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# Divergence in hormone signalling links local adaptation and hybrid failure — Source link ☑

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# 1 Adaptive divergence in shoot gravitropism creates hybrid 2 sterility in an Australian wildflower

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17

# 18 Abstract

Natural selection is a significant driver of speciation. Yet it remains largely unknown whether 19 20 local adaptation can drive speciation through the evolution of hybrid sterility between 21 populations. Here, we show that adaptive divergence in shoot gravitropism, the ability of a 22 plant's shoot to bend upwards in response to the downward pull of gravity, contributes to the 23 evolution of hybrid sterility in an Australian wildflower, Senecio lautus. We find that shoot 24 gravitropism has evolved multiple times in association with plant height between adjacent 25 populations inhabiting contrasting environments, suggesting that these traits have evolved by 26 natural selection. We directly tested this prediction using a hybrid population subjected to eight 27 rounds of recombination and three rounds of selection in the field. It revealed that shoot 28 gravitropism responds to natural selection in the expected direction of the locally adapted 29 population. This provided an ideal platform to test whether genetic differences in gravitropism 30 contribute to hybrid sterility in S. lautus. Using this advanced hybrid population, we discovered 31 that crossing individuals with extreme differences in gravitropism reduce their ability to produce 32 seed by 21%, providing strong evidence that this adaptive trait is genetically correlated with 33 hybrid sterility. Our results suggest that natural selection can drive the evolution of locally 34 adaptive traits that also create hybrid sterility, thus indicating an evolutionary connection 35 between local adaptation and the origin of new species.

#### 36 Significance statement

37 New species originate as populations become reproductively isolated from one another. 38 Despite recent progress in uncovering the genetic basis of reproductive isolation, it remains 39 unclear whether intrinsic reproductive barriers, such as hybrid sterility, evolve as a by-product 40 of local adaptation to contrasting environments or evolve through non-ecological processes, 41 such as meiotic drive. Here, we show that differences in a plant's response to the pull of gravity 42 have repeatedly evolved amongst coastal populations of an Australian wildflower, thus 43 implicating a role of natural selection in their evolution. We found a strong genetic correlation 44 between variation in this adaptive trait and hybrid sterility, suggesting that intrinsic reproductive 45 barriers contribute to the origin of new species as populations adapt to heterogeneous 46 environments.

#### 48 Main text

# 4950 Introduction

51 Ever since Darwin's work on the origin of species by natural selection (1), researchers have 52 sought to understand how natural selection creates reproductive barriers between populations 53 (2). On one hand, many studies have established that adaptation to contrasting environments often reduces migrant and hybrid fitness in the wild, a process commonly known as extrinsic 54 55 reproductive isolation (3). These extrinsic barriers to reproduction can dramatically reduce gene 56 flow between populations (4, 5); however, they only act in the local environment of populations 57 and are therefore susceptible to changes in environmental conditions. Consequently, it is 58 unclear whether the evolution of extrinsic reproductive isolation alone can complete speciation 59 (4). On the other hand, intrinsic reproductive barriers such as hybrid sterility or inviability can accumulate regardless of environmental change (6) and therefore are expected to be more 60 61 stable over time and contribute more reliably to the completion of speciation (2). One way in 62 which natural selection can simultaneously create both extrinsic and intrinsic reproductive 63 isolation is when the beneficial mutations that drive local adaptation in each population also fail 64 to interact properly between populations through negative epistasis (7) (i.e., Dobzhansky-Muller 65 genetic incompatibilities). However, given the paucity of examples that directly link loci that 66 contribute to both local adaptation and intrinsic reproductive isolation, we remain ignorant as to 67 whether natural selection drives speciation through the concomitant evolution of extrinsic and 68 intrinsic barriers between populations (8).

69 Two notable examples genetically link local adaptation and intrinsic reproductive isolation, one 70 via pleiotropy and the other via tight genetic linkage. Selection for pathogen resistance genes 71 in Arabidopsis thaliana results in a pleiotropic effect of hybrid necrosis, which dramatically 72 lowers reproductive success (9). In contrast, the tight genetic linkage between alleles selected 73 for copper tolerance and alleles that cause hybrid mortality in Mimulus guttatus led to 74 divergence between populations growing next to copper mines and those occupying typical 75 *Mimulus* habitats (10). Although plant-pathogen coevolution and tight linkage between genes 76 performing various functions (e.g., stress tolerance and seed development) is a powerful 77 example of a genetic mechanism that could often drive species divergence (11), we need more 78 genetic and ecological studies to further understand when natural selection drives the 79 correlated evolution of local adaptation and intrinsic reproductive isolation (12). So far, most 80 results on the genetics of intrinsic reproductive isolation suggest that several mechanisms are 81 driving the evolution of hybrid sterility across taxa (see Presgraves (13) for a review), such as 82 genetic conflict (e.g., the evolution of distorter genes and their suppressors) (14), and parental 83 conflict (e.g., endosperm failure in plants) (15). However, it remains unclear whether or not the 84 local environment has a key role in creating intrinsic reproductive isolation (see Fishman and 85 Sweigart (16) for a review of the mechanisms), thus limiting our understanding of the 86 mechanisms creating genetic correlations between local adaptation and intrinsic reproductive 87 isolation.

