3A interval and 235 the other in the PK3C interval, thereby preventing to draw conclusions from the comparison of 236 killer and non-killer alleles in a single interval. Moreover, the intervals PK3A, PK3B and PK3C 237 were delimited by the mapping recombinants between Sha and Mr-0, and, due to the structural differences between the accessions, it is not possible to infer their frontiers in the other 238 239 genotypes, at least for the limit between PK3A and PK3B. However, it can be noted that the 240 locus of the neutral accession Bur-0 is nearly identical to that of the killer Jea: only the copy of 241 AT3G62530 inserted into AT3G62610 in the PK3C interval in all the killers is missing in Bur-0 242 (Figure 7). This makes this copy, which is absent in all the non-killer alleles, a gene to be tested 243 for killer activity, although it cannot be excluded that Bur-0 lost its killer activity due to another 244 polymorphism in PK3C or in its unknown PK3A killer element. 245 We thus focused on the PK3B interval, which contains either a target element in killed alleles
- We thus focused on the PK3B interval, which contains either a target element in killed alleles or an antidote in killer and neutral alleles. However, comparison of the PK3B sequences did not reveal a gene specific for the killed alleles that could encode a target, nor a gene specific for the killer and neutral alleles that could encode an antidote. We therefore exploited mutants in each of the genes present in this region.
- 250

251 *AT3G62530*, expressed in young developing pollen, encodes the antidote.

Col-0 had a neutral behaviour regarding the PK (Table 1). That means that, in a poison-antidote model, Col-0 would carry an antidote element whose inactivation should let Col-0 pollen unprotected against Mr-0 killer. A hybrid between Col-0 with an inactivated version of the antidote and Mr-0 would then present dead pollen, and produce an F2 with a segregation bias against the Col-0 allele at L3. In order to test the poison-antidote model, we thus used T-DNA insertion mutants available in this genetic background for the eight PK3B genes. None of the homozygous mutants (Col^{mut}) was distinguishable at the phenotypic level from Col-0 in our

259 greenhouse conditions. We crossed each Col^{mut} with an early-flowering Mr-0 genotype carrying 260 a KO mutation in the FRIGIDA gene, hereafter named Mrfri (see Materials and Methods). All 261 the Mrfri x Col^{mut} F1 plants exhibited only viable pollen, except the hybrid with a T-DNA insertion in AT3G62530 (Col^{mut530}) that presented aborted pollen (Figure 8). Then, we 262 263 genotyped the F2 families at L3, which all followed the expected Mendelian proportions, with the exception of the Mrfri x Col^{mut530} and Mrfri x Col^{mut499} F2s. The latter presented a slightly 264 biased segregation against the Col^{mut499} allele, but when the Mrfri x Col^{mut499} F1 was crossed as 265 female or male parent using Mrfri as a tester, no mutant allele transmission bias was detected 266 (Figure 8). In contrast, the Mrfri x Col^{mut530} F2 population showed a strong bias against Col^{mut530} 267 homozygous genotypes, as those observed in hybrids with an active PK. We analysed the 268 mutant allele transmission in the presence of a killer allele by crossing the Mrfri x Col^{mut530} F1 269 270 as female or male with Mrfri as a tester, and we observed a significant bias against the Col^{mut530} 271 allele only when it came from pollen (Figure 8). At this step, we characterized the T-DNA 272 insertion in AT3G62530, we checked that it really inactivated the gene and did not induce pollen 273 abortion nor a bias in the transmission of the mutation to the progeny of the heterozygous 274 Col^{mut530} mutant (Table 4). These results strongly suggested that AT3G62530 encoded an 275 antidote. If this is the case, the mutation in AT3G62530 should have no effect on pollen viability 276 nor on allele segregation in the absence of a killer allele. Indeed, no dead pollen was observed 277 in the anthers of homozygous nor heterozygous Col^{mut530} (Figure 8 Supplement 2), and no segregation bias against the Col^{mut530} allele was detected in the self-progeny of the heterozygous 278 279 Col^{mut530} nor in the progeny of the Sha x Col^{mut530} hybrid (Table 4). We concluded that the presence of a killer allele was necessary to trigger the death of Col^{mut530} pollen. This was 280 confirmed by crossing Col^{mut530} with another killer accession, Ct-1: while no bias was found in 281 the progeny of the Ct-1 x Col-0 hybrid, a bias against the Col^{mut530} allele was observed in the 282 283 progeny of Ct-1 x Col^{mut530} (Table 4), which was very similar to the bias against the Sha allele 284 observed in the progeny of the Ct-1 x Sha cross.

	Ν	umber	r of plants	2	$f \operatorname{Col}^{\mathrm{mut530}(4)}$	
Genotype	not Col ^{mut530}	Hz	Col ^{mut530} Tota			
F2 (Sha x Col ^{mut530}) ⁽¹⁾	46	101	37	184	0.3 ^{NS}	0.20
heterozygote Col ^{mut530} /Col-0 ⁽²⁾	49	85	46	180	0.5^{NS}	0.26
F2 (Ct-1 x Col ^{mut530}) ⁽³⁾	74	89	21	184	2 10 ^{-7 ***}	0.11

Table 4: Segregation at L3 in F2s where the Col^{mut530} allele is confronted to a killed (Sha), neutral (Col-0) or killer (Ct-1) allele

285

⁽¹⁾ genotyped with marker M1. ⁽²⁾ genotyped with PCR primers used to characterise the mutant
(Figure 8 Supplement 2). ⁽³⁾ The progeny of the F1 (Ct-1 x Col-0) presents no TRD (Table 4
Supplement 1). ⁽⁴⁾ frequency of Col ^{mut530} homozygotes (expected frequency 0.25). *** p<
0.001; NS, not significant.

291 In the frame of the poison-antidote model, the antidote must be expressed in cells that need to 292 be protected from the poison elements, in particular in developing pollen. Indeed, RT-PCR 293 assays showed that AT3G62530, in addition to being expressed in leaves, is expressed in 294 microspores (young developing pollen, before the first pollen mitosis, Figure 4) from plants 295 either Col-0, Sha or Mr-0 at the locus (Figure 8). In addition, AT3G62530 seems one of the 296 most expressed gene in microspores amongst those of the PK3B interval, in the three genotypes. 297 All together, the above results fit perfectly with a poison-antidote system where AT3G62530 298 codes the antidote, Col-0 and Mr-0 carrying functional forms of the antidote while Sha has a 299 non-functional antidote allele. We named the gene APOK3, for ANTIDOTE OF POLLEN 300 KILLER ON CHROMOSOME 3.

301

302 APOK3 encodes a chimeric protein addressed to mitochondria

Because APOK3 is expressed at similar levels in microspores carrying the Sha allele, not protected by an antidote, and microspores carrying Col-0 or Mr-0 alleles, which must harbor an active antidote (Figure 8), we hypothesized that the allelic differences for antidote activity are due to differences at the protein level.

In Col-0, *APOK3* encodes a protein of 221 amino acids, belonging to the ARM-repeat superfamily (https://www.arabidopsis.org/), defined by the presence of tandem repeats generally forming alpha-helices (https://supfam.org/). Further analysis of structural domains identified three HEAT repeat domains (Figure 9A). Different parts of APOK3 are very similar to parts of proteins encoded by the genes *AT3G62460* (98% identity on residues 1 to 44), *AT3G43260* (66% identity and 73% similarity on residues 43 to 142) and *AT3G58180* (57% identity and 78% similarity on residues 81 to 221) (Figure 9B). These three genes are located

314 on the chromosome 3, and it is interesting to note that AT3G62460 is in the PK3A interval. 315 AT3G43260 and AT3G58180 are both annotated as related to deoxyhypusine hydroxylases of 316 other organisms, but a close examination showed that the genuine Col-0 deoxyhypusine 317 hydroxylase is encoded by AT3G58180 (Figure 9 Supplement 1). The part of the AT3G62460 318 protein shared by APOK3 includes a mitochondria-targeting peptide (Figure 9A), suggesting 319 that APOK3 is addressed to mitochondria. Indeed, APOK3 has been repeatedly found in A. thaliana mitochondrial proteomes (Heazlewood et al. 2004; Klodmann et al. 2011; Taylor et al. 320 321 2011; Konig et al. 2014; Senkler et al. 2017). We therefore hypothesized that, if the antidote 322 acts in the mitochondria, the strength of the bias due to the PK could be influenced by the 323 mother plant cytoplasmic background. As a first insight in this direction, we compared the 324 segregation distortion in the progenies of plants heterozygous Sha/Mr-0 at PK3 differing only 325 by their cytoplasmic backgrounds, and we observed that the bias was stronger in the Sha than 326 in the Mr-0 cytoplasmic background (Figure 9C). We concluded that the antidote function of 327 APOK3 is likely to be sensitive to variation in the mitochondrial genome.