88 Here, we introduce a novel system of study where we take advantage of the repeated evolution 89 of divergent growth habits to study the contribution of local adaptation to the evolution of 90 intrinsic reproductive barriers in an Australian wildflower, Senecio lautus (G. Forst. ex Willd) 91 (17, 18). Adjacent populations exhibit erect or prostrate growth habits dependent on whether 92 they inhabit the sand dune or rocky headlands, respectively. Previous population genetic 93 studies in S. lautus found that different sets of genes related by similar functions were 94 repeatedly differentiated between populations with these two contrasting growth habits (19, 20). 95 One of these sets contained genes belonging to the auxin pathway, where genes related to the 96 transport and regulation of this key plant hormone had repeatedly diverged between erect and 97 prostrate populations. In many plants, auxin genes are also involved in creating variation in 98 height (21, 22), branching (23, 24) and reproduction (e.g. pollen tube growth (25)). Given the observed divergence in height and branching, with little gene flow between erect and prostrate 99 100 populations of S. lautus (26, 27), the evolution of auxin-related genes may explain the presence 101 of both adaptation and reproductive isolation in S. lautus. Studies across the plant kingdom 102 have established that the auxin hormone has a conserved function in governing the way in 103 which plants orient themselves to light and gravity cues (28). For example, mutant surveys in 104 Arabidopsis revealed that many auxin-related genes (with functions influencing the

105 biosynthesis, transport or signaling of the auxin hormone) were required for shoot gravitropism 106 - directional growth response of the shoot against the pull of gravity (23, 28-30). With this in 107 mind, we reasoned that if divergence in auxin-related genes contributed to the evolution of local 108 adaptation, shoot gravitropism would be divergent between adjacent erect and prostrate 109 populations and would differentially respond to natural selection within their local environments. 110 Finally, if local adaptation were driving the evolution of intrinsic reproductive isolation in S. 111 lautus, crosses between hybrid individuals with extreme differences in an adaptive trait would 112 be genetically incompatible and not produce seed.

113 We tested these three predictions on seven coastal population pairs of S. lautus (Fig. 1a, Fig. 114 S1 and Table S1), where there is strong evidence of local adaptation between adjacent Dune 115 and Headland populations (31-34). Populations inhabiting sand dunes (Dune hereafter) are 116 usually erect, while populations growing on adjacent rocky headlands (Headland hereafter) are usually prostrate (Fig. 1b). Erect and prostrate growth habits can also be found in related 117 118 populations from the alpine regions of Australia, with a prostrate population inhabiting an 119 exposed alpine meadow and an erect population inhabiting a sheltered alpine gully (Fig. 1c). 120 Dune populations are continually exposed to high temperatures, high solar radiation, low 121 salinity, and low nutrient sand substrate, whereas Headland populations are exposed to high 122 salinity, high nutrients, and powerful winds (32). These Dune and Headland ecotypes are 123 genetically grouped into two major monophyletic clades based on geography (eastern and 124 south-eastern Australia), and adjacent Dune and Headland populations are often sister taxa, 125 suggesting that they have evolved their contrasting growth habits independently multiple times 126 (17, 27, 31, 35).

127 The two ecotypes also show variable levels of intrinsic reproductive isolation, where hybrid 128 sterility in F1 Dune-Headland hybrids is generally weak. For example, there is <15% crossing 129 failure at Lennox Head (31, 32) and <9% at Cabarita Beach (31). In contrast, hybrid sterility 130 was found to be strong in F2 Dune-Headland hybrids from Lennox Head and an F2 generation 131 created from four ecotypes (58% crossing failure (32, 36)). Genetic incompatibilities appear to 132 largely be removed in the F2 generation as F3 hybrids are fertile (32, 36). Therefore, the inability 133 to produce seed in F2's is likely due to a small number of strong recessive negative epistatic 134 interactions between these ecotypes (37, 38). Furthermore, demographic analyses recently 135 revealed minimal gene flow levels between adjacent Dune and Headland populations (27), 136 indicating that reproductive barriers (intrinsic or extrinsic) have prevented hybridization from 137 occurring in the field. The presence of reproductive isolation between multiple locally adapted 138 erect and prostrate populations of S. lautus provides an excellent opportunity to understand 139 whether local adaptation driven by morphological and physiological traits can lead to the 140 accumulation of intrinsic reproductive barriers.

# 141 Results

# 142 Divergence in gravitropic response is auxin dependent in Senecio lautus

143 To test the hypothesis that auxin-related genes drove the evolution of gravitropic differences 144 between erect and prostrate S. lautus populations, we directly examined whether synthetic 145 auxin and auxin transport inhibitors influence gravitropism differently between the ecotypes of 146 a population pair. We grew Dune (n=90) and Headland (n=98) seeds collected from Lennox 147 Head with synthetic auxin 2,4-D (2,4-Dichlorophenoxyacetic acid), and polar auxin transport 148 inhibitor NPA (naphthylphthalamic acid) (39, 40). Because a gravitropic response requires an 149 auxin concentration gradient, we reasoned that removing the gradient would reduce the 150 gravitropic angle in Dune individuals (Fig. S2). As expected, the addition of synthetic auxin 151 2,4-D reduced the gravitropic angle more in Dune individuals than in Headland individuals 152 (LR chi-square=18.49, P<0.0001). Similarly, the addition of auxin transport inhibitor NPA 153 reduced the gravitropic angle in our experiments more in Dune individuals than in Headland 154 individuals (LR chi-square=21.18, P<0.0001). This difference in hormone response between 155 Dune and Headland individuals from Lennox Head, gives credence to our hypothesis that 156 different gravitropic responses between erect and prostrate individuals reflect divergence in 157 auxin-related genes.

#### 158 Repeated height and gravitropism divergence across Senecio lautus populations

159 To understand whether auxin-related genes might have repeatedly diverged with growth habit 160 in S. lautus, we tested whether plant height (a simple growth habit trait) predicts shoot 161 gravitropism in 16 S. lautus natural populations (Fig. 1a, Fig. S1 and Table S1). We measured the change in angle of a seedling's shoot 24 hours after a 90° rotation (29, 41), where 0° is lack 162 163 of a gravitropic response whereas 90° describes a complete re-orientation of the shoot and a 164 large gravitropic response. We expected that short populations would have a smaller gravitropic 165 angle than their adjacent tall population after rotation, if these traits were correlated. Across 166 these populations, the average height of a population predicted its average gravitropic angle 167 (Fig. 2a; F<sub>1.13</sub>=17.65, P=0.0010), with the average magnitude of gravitropism differing across 168 the two monophyletic clades of this system (F113=32.58, P<0.0001). In addition, we found that 169 plant height in natural environments (field) strongly correlates with estimates of plant height in 170 common garden conditions (glasshouse) (F<sub>1,9</sub>=12.41, P=0.0065), indicating that differences in 171 plant height are genetic and do not arise from plastic responses to the environment. Therefore, 172 changes in gravitropism appear to be biologically correlated with divergent growth habit traits 173 such as plant height, and this relationship has evolved independently in each clade.

174 We then investigated which of the seven adjacent Dune and Headland (and Alpine) population 175 pairs drove the observed pattern. Four population pairs showed the expected correlation, where 176 plants from the Headland population exhibited a smaller gravitropic angle and were shorter 177 than plants from their adjacent Dune population (Fig. 2b, c). The expected pattern was also 178 observed in divergent populations from the alpine region of Australia, where the exposed Alpine 179 population in the meadow was shorter and had a smaller gravitropic angle than the population 180 in the sheltered alpine gully (Fig. 2c). In the population pair at Millicent, plant height and 181 gravitropism did not differ between Dune and Headland population pairs (Fig. 2c), possibly due 182 to their similarity in environmental variables (35). At Stradbroke Island, we observed a 183 difference in height in the expected direction but not gravitropism (Fig. 2b) and at Point Labatt, 184 we observed a difference in gravitropism in the expected direction but not height (Fig. 2c), 185 indicating that height and gravitropism are not always genetically correlated and alternate 186 genes or pathways might be utilized (e.g., gibberellin controls dwarfism in some plants (42, 187 43)). Overall, these results are consistent with divergence in auxin-related genes evolving in 188 parallel in coastal and alpine ecotypes in this system.

# 189 Local adaptation drives the evolution of height and gravitropism

To directly assess the role of natural selection on the evolution of height and gravitropism, we conducted two independent sets of field adaptation experiments. In each field experiment, Dune and Headland parental and hybrid seeds were transplanted into replicated blocks at the sand dune and rocky headland at Lennox Head. In all field experiments, natural selection consistently favored the local Dune or Headland population over the foreign population (Fig. 3), indicating that our experiment was exposed to the positive selection that drove local adaptation in each environment.

197 First, we tested whether differences in height could drive differences in fitness in the rocky 198 headlands. We hypothesized that if natural selection was driving the evolution of height. 199 offspring produced by short hybrid parents would live longer than offspring produced by tall 200 hybrid parents in the rocky headland. We focused on prostrate growth because it is likely the 201 derived trait, given that the majority of *S. lautus* populations have an erect growth habit (19, 202 32). Our goal was to introgress Dune alleles associated with height onto a Headland genomic 203 background to examine their effect on fitness in the headland environment. Briefly, we crossed 204 Dune and Headland seeds from Lennox Head and then completed two rounds of backcrossing 205 followed by one round of crossing between the tallest 10% and the shortest 10% (Table S2 and 206 Fig. S3). We transplanted 558 of these seeds (from 28 families) into the rocky headland. As 207 predicted, shorter hybrid parents produced offspring that lived longer in the rocky headland 208 relative to offspring from taller hybrid parents ( $F_{1,26,23}$ =4.87, P=0.0362). These results suggest 209 that traits genetically correlated with plant height contributed to variation in early developmental 210 fitness in the rocky headlands and contributed directly or indirectly to the evolution of divergent 211 growth habit.

212 Next, we tested whether rapid adaptation to contrasting environments can lead to the evolution 213 of gravitropic responses in the direction of the local population. We hypothesized that if natural 214 selection was driving the evolution of shoot gravitropism, exposing an advanced recombinant 215 population to multiple rounds of viability selection in the field would create genetic covariation 216 between fitness and gravitropism. We crossed 23 Dune and 22 Headland individuals from 217 Lennox Head to test this hypothesis and then maintained three independent genetic lines for 218 eight generations (Table S3). This process disassembled allelic combinations and constructed 219 an F8 recombinant hybrid population (26) (Fig. 4a). We planted 2,403 of these F8 seeds (from 220 89 families) into both the sand dune and rocky headland (Fig. 4b and Table S4) and conducted 221 family-based truncation selection for three generations. The fittest families in each environment 222 were selected based on the highest germination and survival (top 50%; see Methods for 223 selection details). Siblings from these families were crossed (within a genetic line) to produce 224 the next generation. In the F10 generation, we tested whether families with the largest number 225 of survivors also produced offspring (F11) with the local gravitropic response under controlled 226 conditions.

227 In agreement with our prediction, F10 families with the largest number of survivors in the sand 228 dune produced F11 offspring with a higher gravitropic angle (Table 1). We discovered that this 229 relationship between fitness and gravitropism was driven by the fitness of the F10 dam family 230 and not the F10 sire family (Table 1), suggesting maternal genetic effects might contribute to 231 the evolution of gravitropism in the sand dunes. In contrast, we did not detect an association 232 between the fitness of the F10 families and gravitropism of their offspring when we performed 233 the experiment on the rocky headland. Instead, Headland survivors had a positive association 234 between the number of days until death in a controlled environment (intrinsic viability) and 235 gravitropism (Table 1), where individuals that died early in development had a smaller 236 gravitropic angle (agravitropic). We are left with the conjecture that there could be intrinsic 237 fitness costs for agravitropic alleles on a hybrid genomic background.