328

329 APOK3 has undergone several duplication events within killer PK3 loci

Mr-0 has two strictly identical copies of *APOK3* in the PK3B interval, which have the same structure as Col-0 and Sha genes. Mr-0 also has a third copy inserted with other sequences in the intron of *AT3G62610* in the PK3C interval (Figure 10A), but the N-terminal part of this copy differs from that of the other two and is not homologous to *AT3G62460*, which suggests that this copy is functionally different from the others; it was thus named *APOK3-like*.

- 335 Our analysis of the natural variation at the PK3 locus revealed that all the killers analysed have 336 multiple copies of APOK3 (in yellow on Figure 7), with Mr-0 and Ct-1 having two copies, and 337 Cant-1, Jea and Shigu-2 having three copies each. In addition, these five accessions have an 338 APOK3-like copy inserted in AT3G62610. Bur-0, which has a neutral behavior, also possesses 339 three copies of APOK3, but no APOK3-like, even if it has an insertion of AT3G62540 in the 340 intron of AT3G62610. The other neutral accessions and the killed ones have only one copy of 341 APOK3, except Ita-0, in which no copy exists at the locus (Figure 7). No other copy of APOK3 342 was found elsewhere in the Ita-0 genome, neither by searching in the genomic sequence nor by 343 PCR amplification in Ita-0 genomic DNA. Similarly, we did not find any gene encoding a protein closer to APOK3 than to AT3G58180 neither in A. lyrata nor in other Brassicaceae 344 345 sequences available in the databases. Altogether, these results suggest that APOK3 is specific 346 to A. thaliana and has evolved within the species.
- 347

348 Antidote and non-antidote forms of APOK3 differ by three amino acids

349 In order to further explore the sequence variation of APOK3 in relation with its antidote activity, 350 we amplified and sequenced APOK3 in all the accessions whose behavior for the PK3 had been 351 determined (Table 1). The APOK3 copies found in each killer accession whose genome was de 352 novo sequenced were identical. In Etna-0, the only killer accession for which no genomic 353 sequence was available, we obtained a unique Sanger sequence for APOK3, indicating that, 354 whatever the number of copies it has, they are identical. Phylogenetic analysis clustered the 355 sequences into three clades, one grouping all copies found in accessions possessing the antidote, 356 *i.e.* killer and neutral. A second cluster groups most of copies from the killed accessions, with 357 the exception of Are-1, Are-10 and Kas-2 which branch together as a third clade (Figure 10B). 358 We identified 11 different APOK3 haplotypes, five from non-killed accessions and six from 359 killed accessions (Table 5). One polymorphism located 36 pb upstream of the ATG start codon 360 and three non-synonymous SNPs in the coding sequence distinguished non-killed from killed 361 alleles. Consequently, the APOK3 proteins with an antidote activity differ from those with no 362 antidote activity by the three amino acid changes C85S, V101D and C105R (Table 5). 363 Interestingly, the last two of these amino acids are located in the first HEAT-repeat domain of 364 the protein, suggesting these changes could modify the protein interactions and could make it 365 functional or non-functional as an antidote.

Table 5: APOK3 haplotype diversity among 27 accessions of known status for PK3

										SN	IP po	sitio	n ⁽²⁾								
	Accessions ⁽¹⁾	-36	6	17	27	56	68	152	241	248	253	332	341	363	373	378	384	415	583	765	840
	Col-0, Shigu-2, Oy-0, Blh-1, N16, Koch-1	С	Т	Т	Т	Т	С	Т	G	Α	Α	а	t	Α	Α	Т	С	G	G	t	Т
es	Mr-0 , Etna-2								Т												
antidotes	Ct-1			•										Т						g	
an	Bur-0 APOK3-1 & 2			•															С	g	
	Jea, Cant-1, Bur-0 APOK3-3, Lov-5																			g	
	Cvi-0, N13, Kly-1, Nov-01, Zal-3, Stepn-1	t		•		•					Т	•	•		Т		Т	•	•	g	
tes	Kidr-1	t		•							т		С		т		т			g	
non-antidotes	Sorbo, Kz-1, Rak-2	t		•				А			т				т		т	Т		g	
n-an	Sha	t		•			А	А			т				т		т	Т		g	
lou	Kas-2	t		•		С				С	т				т	G	т			g	G
	Are-10 , Are-1	g	С	G	С					С	т	g			т	G	т			g	
	Amino acid change position			6		19	23	51	81	83	85			98	101	103	105	115	141		
	antidote			F		L	S	V	А	Ν	S			Т	D	Y	R	G	V		
	non-antidote			С		S	Y	D	S	Т	С			S	v	D	С	V	L		

⁽¹⁾ The names of the accessions whose entire PK3 sequences are known are in bold. The Col-0 sequence (TAIR 10) is used as reference. ⁽²⁾ Base 1 of the nucleotide sequence is the A of the start codon of the protein. The nucleotides in the exons are in upper case and those in the untranslated regions in lower case. Nucleotides identical to the reference sequence are represented as dots. Multiple sequence alignment was done with ClustalW (https://www.genome.jp/tools-bin/clustalw). SNPs and amino acids specific of antidote vs non-antidote forms are in bold.

374 **Discussion**

375 As pointed out by Burga et al (2020), the discovery of poison-antidote systems in eukarvotes is 376 most often fortuitous, especially because nearly all these systems are species specific. In A. 377 thaliana too, we found PKs adventitiously when looking at a hybrid male sterility, of which 378 PKs turned out to be unexpected components, in a cross between Sha and Mr-0 natural variants 379 (Gobron et al. 2013; Simon et al. 2016). In this study, we focused on one of these PKs, 380 responsible for a deficit in Sha homozygotes at the bottom of chromosome 3 in Mr-0/Sha hybrid 381 progenies, due to the death of pollen grains carrying this allele. A TRD at the same locus was 382 found in the progenies of 19 out of 44 hybrids involving either Sha or Mr-0 as one of the parents, 383 indicating that killed or killer alleles are not rare in A. thaliana (Table 1). This is in agreement 384 with the report by Seymour et al (2019) of frequent TRD in F2 populations from 80 A. thaliana 385 founders, although these authors captured all types of segregation distorters, using a genome 386 wide detection approach. Indeed, F2 distortion at one locus can result from allelic interactions 387 either at the same locus or between different loci (Fishman and McIntosh 2019). We cannot 388 formally exclude that some of the biases observed in our F2 families are partially caused by 389 other allelic interactions than the PK3 studied here. However, our subsequent results on 390 sequence variation in the antidote gene APOK3, which grouped antidote and non-antidote forms 391 of the genes in distinct clades (Figure 10B), support our conclusion that we indeed detected the 392 effect of PK3 in these crosses. In addition, in biased F2 populations, most killer:Hz ratios 393 complied with the 1:1 ratio that is expected for a bias due to a gametophytic defect controlled 394 by a single locus. The exceptions concerned the accessions Kas-2, Kly-1, N13 and Cvi-0 in 395 crosses with Mr-0, for which F2 genotypes presented an excess in heterozygotes (>55%). These 396 cases could be explained by the presence, at loci partially linked to the PK3, of other segregation 397 distorters that affect the transmission of the Mr-0 allele.

398 Our cytological analyses showed that, in ShaL3^H plants, a defect of pollen development is 399 visible as soon as the bicellular stage (Figure 4). The proportion of affected pollen then 400 increases during development but reaches only approximately 35% of dead pollen in mature 401 anthers instead of 50% expected if the killer effect was total. This incomplete penetrance of the 402 killer effect is supported by the fact that plants homozygous for the killed allele are found in 403 the progeny of heterozygotes. Indeed, if considering that all the 35% dead pollen carry a Sha 404 allele, we theoretically expect 11,5% of Sha homozygotes in the progeny, which is very close 405 to the 10% observed (Table 2). Incomplete penetrance was also observed in other reported 406 gamete killers and meiotic drivers, for example in tomato (Rick 1966) or rice (Matsubara et al.

407 2011). In some cases, as in distorters from Drosophila (Larracuente and Presgraves 2012), rice 408 (Koide et al. 2012) and yellow monkeyflower (Finseth et al. 2021), the incomplete penetrance 409 of the phenotype was due to the presence of unlinked modifier loci that modulate the strength of the distorter. In this regard, it is interesting to note that the strength of the biases that we 410 411 observed in the F2s vary between crosses, either with Sha or with Mr-0 (Table 1 Source Data 1 412 & 2). It is conceivable that this variation be due to the presence, in some hybrids, of unlinked 413 epistatic loci involved in the sterility caused by PK3, even if in the case of Mr-0/Sha we 414 observed no difference in the biases between plants with Sha and Mr-0 fixed nuclear 415 backgrounds (Table 2). In contrast, changing the Mr-0 cytoplasmic background to the Sha one 416 had a strong effect on the elimination of the Sha allele in pollen (Figure 9C), making it almost 417 absolute (only one Sha homozygous plant among 512 progenies). Considering that APOK3 is 418 a protein targeted to mitochondria, it is tempting to hypothesize that variations in the 419 mitochondrial genome can modulate pollen sensitivity to the killer. In this case, the 420 mitochondrial genome could be considered as a 'modifier locus' of the PK. Interestingly, the 421 antidote of the rice *qHMS7* locus is also addressed to mitochondria (Yu et al. 2018) but the 422 effect of the cytoplasmic background was not explored. To date, however, there is no indication 423 that these poison-antidote systems from rice and Arabidopsis have functional similarities.