238 We then tested whether adaptation to contrasting environments can recreate trait correlations 239 observed in nature. As we have shown, there is a strong correlation between gravitropism and 240 height across many (but not all) natural populations of S. lautus. We expect to lose this trait 241 correlation in creating the hybrid population if different genes control the traits. If natural 242 selection for these traits were strong, we could reconstruct the correlation after several rounds 243 of selection in the coastal environments of the Dune and Headland populations. There was no 244 genetic correlation between height and gravitropism in the control population grown only in the 245 glasshouse ( $F_{1,114,3}$ =0.08, P=0.7801, r<sup>2</sup>=0.04) indicating genes contributing to these traits are different and not pleiotropic. As predicted, the genetic correlation between height and 246 247 gravitropism was strong after three rounds of selection in the rocky headland (F<sub>1,169,5</sub>=7.09, 248 P=0.0085, r<sup>2</sup>=0.27) and weak after selection in the sand dune (F<sub>1,151,3</sub>=3.20, P=0.0756, 249  $r^2$ =0.09). Together, these results indicate that natural selection can act on standing genetic 250 variation and reconstitute genetic architectures favored in these coastal environments.

# 251 The genetics underlying gravitropism in Senecio lautus

252 To better understand the genes underlying shoot gravitropism in S. lautus, we performed 253 selective genotyping on the tails of the gravitropic distribution of the F11 hybrid populations 254 (Fig. 4c; Dune survivors, Headland survivors and Control). We identified candidate gene 255 regions containing the most extreme allelic differences between individuals with the smallest 256 gravitropic angle (agravitropic tail,  $<20^{\circ}$ ; mean of tail =  $6.46\pm1.10^{\circ}$ , n=68) and the largest 257 gravitropic angle (gravitropic tail, >56°; mean of tail = 62.03±0.45°, n=77). We found 55 sites 258 (0.2% of all SNPs) across 49 genomic contigs (Data S1) with an allelic difference in the 259 99.8% quantile (0.15 , indicating a polygenic basis for the phenotype. We discovered260 that these candidate gene regions disproportionally contained homologous genes with 261 predicted gene ontology categories of transport and localization of molecules within and 262 between cells (Table S5). This is consistent with expectations, as redistribution of auxin is 263 required for a gravitropic response (28). Five of the 55 sites (11%) are located in gene 264 homologs with functions related to the auxin pathway, including the second (ENODL1; early 265 nodulin-like protein 1) (44, 45) and fourth (ABA3; molybdenum cofactor sulfurase) (46) most 266 differentiated SNPs between the agravitropic and gravitropic F11 tails. Arabidopsis wat1 267 mutants, an ortholog of ENODL1, are deficient in auxin production, display reduced auxin

basipetal transport and have downregulated expression of many auxin-related genes,
including those involved in response to auxin, auxin biosynthesis and transport (44, 45). *ABA3*, also named *LOS5* and *SIR3*, encodes a molybdenum cofactor sulfurase essential for
the activity of several enzymes including for the plant hormone ABA and the auxinic
compound sirtinol (47, 48). Genetic loss of function of *ABA3* causes impaired auxin signaling
as well as reduced ABA levels (46).

274 Auxin-related genes, ENODL1 and ABA3, have likely contributed to the adaptive and polygenic 275 divergence of gravitropism in S. lautus. In both the ENODL1 and ABA3 genes, natural selection 276 recreated the expected allelic frequency shift in the F11 tails towards the parent with the same 277 trait (Data S1). For instance, the alleles favored in the agravitropic F11 tail were at high 278 frequencies in the Headland natural population (ENODL1 cytosine allele (C)=0.87 and ABA3 279 guanine allele (G)=0.89), with the alternate alleles favored in the gravitropic F11 tail and the 280 Dune natural population (ENODL1 adenine allele (A)=0.69 and ABA3 A=0.97). ENODL1 and 281 ABA3 were in strong linkage disequilibrium in the survivors of the gravitropism adaptation 282 experiment in the rocky headland (Fisher's exact test, n=57, P=0.0008) and sand dune 283 (Fisher's exact test, n=48, P=0.0107), but not in the control population reared in the glasshouse 284 (Fisher's exact test, n=37, P=0.4093), suggesting natural selection has likely reconstituted this 285 favorable allelic combination. Individuals with a ENODL1 C/C and ABA3 G/G genotype were 286 associated with a reduction in gravitropism of 25° relative to all other genotype combinations 287 (Fig. 5;  $t_{34,30}$ =4.86, P<0.0001), indicating that not sensing the pull of gravity, or reacting to it, is 288 a recessive trait. ENODL1 and ABA3 have gene homologs with functions in not only 289 gravitropism and plant height but also in salt tolerance and pollen tube reception (44, 46, 49-290 53), suggesting that auxin-related genes could not only contribute to the adaptive evolution of 291 gravitropism but also the evolution of reproductive trait differences between Dune and 292 Headland populations that could affect seed production. Overall, our results suggest that 293 divergence in auxin-regulated molecular processes contributed to the evolution of local 294 adaptation to contrasting environments in coastal populations of S. lautus.

# 295 The consequences of gravitropism divergence for the evolution of hybrid sterility

296 To investigate whether divergence in auxin-related genes has consequences for reproductive 297 compatibility between Dune and Headland populations, we measured crossing success 298 between agravitropic and gravitropic F11 hybrids. Such crosses directly test whether a genetic 299 correlation exists between gravitropism and hybrid sterility, and therefore evaluating the 300 hypothesis that intrinsic reproductive isolation can evolve as a by-product of adaptation to local 301 conditions. We therefore expected to observe increased hybrid sterility between F11 302 agravitropic and gravitropic individuals, and reproductive compatibility between individuals with 303 similar gravitropism values. Hybrid sterility was defined as fewer than three seeds produced 304 per flower head with at least three mating attempts for reciprocal crosses (fertile plants produce 305 at least 30 seeds per cross per flower). We performed 28 crosses in families with an agravitropic 306 response (within agravitropic tail, Fig. 4), 37 crosses in families with a gravitropic response 307 (within gravitropic tail), and 67 crosses between these agravitropic and gravitropic families 308 (between tails). Consistent with a genetic correlation between gravitropism and intrinsic 309 reproductive isolation in S. lautus, we found that hybrid sterility was more common (Odd's 310 ratio=4.8x, P=0.0188) in crosses between F11 agravitropic and gravitropic plants (21%) than 311 within each of these tails (5%; LR chi-square=6.86, P=0.0088). This pattern of crossing failures 312 indicates that gravitropism alleles have linked or pleiotropic effects on hybrid sterility in S. 313 lautus.

314 To assess what might be driving this association between gravitropism and hybrid sterility, we 315 examined whether genetic line, F11 population, or specific individuals were correlated with 316 hybrid sterility. Crosses within (n=77) and between (n=55) the three genetic lines, regardless 317 of their gravitropic response, did not affect hybrid sterility (LR chi-square=1.10, P=0.2937). This 318 result indicates that the hybrid sterility found in the F11's is unlikely to be from genetic drift 319 leading to incompatible differences between the genetic lines. Crosses within (n=80) and 320 between (n=52) the three F11 populations (Dune survivors, Headland survivors and Control) 321 did not affect hybrid sterility in agravitropic and gravitropic individuals (LR chi-square=0.15, 322 P=0.6995), increasing the likelihood that gravitropism, and not another trait responding to 323 selection in one of these environments, causes intrinsic reproductive isolation in these

324 populations. Next, we determined whether specific F11 individuals (n=129) drove this 325 association between gravitropism and hybrid sterility. Thirty-two individuals participated as one 326 of the parents in a sterile cross; 26 of these individuals were crossed against a separate 327 individual, and they successfully produced seeds. Thus, sterility is specific to each parental 328 combination, consistent with the idea that hybrid sterility is polymorphic in the system, a result 329 that echoes those found in other systems (54, 55). Finally, we found that crosses had symmetric 330 effects on reducing hybrid fitness: only six crosses displayed differences in hybrid sterility in the 331 reciprocal cross. Reciprocal effects on reproductive isolation are inconsistent with the 332 contribution of maternal genotypes to survivorship in the field, suggesting that not only maternal 333 genotypes contribute to sterility in these populations. Together, these results imply a genetic 334 association between the adaptive divergence of gravitropism and hybrid sterility in S. lautus.

335 To investigate whether ENODL1 and ABA3 alleles were associated with hybrid sterility, we 336 examined if the predicted allele counts of the F12 offspring from the F11 parents explained the 337 proportion of failed crosses. We found that the interaction between ENODL1 and ABA3 did not 338 have a significant effect on sterility (Table 2). The ABA3 A allele, on the other hand, had positive 339 effect on hybrid sterility, where individuals with the gravitropic favored A allele, which is 340 dominant to the G allele, had a higher percentage of failed crosses (Table 2). This suggests 341 that ABA3 might genetically link adaptive evolution of shoot gravitropism with hybrid sterility in 342 S. lautus. Overall, our results support the hypothesis that intrinsic reproductive isolation can 343 evolve as a by-product of adaptation to local conditions.

# 344 Discussion

345 Whether local adaptation commonly drives the formation of hybrid sterility and inviability is still 346 a topic of debate (5, 16). These intrinsic reproductive barriers are believed to evolve late in the 347 speciation process, often after extrinsic and prezygotic barriers have formed (e.g., immigrant 348 inviability, or assortative mating) (4), and genetic drift or natural selection has led to the 349 accumulation of genetic incompatibilities (2). There are few studies (9, 10) on the genetics of 350 local adaptation and intrinsic reproductive isolation within a species, with most studies having 351 focused on the effect of non-ecological evolution e.g., genetic conflict on the evolution of 352 Dobzhansky-Muller incompatibilities (13). Our study is a step-forward in understanding the role 353 of polygenic adaptation in creating hybrid sterility during the early stages of speciation. Here, 354 we provide empirical evidence to suggest that natural selection is a major driving force behind 355 the hybrid sterility found between recently derived erect and prostrate populations of S. lautus. 356 Further, we identified variation in a trait in natural populations that could only result from 357 divergence in specific hormonal pathways, thus suggesting the joint function of many genes 358 could underlie the evolution of divergent traits correlated with reproductive barriers. The results 359 from our set of experiments suggest a novel and broadly applicable explanation to the elusive 360 link between the genetics of local adaptation and the evolution of intrinsic reproductive isolation.

361 Our results suggest that natural selection contributed to the colonization of extreme environments in S. lautus, like those found on rocky headlands along the coast. Previous 362 363 population genetic results in this system (19, 26, 35) and those presented here suggest that 364 the auxin pathway could facilitate plant adaptation to new habitats through concomitant 365 changes in multiple developmental and architectural traits. Transitions from erect to prostrate 366 growth and the associated traits of short stature and many branches, are common in plants 367 that colonize coastal headlands (56-59), indicating that there are strong selective agents common to headland environments. For example, powerful winds or salty substrates could 368 369 impose early selective pressures on traits controlled by auxins such as responses to 370 mechanical cues (60) and halotropism (61-63). As the structure of hormonal pathways is 371 generally conserved across plant species, the evolution of similar architectures in similar 372 environments might prove to be a general mechanism to link adaptation with the incidental evolution of traits affecting species interactions such as ecological competition and reproductive 373 374 success. For instance, in Mimulus, gibberellin (another essential plant hormone) has been 375 recently implicated in local adaptation and associated with reproductive isolation between 376 coastal and inland populations along the coast of California (42, 64). Like S. lautus Headland 377 populations, coastal Mimulus populations are dwarf, salt-tolerant, and produce small amounts 378 of gibberellin compared to inland populations (42, 65).