424 Our diversity survey revealed that some natural variants are neutral for the PK activity. Neutral 425 alleles have been reported not only for gamete killers in rice (Koide et al. 2018; Yu et al. 2016; 426 Wang et al. 2005; Liu et al. 2011) and tomato (Rick 1971), but also for spore killers in fungi 427 such as Neurospora (Turner 2001) and for the meiotic driver wtf in fission yeast (Nuckolls et 428 al. 2017). We took advantage of the neutral behavior of Col-0 to exploit available mutants 429 affected in each of the protein coding genes present in the interval that contains the sensitivity 430 factor of the PK. This allowed us to establish that the PK3 functions as a poison-antidote system 431 and to identify the gene encoding the antidote, APOK3, as AT3G62530. Inactivation of APOK3 432 in the neutral Col-0 allele turned it sensitive to a killer allele, as exemplified in hybrids with 433 Mr-0 (Figure 8) and Ct-1 (Table 4), whereas hybrids with Col-0 or Sha had fully viable pollen 434 and did not show any segregation distortion at the locus in their progenies (Table 4). These 435 results demonstrate that the Col-0 allele of APOK3 protects pollen from the effect of killer 436 alleles in hybrids, which is the definition of an antidote. In addition, three residues in the protein 437 sequence and one SNP in the 5'-UTR are strictly associated with the antidote forms of the gene 438 (Table 5), suggesting their involvement in its protective activity.

APOK3 molecular function still remains to be elucidated. It is annotated belonging to theARM-repeat superfamily, which mediate numerous cellular processes including signal

441 transduction, cytoskeletal regulation, nuclear import, transcriptional regulation and 442 ubiquitination (Samuel et al. 2006). The remarkable features of this protein are its interacting domains, its mitochondrial location and its chimeric structure. APOK3 has three HEAT repeat 443 444 domains (Figure 9A), predicted to form super-helixes (Andrade and Bork 1995) and to mediate 445 protein-protein interactions (Andrade et al. 2001). More specific investigations will be needed 446 to determine if these domains are involved in interactions with other mitochondrial proteins. In 447 this context, it is interesting to note that APOK3 was reported to associate with ISOCITRATE 448 DEHYDROGENASE 1, a regulatory subunit of NAD+- dependent enzyme of the tricarboxylic 449 acid cycle (TCA), and SUCCINATE DEHYDROGENASE 4, a subunit of the mitochondrial 450 respiratory complex II, in a study exploring the protein-protein interaction network of the plant 451 TCA cycle (Zhang et al. 2018). To date, the relevance to APOK3 function of its ability to bind 452 zinc bivalent ions, reported by Tan et al. (Tan et al. 2010) is difficult to assess. However, these 453 indications make excellent entry points to functional studies aiming at discovering how APOK3 454 fulfills its antidote activity. Indeed, this question has been elucidated in only very few systems, 455 among which the *wtf* spore killer of fission yeast in which the antidote was shown to co-456 assemble with the corresponding poison and address the toxic aggregates to sequestering 457 vacuoles (Nuckolls et al. 2020). Interestingly, these authors also found that genes involved in 458 the mitochondrial functioning counteract the poison activity, suggesting a role, yet to be 459 uncovered, of mitochondria in this antidote mechanism. From our results, it seems that APOK3 460 has no other biological role than being the antidote for PK3. In Col-0 the *apok3* KO mutation 461 did not reveal any obvious phenotype alterations, at least in our laboratory standard conditions. 462 Moreover, APOK3 is missing in the Moroccan accession Ita-0. This supports that APOK3 is 463 not essential to A. thaliana. In addition to be absent in Ita-0, which belongs to an ancient lineage 464 of A. thaliana (Arabidopsis Genome Consortium 2016; Durvasula et al. 2017), APOK3 has no 465 ortholog in the A. thaliana closest relative A. lyrata (Figure 7) and was not found in the available 466 Brassicaceae sequences. This argues for this gene being specific to the A. thaliana species. It is 467 thus likely that APOK3 originated after A. thaliana divergence from its common ancestor with 468 A. lyrata. The gene structure suggests that APOK3 originated from a duplication of a member 469 of the AT3G43260 and AT3G58180 gene family, followed by the recruitment of the AT3G62460 470 mitochondrial targeting sequence. In Oryza sativa ssp japonica, a comparative genome analysis 471 detected 28 new O. sativa specific genes on chromosome 3, and 14 of which were found to be 472 chimerical (Zhang et al. 2013). However, as far as we are aware, their biological functions 473 remain unknown. Because of the absence of APOK3 in any related species, we could not 474 conclusively infer whether non-antidote forms preceded antidote ones or rather derived from 475 them. However, because A. thaliana Madeiran strains such as Are-1 and Are-10 have been 476 described as archaic (Fulgione et al. 2018), our phylogenetic analysis of APOK3 (Figure 10B) 477 suggests that antidote forms evolved more recently. This would be an interesting question to address in order to understand the evolutionary trajectory of the gene in relation to its antidote 478 479 function. Indeed, poison-antidote systems are often considered as selfish genetic elements, but 480 their selfish nature is not always easy to properly establish, requiring thorough population and 481 evolutionary genetic studies not amenable in all cases (Sweigart et al. 2019). In the present case, 482 the question is still open, and deserves to be treated. It would involve the exploration of APOK3 483 sequence diversity in a wider sampling of natural variants, in particular in polymorphic A. 484 thaliana natural populations. The examination of the organization and gene content of 11 485 genotypes of different PK3 status in addition to Col-0, Sha and Mr-0 provide interesting 486 information, though, revealing the strikingly complex and variable structure of the PK3 locus 487 in particular in killer alleles. In eukaryotes, poison-antidote elements are generally found within 488 regions of high divergence and structural variation (Burga et al. 2020). These are regions with 489 low recombination (Larracuente and Presgraves 2012), which could favor the poison-antidote 490 system. Indeed, the antidote must be inherited together with the killer. In our case, the structural 491 differences between Sha and Mr-0 alleles easily explain the scarcity of recombinants found 492 inside the PK3 interval during the fine-mapping of the locus. The use of these rare recombinants 493 and of derived crosses allowed us to establish that the PK3 contains at least three genetic 494 elements necessary for the PK activity (Figure 5), the antidote being flanked by two intervals 495 each carrying elements necessary for the killer activity. Poison-antidote systems whose genetic 496 factors have been identified so far in eukaryotes other than fungi most commonly involve two 497 components (Burga et al. 2020). However, in plants, three components poison-antidote systems 498 have been previously described in rice distorter loci. In rice S1 (Xie et al. 2019), three linked 499 genes are necessary for toxicity; in rice S5 (Yang et al. 2012), two sporophytic factors are 500 necessary for the killer activity but they are not carried by the same allele. From our mapping 501 results, we cannot completely exclude that PK3A or PK3C also carry rescue activities not 502 redundant with PK3B, nor that PK3B also carries killer activity not redundant with PK3A and 503 PK3C. However, it is noticeable that this structure prevents the killer activity to be isolated 504 from the antidote by a recombination event, since such an event would also separate the two 505 mandatory killer elements.

506 The PK3 locus is particularly dynamic and prone to structural variations. Besides the Ita-0 allele 507 that is structurally similar to that of *A. lyrata*, with orthologous genes in the same order and 508 orientation (Figure 7), the other killed and the neutral alleles (excepted Bur-0) present the same

509 organization of the locus (Figure 6B), even if some protein coding genes are missing in Are-10 510 and Cvi-0 (Figure 7). Among the neutral alleles, Bur-0 is an interesting exception: it resembles 511 a killer both in structure (Figure 6B) and gene content (Figure 7), and we hypothesize it evolved 512 from a killer allele that lost its killing capacity. Comparison of the Bur-0 sequence with the very 513 similar allele of Jea will probably help identifying killer elements of PK3. The most complex 514 alleles are found in killers (Figure 6B), which are highly variable, with different groups of genes 515 duplicated in one or the other orientation and in different relative positions (Figure 7). Having 516 more than one copy of APOK3 is one remarkable common feature of the killer alleles. It is 517 likely that having multiple copies is important for killer alleles not to be the victims of their 518 own activity. Gene dosage has also been reported to be critical in a poison-antidote system in 519 C. elegans (Mani and Fay 2009). In addition, the different copies of APOK3 found in each killer 520 are identical, but may be slightly different between accessions, indicating that recent 521 duplications occurred independently in the lineages of the different variants we examined. 522 These results suggest that these alleles have experienced a more intense structural evolution 523 that neutral and killed ones, and raises the questions of the mechanisms and evolutive forces 524 leading to these structures. The presence of several transposable elements at the locus, and their 525 variation in occurrence between Sha, Mr-0 and Col-0 (Figure 6A) could be relevant to this 526 question, since TE mobility is a main source of genetic variation in A. thaliana (Baduel et al. 527 2021). It has also been suggested that the proximity of transposons has facilitated duplication 528 of the fission yeast wtf genes (Eickbush et al. 2019).