379 In S. lautus, previous results support a general link between local adaptation and intrinsic 380 reproductive isolation. Walter, et al. (36) found that additive variance responsible for local 381 adaptation in four ecotypes was lost in the creation of an F2 hybrid generation that displayed 382 elevated levels of hybrid sterility. A similar occurrence of hybrid sterility occurred in the F2's 383 that created the F11 generation used here (32), suggesting that genetic incompatibilities are 384 segregating in multiple populations and ecotypes of S. lautus. However, the other generations 385 of the hybrid population (F3-F11) are highly fertile, implying that a large proportion of the 386 incompatible alleles between Dune and Headland populations were removed in the F2 387 generation. Remarkably, we can recreate intrinsic reproductive isolation in the F11 hybrid 388 population when we sort F11 families according to the strength of their gravitropic response; 389 crosses between individuals with divergent gravitropism values have a reduced ability to 390 produce seed. A likely explanation is that incompatibility alleles segregate at low frequencies 391 in the population after the F2 generation, but we artificially increased the frequency of the 392 incompatible alleles by selecting individuals with extreme gravitropism. Altogether these results 393 provide strong evidence that adaptive traits, such as shoot gravitropism, are genetically 394 correlated with hybrid sterility in S. lautus.

395 The mechanisms by which gravitropism and hybrid sterility are genetically correlated could be 396 pleiotropy (e.g., Bomblies and Weigel (9)) or genetic linkage (e.g., Wright, Lloyd, Lowry, Macnair and Willis (10)), or a combination of both for polygenic traits. We speculate that 397 398 pleiotropic effects of ENODL1 and ABA3 genes contributed to the correlated evolution of 399 adaptive gravitropism and hybrid sterility. For example, ABA3, a strong candidate to generate 400 variation in gravitropism, has been associated with pollen sterility in Arabidopsis (53), and it is 401 known to contribute to salt tolerance in other organisms (51). It is not difficult to speculate 402 evolutionary scenarios where hybrid sterility and gravitropism might be correlated responses to 403 selection on saline environments: as the population adapts, compensatory mutations for 404 reproduction can occur which are incompatible with genetic backgrounds from other 405 populations. For ENODL1, we could not obtain many genotypes to properly test its role on 406 hybrid sterility in S. lautus, but members of the ENODL family have a female-specific role in 407 pollen tube reception (52). For example, in Arabidopsis, enodl mutants fail to arrest growth and 408 rupture the entering pollen tube (52). The adaptive evolution of gravitropism through the 409 maternal genotype in our adaptation experiments, also supports the notion that maternal 410 ENODLs may be used to both communicate with the male pollen tube to enable reproduction 411 and participate in adaptation to local conditions via its effects on gravitropism and correlated 412 traits. The asymmetric reductions in seed set of *enodl* mutants contrasts with our symmetric 413 reciprocal crosses. This discrepancy suggests that other factors other than maternal genetic 414 effects contribute to reproductive isolation in S. lautus, possibly masking the effects of maternal 415 genotypes in our experimental design. Future work will test the effect of ENODL1 and ABA3 on 416 sterility using other genetic backgrounds and while considering novel genotypic combinations 417 once we include other candidate genes in our genetic analyses.

418 Given that gravitropism has a polygenic basis and auxin related-genes have many pleiotropic 419 effects on growth and development, and reproduction, our results suggest many genes likely 420 drove local adaptation and only a subset of them contributes to hybrid sterility as they become 421 part of a Dobzhansky-Muller incompatibility. This systems' view of the evolutionary process, 422 where pleiotropic effects are pervasive, could provide fertile ground for the origin of adaptations 423 and new species. Future genetic studies focusing on isolating sets of loci causing hybrid sterility 424 in S. lautus will reveal the molecular mechanisms by which intrinsic reproductive barriers evolve 425 together with local adaptation and will allow testing of these novel predictions on the origin of 426 new species. Overall, our study showcases a powerful strategy to explore the genetic basis of 427 local adaptation and speciation in natural systems. We postulate that the evolution of hormonal 428 pathways in plants provides a simple mechanism for the rapid modification of co-regulated traits 429 that facilitate the colonization of new habitats and the correlated evolution of hybrid sterility.

#### 430 Materials and Methods

#### 431 Synthetic auxin and auxin transport inhibitor experiments

432 We tested if auxins govern gravitropism in *S. lautus* by evaluating gravitropic responses in 433 seedlings treated with chemicals affecting auxin signaling. Specifically, we used 2,4-

434 Dichlorophenoxyacetic acid (2,4-D), a carrier-dependent synthetic auxin (39, 66), and 435 Naphthylphthalamic acid (NPA), an efflux inhibitor (40). Gravitropism was measured in vitro on 436 agar plates on approximately 40 maternal families from Lennox Head sand dune and rocky 437 headland. Seeds from an ecotype were combined in a falcon tube and were first sterilized with 438 a quick rinse in 70% EtOH, followed by four 10-minute inversions in a sterilizing solution of 6% 439 sodium hypochlorite and 1% Tween 20. Seeds were then rinsed three times with distilled water 440 and vertically orientated on Murashiga and Skoog (MS) agar plates containing 0.15% MS, 441 0.05% 2-(N-morpholino)-ethanesulfonic acid (MES), 0.15% sucrose, 1% agar and 2,4-D and 442 NPA at concentrations of either 0 µM, 0.5 µM, 5 µM, and 50µM. For the chemical 443 concentrations, we used the following stock solutions: 2,4-D: 1mM in Ethanol and NPA: 10mM 444 in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO). We created 1ml dilutions of stock solutions (in ethanol or DMSO), 445 which were dissolved in 500 ml of media.