529 Even if gamete killers likely exist in all plant species, none had been investigated in A. thaliana until now, to our knowlege. The PK we dissected here has some general features of eukaryotic 530 531 poison-antidote systems, including its species-specific nature and its presence within a hyper 532 variable locus. The layout of the killer alleles is particular, with at least three mandatory 533 elements and diverse duplications of sequence blocks that contain antidote genes trapped 534 between killer elements. Continuing to exploit the natural variation of the species should help 535 identifying the killer elements, and provide clues towards the underlying mechanisms 536 responsible for the PK activity, the role of the mitochondria, and eventually the forces driving 537 the evolution of the locus.

538 539

- 540 Materials and Methods
- 541 **Plant material and growth conditions**

542 A. thaliana natural accessions were provided by the Versailles Arabidopsis Stock Center 543 (http://publiclines.versailles.inrae.fr/) and T-DNA lines were provided by the NASC 544 (http://arabidopsis.info/).

- 545 In the analysis of the Sha/Mr bias at L3, all the genotypes used had the Mr-0 cytoplasm, unless
- specified. The ShaL3^H genotype was previously designated [Mr]ShaL3^H (Simon et al. 2016). It 546
- 547 has the Mr-0 cytoplasmic genomes and a Sha nuclear background except at L3, *i.e.* between
- 548 markers M1 and M15 (Figure 5 Source Data 3), where it is heterozygous. Here we constructed 549
- the MrL3^H genotype by backcrossing the (Mr-0 x Sha) F1 by Mr-0 three times. We selected a
- 550 third backcross progeny heterozygous at L3, and at the loci L1 and L5 previously described in 551

Simon et al (2016) and we chose in its self-descent a plant homozygous Mr-0 at L1 and L5

- 552 while heterozygous from the marker M0 (Figure 5 Source Data 3) to the bottom of chromosome
- 553 3, which we called $MrL3^{H}$.
- 554 In order to save time, we constructed an early-flowering version of Mr-0 by inactivating 555 FRIGIDA (AT4G00650) by CrispR-Cas9 (Doudna and Charpentier 2014). We cloned two
- 556 guide-RNAs (275rev and 981forw, Supplemental File 1) in a pDe-Cas9-DsRed binary vector
- 557 (Morineau et al. 2016) and introduced this construct by floral dipping (Clough and Bent 1998)
- 558 in Mr-0 plants. We isolated several T1 transformants, some of them flowering earlier than Mr-
- 559 0. After segregating out the T-DNA, we selected one T2 plant homozygous for a stop mutation
- 560 in the FRIGIDA first exon. This early version of Mr-0, called Mrfri, flowers 39 days after
- 561 sowing in our greenhouse conditions. Mrfri produces viable pollen, whereas its cross with Sha
- 562 induces pollen lethality, as does Mr-0 (Figure 8 Supplement 1). As expected, it results in a
- 563 segregation distortion against Sha alleles at L3 in the progeny of Mrfri x Sha plants.
- 564 Plants were grown in the greenhouse under long-day conditions (16h day, 8h night) with 565 additional artificial light (105 μ E/m2/sec) when necessary.

566 **Cytological analyses**

- 567 DAPI staining of spread male meiotic chromosomes was performed according to (Ross et al. 1996). All stages were observed in 3 independent ShaL3^H plants and in parental controls. 568 569 Observations were made using a Zeiss Axio Imager2 microscope and photographs were taken
- 570 using an AxioCam MRm (Zeiss) camera. Propidium iodide and Alexander staining (Alexander
- 1969) of pollen were performed as described in Durand et al (2021). 571

572 **Fine-mapping and genotyping**

- DNA extractions were conducted on leaves from seedlings as described by Loudet et al (2002). 573
- 574 Markers for the fine-mapping are described in Figure 5 Source Data 1. For CAPS markers M3
- 575 and M12 we used Cac8I (NEB) and Bsp1407I (ThermoFisher) restriction enzymes,

576 respectively. Other SNPs were genotyped by sequencing. For the fine-mapping of PK3, we

577 genotyped a total of 4,717 plants and identified 42 recombinants between markers M1 and M15.

- 578 We selected 23 informative recombinants that were tested for segregation distortion at the locus
- 579 by genotyping their self-descent progenies with appropriate markers (Figure 5 Source Data 1).
- 580 All the other primers used in this work for mutant characterization, gene expression, PCR
- amplification and DNA sequencing are listed in Supplemental File 1.

582 **Purification of microspores**

This step was carried out at the Imagerie-Gif facility (https://www.i2bc.paris-saclay.fr). 583 584 Microspores were isolated from flower buds by chopping with a razor blade in 0.1M Mannitol. 585 The crude suspension was filtered through a 50-µm nylon mesh (Sysmex-Partec) and collected 586 in polypropylene tubes at 4°C. Microspores were sorted by flow cytometry using a MoFlo 587 Astrios EQC cytometer (Beckman Coulter, Roissy, France) in PuraFlow sheath fluid 588 (Beckman Coulter) at 25 psi (pounds per square inch), with a 100-micron nozzle. We performed 589 sorting with ~43 kHz drop drive frequency, plates voltage of 4000-4500 V and an amplitude of 590 30-50 V. Sorting was performed in purity mode. The 488-SSC (Side Scatter) parameter was set 591 as threshold. Microspores gate was first set on FITC-A (526/50 band-pass for autofluorescence) 592 versus SSC plot. Then, only low Forward Scatter (FSC) events were kept. The singlet gate was 593 established using autofluorescence parameters. Accuracy of gating was determined post-sorting 594 using microscopy with transmitted light and 40X dry. The flow cytometer-sorted microspores 595 (300k) were collected in 1.5-ml tubes containing 300 µL Trireagent® and conserved at -80°C 596 until subsequent RNA extraction.

597 **RNA extractions and RT-PCR**

598 We mixed on ice 500 µl of microspore suspension in TriReagent with 300 µl glass beads 599 (Sigma, G8772-100G glass beads acid washed) and two sterilized metals beads (3mm 600 diameter). The tubes were shaked $2 \ge 2.5$ min at a 1/30 frequency in a Retsch MM400 mixer 601 mill and the solution without beads was recovered in a new RNase-free tube by making a small 602 hole at the bottom of the tube and centrifuging 2 min at 3,900 rpm at 4°C. The beads were 603 rinsed with 500 µl of TRIreagent and centrifuged again. The eluate was centrifuged 2min at 604 11,000 rpm, 4°C to remove cellular debris. RNA was extracted using the extraction RNA kit 605 (Zymo research). Leaf RNA was prepared as above except that leaves were grinded in Trizol 606 with one metal bead.

607 Reverse transcription was proceeded with 200 ng of purified RNA using the Maxima reverse

608 transcriptase (Thermo Scientific) primed with oligodT in 50 μ L. After heat inactivation of the

RT, 2 μ L of cDNA were used for each PCR.

610 Sanger sequencing and annotation of Sha and Mr-0 PK3 locus

- 611 PCR and sequencing primers are listed in Supplemental File 1. Amplification products were 612 sequenced by Beckman Coulter Genomics (http://www.beckmangenomics.com). Sequences 613 were processed and aligned with Codon Code Aligner V5.0.2 614 (http://www.codoncode.com/aligner/). For Mr-0, because of the complexity of the locus, a 615 fosmid library was built using the "Copycontrol fosmid library production kit" with pCC2FOSTM vector and T1 EPI300TM E. coli strain (Illumina technologies). The library titled 616 617 7.600 cfu/mL with an average size of inserts of 35 Kb. Purification of fosmid DNA was 618 performed using the FosmidMax DNA purification kitTM (Illumina technologies).
- performed using the Fosmidiviax DNA purification kit I M (filumina technologies).
- 619 The transfer of structural and functional annotation from the Col-0 reference genome to Sha
- 620 and Mr-0 was done with the EGN-EP transfer pipeline (Sallet et al. 2019). These annotations
- were manually corrected, especially in Mr-0, to take into account copy number variations. TE
 annotation was performed with the TEannot tool (Quesneville et al. 2005),
- 623 <u>http://urgi.versailles.inra.fr/</u>) and hits of more than 1 Kb were retained.

624 De novo genome sequencing, assembly and annotation

- High molecular weight DNA was extracted from 3 week-old plantlets using a protocol modified from Mayjonade et al (2016) which is described on Protocols.io (Russo et al. 2021). The following library preparation and sequencing were performed at the GeT-PlaGe core facility,
- 628 INRAE Toulouse.
- 629 Nanopore sequencing: ONT libraries were prepared using the EXP-NBD103 and SQK-LSK109
- 630 kits according to the manufacturer's instructions and using 4 µg of 40Kb sheared DNA
- 631 (Megaruptor, Diagenode) as input. Pools of six samples were sequenced on one R9.4.1 flowcell.
- 632 Between 0.014 and 0.020 pmol of library were loaded on each flowcell and sequenced on a
- 633 PromethION instrument for 72 hours.
- 634 Illumina sequencing: Illumina libraries were prepared using the Illumina TruSeq Nano DNA
- 635 HT Library Prep Kit according to the manufacter's instructions. Libraries were then sequenced
- 636 with 2x150bp paired-end reads on an Hiseq3000 instrument (Illumina).
- Nanopore sequence datasets ranging from 4Gb to 14Gb with a minimum N50 of 22Kb wereassembled with CANU (Koren et al. 2017) software release 1.9 (genomeSize=125M)
- 639 parameter). Mitochondrion and chloroplast genomes were assembled with CANU after
- 640 selection of previously corrected CANU reads longer than 40Kb mapped with minimap2 (Li

641 2018) (-x asm5) on a databank built with Col-0 chloroplast and Col-0 and Landsberg 642 mitochondrion genomes (NCBI accessions: NC 000932, NC 037304, JF729202). Spurious 643 contigs were identified with minimap2 (-x asm5) and removed from the raw CANU assemblies. 644 A spurious contig was defined as either a contig mapped on mitochondrion or chloroplast 645 genomes or a contig mapped on a larger contig with a hit spanning at least 80% of its length. 646 Nuclear contigs were scaffolded with AllMaps (Tang et al. 2015) using Col-0 genome as 647 reference. Then, two rounds of consensus polishing using Illumina paired-end data were 648 performed. For each round, the paired-end reads were first mapped with bwa (Li and Durbin 649 2009) (0.7.17-r1188 debian) with a minimal score of 50 (-T) then pilon software (Walker et al. 650 2014) (version 1.23) was used to generate the polished consensus sequences (--fix snps, indels 651 --flank 20 -min-depth 20). Unanchored contigs shorter than 40kb were removed (considered as 652 likely contaminants as very few Illumina reads were mapped on these short contigs).

653 The genomes were annotated using the EuGène software version 4.2a via the integrative 654 pipeline egnep (Sallet et al. 2019) version 1.6 (http://eugene.toulouse.inra.fr/Downloads/egnep-655 Linux-x86 64.1.6.tar.gz). In addition to standard tools for repeat masking and lncRNA 656 prediction included in egnep, the most recent and comprehensive annotation of A. thaliana 657 available was used both as training dataset and as source of evidences. The peptide database of 658 Araport (Krishnakumar et al. 2015) version 11 (201606) was used for the similarity searches 659 performed with NCBI-BLASTX software version 2.2.31+ (hits spanning more than 80% of the 660 protein length were retained). The corresponding cDNA database (201606) was used as 661 transcriptional evidences. The cDNAs were mapped with gmap (Wu and Watanabe 2005) 662 version 2017-09-05 (hits spanning more than 30% of the transcript length at a minimum identity 663 percentage of 94 were retained).

664 In accessions with several copies of *APOK3*, occasional sequence errors subsist in some copies

665 in the automatic assemblies. To correct these errors, *APOK3* was Sanger sequenced after gene

amplification with the primers AT3G62530F1 and AT3G62530R1 (Supplemental File 1).

667 Sequence availability

668 Whole genome sequences and PK3 locus sequences are available at the doi listed in Figure 6 669 Source Data 1. Start and end of the PK3 locus were determined by homology with the Col-0 670 reference sequence.

- 671
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673 Acknowledgments

674 We gratefully acknowledge Adeline Simon for her help in bioinformatics, Fabien Nogué for 675 his advices in the CrispR Cas9 mutagenesis and Filipe Borges, Nicolas Valentin and Mickaël 676 Bourge for the microspore FACS sorting. Sebastien Santini (CNRS/AMU IGS UMR7256) and 677 the PACA Bioinfo platform (supported by IBISA) are acknowledged for the availability and 678 management of the phylogeny fr website. The present work has benefited from Imagerie-Gif 679 core facility supported by l'Agence Nationale de la Recherche (ANR-11-EQPX-680 0029/Morphoscope, ANR-10-INBS-04/FranceBioImaging; ANR-11-IDEX-0003-02/ Saclay 681 Plant Sciences) and from the support of IJPB Plant Observatory technological platforms. The 682 IJPB benefits from the support of Saclay Plant Sciences-SPS (ANR-17-EUR-0007). This work 683 was funded in part by INRAE Biology and Plant Breeding department (EVOLOX and POLLEN 684 grants) and by the Région Midi-Pyrénées (CLIMARES project) and the LABEX TULIP (ANR-685 10-LABX-41). 686

- 687 **Competing interest statement**
- 688 We declare no competing interests.

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- 929 Figure Supplements:
- 930 Figure 8 Supplement 1: Mr*fri* has the same killer behaviour as Mr-0.
- 931 Figure 8 Supplement 2: Genetic and phenotypic characterization of the Col^{mut530} mutant.
- 932 Table 4 Supplement 1: Control of segregation at L3 in the progenies of F1 (Ct-1 x Col-0).
- 933 Figure 9 Supplement 1: Tree of protein sequences for deoxyhypusine hydroxylases from
- 934 different taxa and their homologues in *A. thaliana*.
- 935
- 936 Source Data Files:
- Table 1 Source Data 1: Segregations at L3 in progenies of crosses of Mr-0 with different naturalaccessions.
- 939 Table 2 Source Data 2: Segregations at L3 in progenies of crosses of different natural accessions
- 940 with Sha.
- 941 Figure 4 Source Data 1: countings of abortive and normal grains in developing and mature
- 942 pollen of plants with PK3 and parental controls.
- 943 Figure 5 Source Data 1: Segregation analyses in the self descent of 23 recombinants identified
- 944 in PK3 fine mapping.
- 945 Figure 5 Source Data 2: Segregation at L3 in self progenies of hybrid plants derived from
- 946 recombinants 52D7, 8F10BH2 and 23G9.
- 947 Figure 5 Source Data 3: Genetic markers.
- 948 Figure 6 Source Data 1: PK3 locus DNA sequence resources.
- 949 Figure 8 Source Data 1: annotated genes in the PK3B interval.
- 950 Figure 8 Source Data 2: Segregation analyses of Mrfri x Col^{mut} F2 families.
- 951 Figure 8 Source Data 3: Transmission of the Col^{mut499} and Col^{mut530} alleles from female and
- 952 male sides.
- 953 Figure 8 Source Data 4: raw gels of RT-PCR experiments on PK3B genes.
- 954 Figure 9 Source Data 1: Segregation at L3 in reciprocal self progenies of hybrid plants derived
- from recombinants 52D7, 8F10BH2 and 18D1BC7.
- Figure 10 Source Data 1: multifasta of APOK3 gene sequences from 27 accessions of knwonstatus at PK3.
- 958
- 959 Supplemental File 1: PCR primers.
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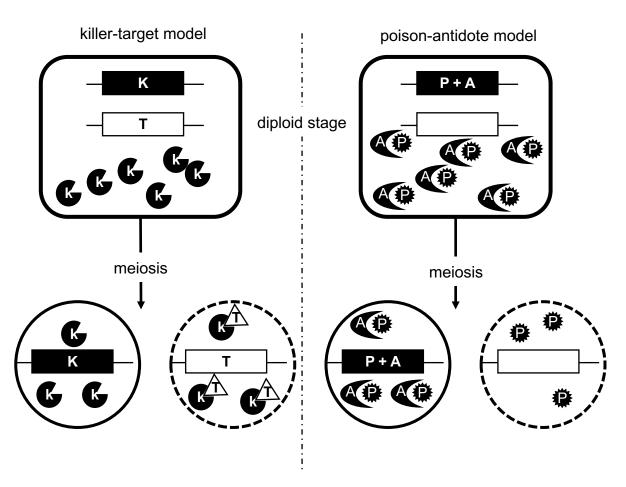


Figure 1: Two genetic models of gamete killers.

The locus is represented as a horizontal line with the killer and killed alleles as black and white boxes, respectively. For these general models, there is no hypothesis on the number of genes present in each box. In both models, the black allele is expressed before meiosis, and the killer (K) or poison (P) persists in all the gametes. In the killer-target model, only gametes with the white allele express the target (T), which interacts with K to trigger gamete death (represented as dashed outline). In the poison-antidote model, the black allele also produces a short-lived antidote (A) that counteracts P, so only the gametes that inherit the black allele are efficiently protected.