446 We placed eight seeds on each MS plate and incubated the plates at 21°C in a dark growth 447 cabinet to avoid any light effects. After seven days, all plates were rotated clockwise by 90° 448 and a photograph of each plate was taken 24 hours after rotation. All photographs were 449 imported into ImageJ (67) to determine gravitropism by measuring the angle to which the stem 450 reorientated to the horizontal (30, 68, 69). Seedlings were excluded from analyses if they were 451 shorter than 5mm, contacted the plate's edge, or germinated after rotation. We were left with a 452 total of 188 seedlings to quantify the gravitropic response. The 50µM concentration of 2,4-D 453 treatment was excluded, as less than six seeds germinated under this high concentration (Data 454 S4). For each chemical, we used a mixed linear model using the lmer function of lme4 package 455 in R v3.1.3 (70):  $y_{ijkl} = A_k + E_i + C_j + E_i \times C_j + e_{l(ijk)}$ , where agar plate (A<sub>k</sub>) is the MS plate that the seeds were grown on, ecotype (Ei) is Dune or Headland and concentration (Ci) are the 4 456 457 different concentrations of the chemical. Agar plate was fitted as a random effect, while ecotype, 458 concentration and their interaction (E<sub>i</sub> x C<sub>j</sub>) were fixed effects, and e<sub>l(ijk)</sub> is the residual error. 459 Gravitropism (yijki) was compared using a Type II Wald chi-square test.

# 460 **Phenotyping of natural populations**

#### 461 Height measurements

We measured plant height in all 16 populations in the glasshouse and 12 of the populations in their native field environment (Data S2 and Data S3). Height (vegetative) was measured as the vertical distance from the soil to the plant's highest point that has vegetative leaves (flowers and stems are not included). In the field, we measured height in 32 individuals evenly across the range of each population. In the controlled conditions of the glasshouse, we sampled an average of 14 individuals per population after plants reached maturity.

468 For both the glasshouse and field measurements, we used a linear model to determine whether 469 Dune populations were taller than their adjacent Headland pair:  $y_{ijk} = P_i + E_{j(i)} + e_{k(ij)}$ , where pair 470 (P<sub>i</sub>) is an adjacent Dune and Headland population at the same locality and ecotype (E<sub>j(i)</sub>) is 471 Dune or Headland and is nested within pair. All factors are fixed effects and  $e_{k(ij)}$  is the residual 472 error. Population height (yiik) for each pair was compared using a one-tailed t-test (Table S6). 473 The Alpine populations were also included with the prediction that the sheltered Alpine 474 population (A03) would be taller than the exposed Alpine population (A07). All statistical results reported here were produced in JMP 13 (SAS 2015). 475

#### 476 Gravitropism measurements

477 Gravitropism was measured in vitro on agar plates in a dark growth cabinet using seeds from 478 all 16 natural populations. For each population, 2-4 seeds per family were grown for ~40 479 maternal families (1,278 seeds in total). Plates were incubated, rotated, photographed, and 480 gravitropism was measured in ImageJ (67), as outlined above. Overall, there was a 63.8% 481 germination success, but seeds were excluded with the criteria above. This left a total of 736 482 seedlings across all 16 populations (57.6% of the total number of seeds planted; Data S2). To 483 test the hypothesis that Dune populations would have a stronger gravitropic response in their 484 stem than their adjacent Headland pair, we used a mixed linear model:  $y_{ijkl} = P_i + E_{i(i)} + A_k +$ 485 el(ijk), where pair (Pi) is an adjacent Dune and Headland population at the same locality, ecotype 486  $(E_{j(i)})$  is Dune or Headland and is nested within pair, and agar plate (A<sub>k</sub>) is the MS plate that the

487 seeds were grown on. Agar plate was fitted as a random effect while the rest were fixed effects, 488 and  $e_{l(ijk)}$  is the residual error. Gravitropism ( $y_{ijkl}$ ) measures were averaged for each population 489 and compared between each population pair using a one-tailed t-test (Table S6). We then 490 tested the correlation between height and gravitropism by performing a linear regression with 491 mean height against mean gravitropism for all 16 populations, where populations were grouped 492 into their respective clades (eastern and south-eastern). All statistical results reported here 493 were produced in JMP 13 (SAS 2015).

# 494 Field experiments

495 All field experiments were conducted at the sand dune and rocky headland at Lennox Head 496 (NSW) in the exact location where native S. lautus grow. We tracked each individual by gluing 497 each seed to a toothpick with non-drip superglue and placing them 1-2mm under the ground 498 within a grid cell (Fig. 4) that was randomly assigned (for details see Walter, et al. (32)). 50% 499 shade cloth was suspended 15cm above all plots to replicate the shade given by surrounding 500 vegetation and was later replaced with very light bird netting. Seeds were watered twice a day 501 to keep the soil moist and replicate ideal germination conditions to maximize the number of 502 seeds in the experiment. Once germination plateaued for all genotypes watering was gradually 503 ceased.

#### 504 Height adaptation experiments

505 We created genetic lines that aimed to isolate height differences on a common genomic 506 background (Fig. S3). Firstly, Lennox Head Dune and Headland seeds were grown and crossed 507 to create an F1 generation. Secondly, we backcrossed to Headland parental plants for two 508 generations to produce a BC2F1 generation. We then grew and crossed the tallest BC2F1 509 individuals among one another (n=16, tallest 10% of the population), and the shortest 510 individuals among one another (n=18, shortest 10% of the population). See Table S2 for the 511 number of individuals and families contributing to every generation to create these BC2F2 512 genetic lines. The BC2F2 seeds were planted into the rocky headland at Lennox Head in 513 October 2016 (Australian spring). We planted five replicate plots, where each plot (1.08x0.33m) 514 consisted of the same 12 families with four (occasionally three) individuals per family in each 515 plot, totaling 1,116 BC2F2 seeds. Germination and mortality were recorded every day for 49 516 days, then every 3-4 days until day 79, and then weekly for the remainder of the experiment, 517 until day 159 (Data S5).