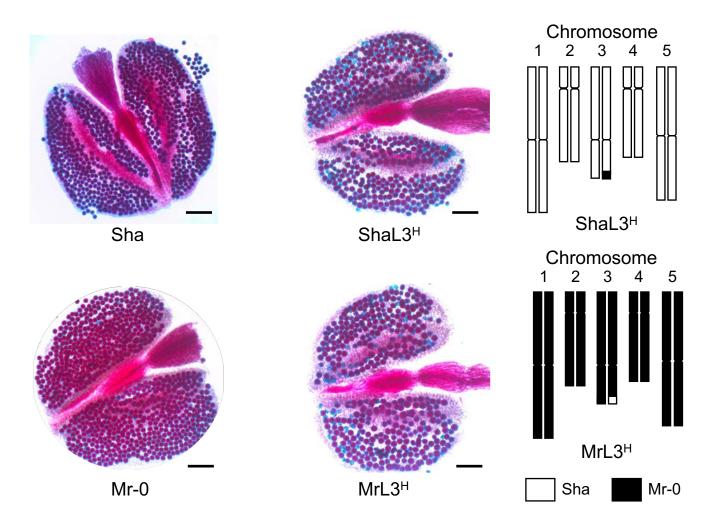


Figure 2: Plants heterozygous at L3 in either Sha or Mr-0 nuclear backgrounds show dead pollen.

Typical pollen phenotypes (Alexander staining of anthers) of ShaL3^H and MrL3^H plants compared to the parental accessions Sha and Mr-0. Viable pollen grains are stained in red, aborted pollen grains appear in blue. Scale bars: 100µm. Graphical representations of ShaL3^H and MrL3^H genotypes are displayed on the right.

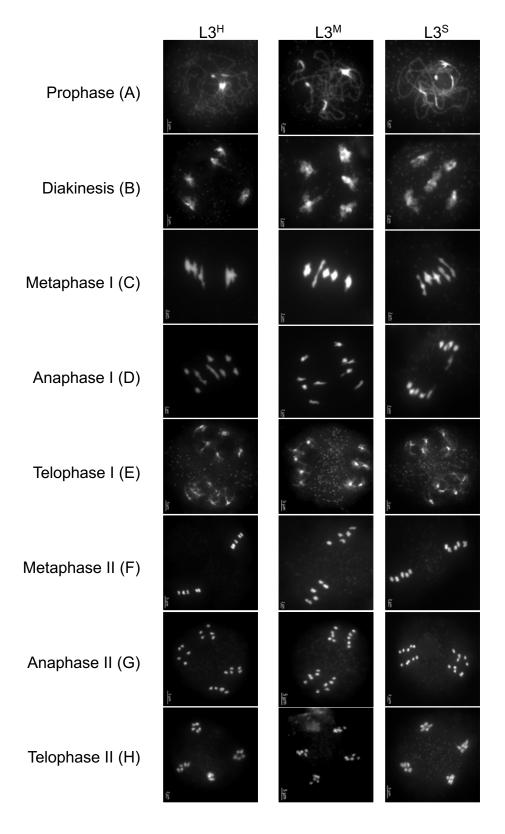


Figure 3 : Plants heterozygous at L3 in Sha nuclear background have a normal male meiosis.

The meiotic progression was analyzed by DAPI staining of meiotic chromosome spreads on anthers from siblings from a ShaL3^H plant. During prophase I (A), meiotic chromosomes condense, recombine and undergo synapsis, resulting in the formation of five bivalents which become visible at diakinesis (B). The bivalents align at metaphase I (C), and chromosomes separate from their homologues at anaphase I (D), leading to the formation of five chromosomes and two nuclei (E). At the second meiotic division, the pairs of sister chromatids align on the two metaphase plates (F), and separate at anaphase II (G) to generate four pools of five chromosomes, which give rise to tetrads of four microspores (H). The meiotic progression in plants heterozygous at L3 (L3^H, N=322) is identical to those homozygous Sha (L3^S, N=166). and Mr-0 (L3^M, N=77).

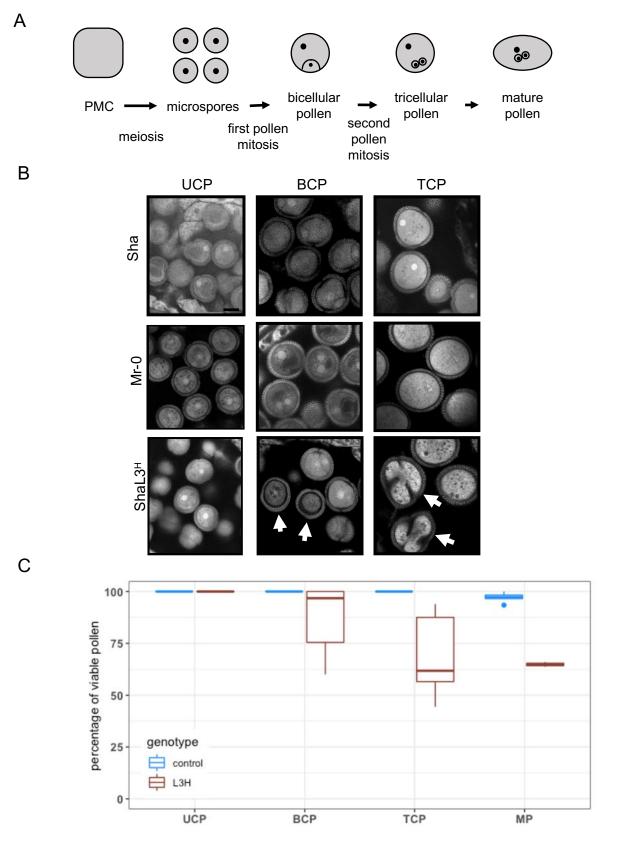
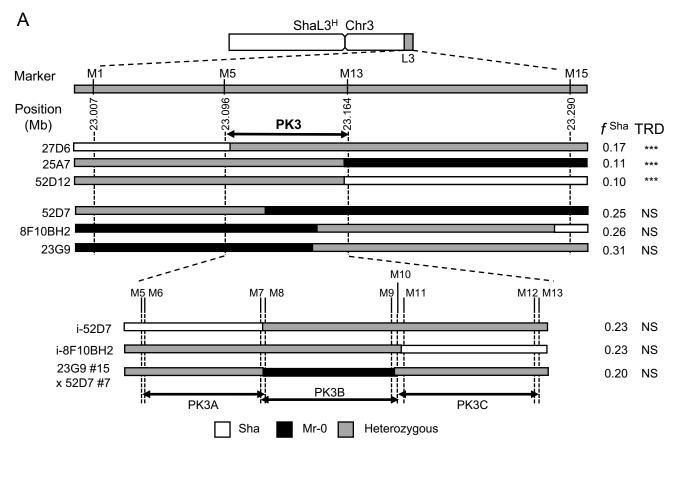


Figure 4: Pollen from plants heterozygous at L3 abort progressively from bicellular stage.

A: The scheme outlines the main steps of pollen development in *A. thaliana*: the pollen mother cell (PMC) produces haploid microspores (or unicellular pollen, UCP) through meiosis; the first pollen mitosis produces bicellular pollen (BCP); the reproductive cell divides in the second pollen mitosis to give tricellular pollen (TCP), which evolves into mature pollen (MP). B: Typical confocal images of male gametogenesis in ShaL3^H plants (bottom row) and in Sha and Mr-0 parental controls after propidium iodide (PI) staining. White arrows indicate abortive pollen. Scale bar: 10µm. C: Percentage of normal pollen (Figure 4-Source Data 1) in anthers of pooled parental (blue) and ShaL3^H (brown) plants at different stages of development (countings from confocal acquisitions of PI stainings), and in mature pollen (countings from Alexander staining).



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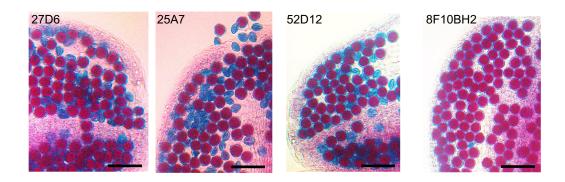
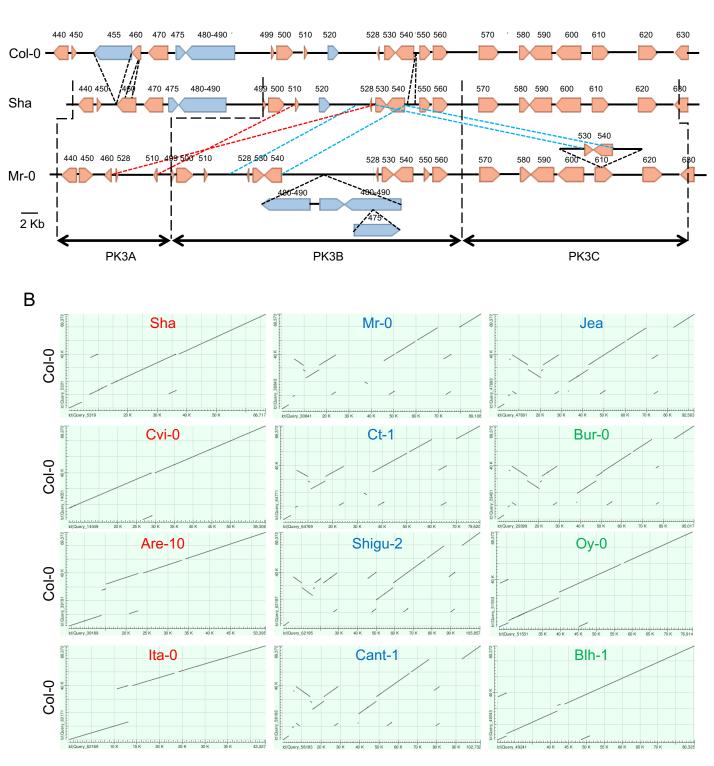


Figure 5: Fine mapping of the PK3 locus.

A: The upper panel shows the mapping of PK3 in the L3 locus delimited by the genetic markers M1 and M15 (Figure 5-Source Data 1). Markers M5 and M13 delimit the PK3 interval, where all the PK elements required to cause the segregation bias are present. Positions of markers on the TAIR10 Col-0 genomic sequence are given. The most relevant recombinants are shown, with the frequencies of Sha homozygotes (f^{Sha}) observed in their selfed progenies indicated on the right. TRD, transmission ratio distortion (chi square test for 1:2:1 segregation) *** p < 0.001, NS: not significant. The lower panel shows the further dissection of the PK3 locus into PK3A, PK3B and PK3C (Figure 5-Source Data 2). Because some markers are very close to each other (Figure 5-Source Data 1), this diagram is not to scale. Genotypes used to dissect the PK3 are presented: i-52D7 and i-8F10BH2 result from crosses of 52D7 and 8F10BH2, respectively, with Sha; the 23G9#15 x 52D7#7 genotype, with two heterozygous regions flanking a fixed central region of the PK3, was produced by crossing appropriate selfed progenies of 23G9 and 52D7 recombinants. All markers are described in Figure 5-Source Data 3. B: Pollen viability in recombinants used to delineate the PK3 interval. Representative images of Alexander staining of anthers from recombinants presented in A. Aborted pollen grains are blue whereas living pollen grains are red. Scale bar: 50µm.

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A: PK3 locus in Col-0, Sha and Mr-0. Beige and blue plain arrows represent protein coding genes and TEs, respectively, with their orientations. Gene labels on the Col-0 locus correspond to the last three digits of AT3G62xxx gene identifiers in the reference sequence (TAIR10), the same numbers on Sha and Mr-0 loci indicate genes homologous to the Col-0 genes. Black, red and blue dotted lines respectively represent insertions/deletions, inversions and duplications. The limits of the PK3A, PK3B and PK3C intervals in Sha and Mr-0 are indicated (dashed broken lines). B: Dot plots of PK3 sequences of 12 accessions (x axes) against the reference Col-0 (y axes), generated at NCBI using the nucleotide Blast tool with the option 'align two or more sequences' and the following settings: max target = 10, Expect threshold = 0.001, word size = 256 (Altschul et al. 1990). The names of killer, neutral and killed accessions are in blue, green and red, respectively. The sequences can be accessed by DOI numbers indicated in Figure 6 Source Data 1, with positions of the PK3 sequences.

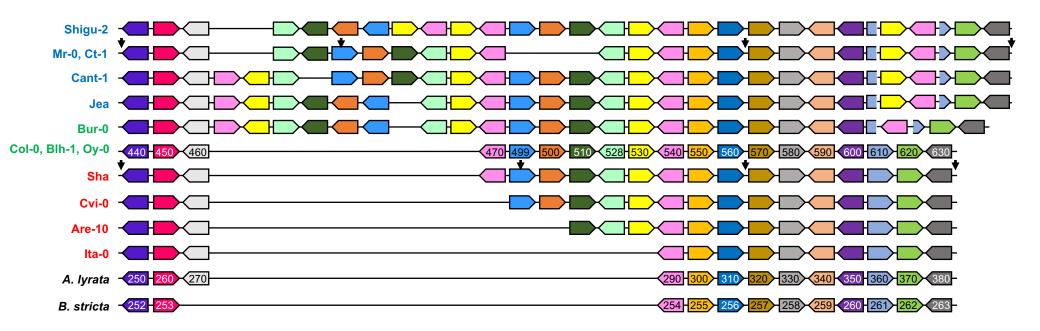


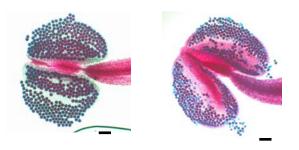
Figure 7: Intra and Inter-specific synteny of protein coding genes at the PK3 locus.

Alignment the PK3 loci from thirteen *A. thaliana* accessions and two related species, *Arabidopsis lyrata* and *Boechera stricta*, drawn to highlight synteny between protein coding genes. The scheme is not to scale and TEs are not represented. For *A. lyrata* and *B. stricta* the structural annotation was obtained from Phytozome (<u>https://phytozome.igi.doe.gov/</u>). The names of killer, neutral and killed *A. thaliana* accessions are written in blue, green and red, respectively. Plain coloured arrows represent coding genes with their orientations, each colour representing orthologues and paralogues of a same gene. Gene labels correspond to the last three digits of AT3G62xxx, AL5G45xxx and Bostr.13158s0xxx gene identifiers in *A. thaliana* (Col-0 reference sequence TAIR10), *A. lyrata* (V2.1) and *B. stricta* (V1.2), respectively. Black arrows above the Mr-0 and Sha loci delimit the PK3A, PK3B and PK3C intervals from left to right.

Analysed gene	Pollen viability in F1: Mrfri x Col ^{mut}	TRD F2	TRD test cross as male	TRD test cross as female	Expression in microspores SMC
AT3G62499		*	NS	NS	←187 pb
AT3G62500		NS	nd	nd	← 124 pb
AT3G62510		NS	nd	nd	←161 pb
AT3G62528		NS	nd	nd	←168 pb
AT3G62530		***	***	NS	— — — ← 165 pb
AT3G62540		NS	nd	nd	←653 pb
AT3G62550		NS	nd	nd	→ → 182 pb
AT3G62560		NS	nd	nd	—— — 1 83 pb
WT control		NS	nd	nd	

Figure 8: Analysis of mutants and microspore expression for PK3B coding genes.

We tested each coding gene at PK3B for an putative antidote behavior. Each homozygous Col-0 mutant (Figure 8-Source Data 1) was crossed with Mr*fri* (Figure 8 Supplement 1) and we observed pollen viability (Alexander staining of anthers) in each Mr*fri* x Col^{mut} F1. Viable pollen grains are stained in red, aborted pollen grains appear in blue. Scale bar: 50µm. F2 progenies of each F1 were tested for a transmission ratio distortion (TRD) at PK3 (Figure 8 – Source Data 2). The transmission of Col^{mut499} and Col^{mut530} alleles through male and female gametes were tested in test crosses (Figure 8- Source Data 3). NS, not significant; * pvalue <0.05; ***pvalue < 0.001; nd, not determined. The T-DNA insertion in the Colmut⁵³⁰ allele was characterized (Figure 8 Supplement 2). On the right, RT-PCR results for expression of PK3B genes from Sha (S), Mr-0 (M) and Col-0 (C) alleles in purified microspores are given (Figure 8 – Source Data 4). The Mr-0 allele was analysed in a progeny of Sha L3^H homozygous Mr-0 at L3. PCR primers used (Supplemental File 1) do not allow to distinguish the two or three copies of *AT3G62510*, *AT3G62528*, *AT3G62530* and *AT3G62540* that exist in the Mr-0 allele. The expected sizes of the amplification products are given on the right.



Mr*fri*

(Mrfri x Sha) F1

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Segregation at L3 in Mr <i>fri</i> x Sha and Mr-0x Sha F2 populations									
Construct		Number	$p \chi^2(1:2:1)$	\mathcal{L} Ch $a^{(3)}$					
Genotype	Sha	Hz	Mr-0	Total	<i>p</i> χ (1.2.1)	J Sha			
Mrfri x Sha ⁽¹⁾	9	103	72	184	1.2 10 ^{-10 ***}	0.05			
Mr-0 x Sha $^{(2)}$	5	76	99	180	5.4 10 ^{-24***}	0.03			
(1) genotyped at									
(2) genotyped at	et al (2016)								
(3) Frequency of	(3) Frequency of Sha homozygotes (expected frequency 0.25)								
*** <i>p</i> < 0.001									

Figure 8 Supplement 1: Mr*fri* has a killer behaviour at PK3, as Mr-0.

(A) Pollen viability (Alexander stainings) in Mr*fri* plants and in the Mr*fri* x Sha F1. Viable pollen grains are stained in red, aborted pollen grains appear in blue. (B) Segregation at L3 in the selfed progeny of the Mr*fri* x Sha F1 showing the same transmission distortion as in the Mr-0 x Sha F1.

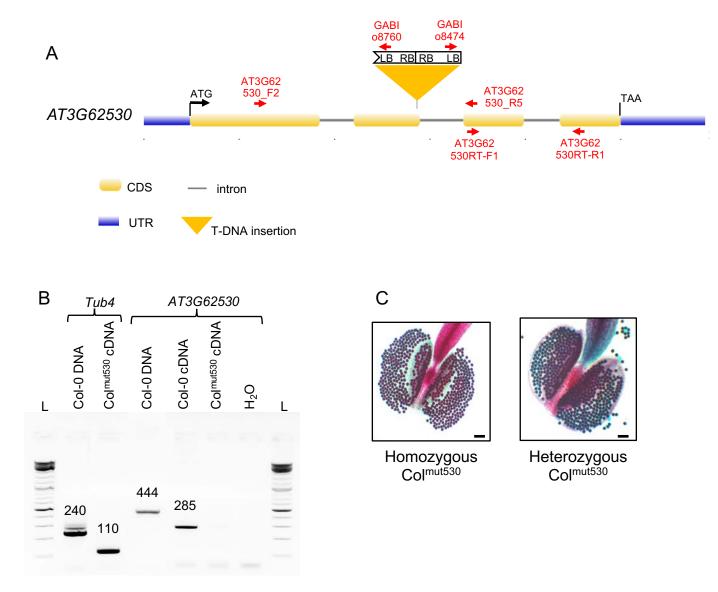


Figure 8 supplement 2: Genetic and phenotypic characterization of Col^{mut530}.

A: Representation of the position and schematic structure of GABI 745G01 T-DNA insertion in *AT3G62530*, with some primers (in red) used for mutant characterization and gene expression analysis. The T-DNA insertion is a reverse tandem with an incomplete LB border, located at the end of exon 2 (TAIR10 position 23132690). B: Expression analysis by RT-PCR of *AT3G62530* in wild type (Col-0) and homozygous mutant (Col^{mut530}) plants. PCR primers used are AT3G62530RT-F1 & AT3G62530RT-R1 (Supplemental File 1). *Tub4* (*AT5G44340*) serves as a positive control. L: Thermo Scientific[™] GeneRuler DNA ladder mix. The expected sizes of the amplification products are indicated in bp above the bands. *AT3G62530* is undetectable in cDNA from leaves of the homozygous mutant whereas it is detected in cDNA of Col-0 leaves. C: Representative images of anthers from homozygous and heterozygous Col^{mut530} plants after Alexander staining. Anthers present only viable pollen (in red), demonstrating the mutation by itself does not induce pollen abortion. Scale bars: 100µm.

MFLSQFRSCKPLLESRLPLLRLSLSKCLDQSFKTTASSEYGSKINKVTKHVNEEDGATFY 60
 VTRRGAIDSSAPAESKAYPKAANISSIHSMRESLLEETEEDYYRRLALFALRNHGGEDAI 120
 NVIIESLGVESSMIRIEAAFVLGQLESKTAIASLSKILRDVKEHPMVRVEAAKALGFIAD 180
 EKSREVLQELSGDLDPIIAKGCDSSLSILEFKNSKKYDPLI 221

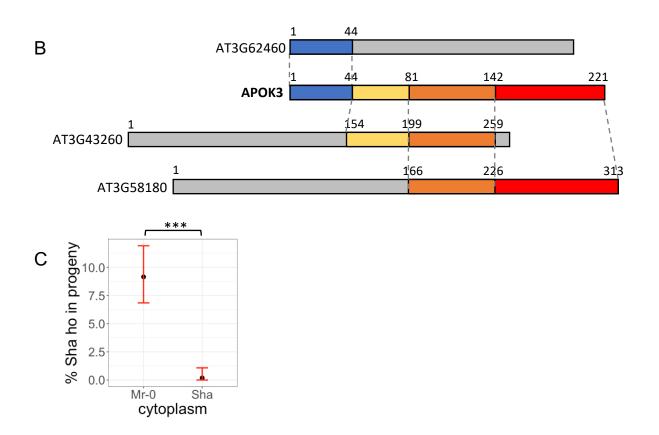
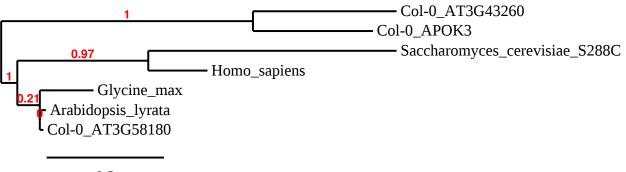


Figure 9: Structure of APOK3.

A: Protein sequence of APOK3 in Col-0. The N-terminal mitochondria-targeting peptide (in blue) with a potential cleavage site between amino acids 32 and 33 (arrow) was predicted by TargetP2.0 (likelihood = 0.9; http://www.cbs.dtu.dk/services/TargetP/) (Almagro Armenteros et al. 2019). The three HEAT-repeat domains (underlined) were identified with SMART (Letunic et al. 2021). B: Representation of the composite APOK3 structure. Colours indicate the homologous regions between APOK3 and AT3G62460 (blue), AT3G43260 (yellow) and AT3G58180 (A. thaliana deoxyhypusine hydroxylase, Figure 9- Supplement 1) (red). The orange box corresponds to a region homologous between APOK3 and both AT3G43260 and AT3G58180. Grey boxes indicate regions of the proteins not aligning with APOK3. Genes encoding proteins similar to APOK3 in the Col-0 genome were retrieved through BlastP search (2.9.0+ default settings, Altschul et al, 1997) against Araport11 protein sequences on TAIR. C: Effect of cytoplasmic background on the strength of the PK3 induced TRD. Percentages of Sha homozygotes at PK3 were measured in three independent progeny pairs of reciprocal F1s that display the Sha/Mr-0 PK3 phenotype, in either Mr-0 or Sha cytoplasmic background. They were obtained by crossing both way with Sha three mapping recombinants and selecting F1s that were heterozygous on the whole PK3 interval (Figure 9 Source data 1). Dots indicate the average of Sha homozygote percentage for each cytoplasmic background. Red vertical bars indicate 0.95 confidence intervals. *** Fisher test p < 0.001.



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Figure 9 Supplement 1 : Tree of protein sequences for deoxyhypusine hydroxylases from different taxa and their homologues in *A. thaliana.*

The hydroxyhypusine hydroxylase protein sequences from human (NP_001138637.1), baker's yeast (*Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, NP_012604.1), soybean (*Glycine max*, XP_003521278.1), and *A. thaliana* sister species *A. lyrata* (XP_020880161.1) were aligned with those from Col-0 predicted products of genes *AT3G58180* (NP_567062.1), *AT3G43260* (NP_189912.1), and *AT3G62530* (APOK3; NP_567129.1), using Phylogeny.fr (http://www.phylogeny.fr/simple_phylogeny.cgi; (Dereeper et al. 2008) with defaults parameters. Branch support values are displayed in red over the branches.

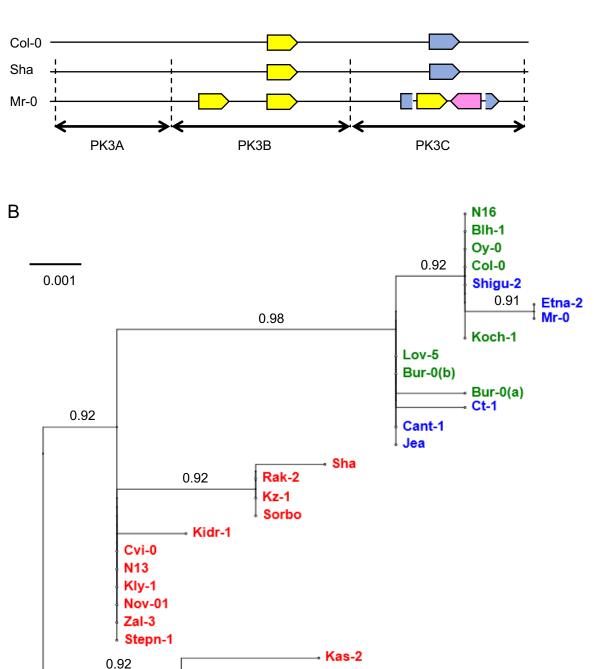


Figure 10: Variation in APOK3 copy numbers and sequences. A: Schematic representation of *APOK3* homologous sequences (yellow arrows) in the PK3 locus in Col-0, Sha and Mr-0. The scheme is not to scale. Gene colours are as in Figure 7. The blue arrows represent *AT3G62610*, in which *APOK3-like* is inserted in Mr-0, together with *AT3G62540* (pink arrow). B: Variation in *APOK3* sequences : Unrooted phylogenic tree

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Mr-0, together with *AT3G62540* (pink arrow). B: Variation in *APOK3* sequences : Unrooted phylogenic tree generated from the *APOK3* copies of 27 accessions of known status for the PK. DNA sequences were obtained after amplification with the primers AT3G62530F1 and AT3G62530R1 (Supplemental File 1) and the tree was generated using Phylogeny <u>http://www.phylogeny.fr</u>, (Dereeper et al. 2008) (Figure 10 Source Data 1). The names of killer, neutral and killed accessions are written in blue, green and red, respectively. The accessions with several copies of *APOK3* are displayed only once because their copies are identical, except Bur-0 where two sequences (a) differs from the third (b) by one SNP. Branch support values are displayed over the branches.

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