518 We implemented a mixed linear model to test the hypothesis that individuals with short parents will have higher fitness in the headland environment:  $y_{ijkl} = H_i + F_j + B_k + e_{l(ijk)}$ , where parental 519 520 height (H<sub>i</sub>) was the average height of the parents measured in the glasshouse, family ( $F_j$ ) as 521 individuals with the same parents, and block ( $B_k$ ) as the five replicate plots across the rocky 522 headland. Parental height is a fixed effect, and family and block are random effects, and el(ijk) 523 was the residual error. Offspring fitness (yijk) was the total number of days alive in the rocky 524 headland from planting. All statistical results reported here were produced in JMP 13 (SAS 525 2015).

#### 526 *Gravitropism adaptation experiments*

527 We created an advanced recombinant population (F8) from 23 Dune and 22 Headland Lennox 528 Head individuals using a North Carolina 2 breeding design (71, 72) as described in Roda, 529 Walter, Nipper and Ortiz-Barrientos (26). Briefly, we replicated the construction of the F8 using 530 three independent replicate crossing lines (A, B, and C), all derived from the same base 531 population. See Table S3 for the number of families per replicate genetic line for every 532 generation. F8 seeds were planted into the sand dune and rocky headlands in 2012 as 533 described above. The fittest families (top 50%) within an environment (and genetic line) were 534 selected using Aster modeling (73, 74) implemented with the 'Aster' package in R (70). The 535 fitness components included germination and survival success, where germination was the 536 total number of individuals that germinated in each family, and survival success was the total 537 number of individuals per family that survived to day 85 in the F8 generation. One full sibling 538 from the 101 selected families (50 Dune survivor and 51 Headland survivor families) and 44 539 families randomly selected from all F8 families for the control population were then grown in

540 the glasshouse. Each individual was randomly assigned as a dam or sire and, after reaching 541 maturity, crossed twice in a full-sibling, half-sibling crossing design. This approach maintained 542 ~100 full-sibling families for each population (Dune survivors, Headland survivors and Control). 543 The same field experiment and selection procedure was conducted on the F9 (in 2013) and 544 F10 generations (in 2014) for three rounds of selection, where survival success was measured 545 at day 138 in the F9 generation, and at day 232 in the F10 generation. See Table S4 for the 546 number of seeds and families planted per genetic line and environment for the three transplant 547 experiments.

# 548 **Reference genome**

549 Headland individuals from Lennox Head were used for the creation of an Illumina S. lautus 550 reference genome. Firstly, we collected seeds from the Headland at Lennox Head and 551 germinated seeds from two individuals by cutting 1mm off the micropyle side of the seed and 552 placing in petri dishes with dampened filter paper. The seeds were placed in darkness for two 553 days to allow for roots to grow and then transferred to a 12-hour light cycle in a constant 554 temperature room at 25°C for seven days to allow for shoots to grow. Seedlings were then 555 transferred into large individual pots with standard potting mix and grown in a glasshouse. 556 These two individuals were crossed by rubbing flower heads together and collecting the seeds 557 produced. Siblings from the seeds produced were grown and crossed by rubbing flower heads 558 together to produce a family of individuals capable of self-fertilization (rare in S. lautus). One 559 generation of selfing was completed to increase homozygosity. We extracted DNA from the leaf tissue of one individual using a modified CTAB protocol (75). 560

561 A draft genome of S. lautus was de novo assembled using second-generation short reads and 562 AllPaths-LG 6.1.2 using default settings. We utilized a series of eight read libraries (Table S7). 563 The reads were trimmed to remove residual adapter sequences and low-guality bases 564 (minimum quality 15). The final assembly was ~843 MB long and consisted of 96.372 scaffolds 565 with an N50 of 21 KB. Although 843 MB is much shorter than the expected haploid size of 1.38 566 GB (76) of the whole genome, the BUSCO gene content completeness of 84% (5% fragmented 567 and 11% missing) suggests that this assembly is primarily missing intergenic repetitive DNA 568 sequences, which are notoriously difficult to assemble.

#### 569 F11 gravitropism measurements

570 In the F11 generation described above, we measured gravitropism as the angle of the stem 571 after a 90° rotation of a seedling. This included 39 Dune survivor families, 37 Headland survivor 572 families and 25 inbred control families with 12 individuals per family (1,212 seeds in total). 573 These families were germinated in three separate batches ~seven days apart. Briefly, we 574 germinated the F11 seeds by cutting 1mm off the micropyle side of the seed and placing in 575 petri dishes with dampened filter paper. The seeds were placed in darkness for two days to 576 enable roots to grow and then transferred to light for 4 days for shoots to grow. Seedlings were 577 then transferred into small square pots with standard potting mix in a constant temperature 578 room at 25°C with a 12-hour light cycle. After one week of growing in the pot, the plants were 579 rotated by 90° and a photograph of each individual was taken 12 hours after rotation. The 580 photographs were imported into ImageJ (67) to measure gravitropism as described above. Data S6 contains gravitropism measures and dam and sire fitness values. 581

#### 582 Gravitropism tests of selection

583 We implemented a linear model to test the hypothesis that high fitness Dune families will 584 produce gravitropic offspring and high fitness Headland families produce agravitropic offspring. 585 Independent models were used for the sand dune and rocky headland to test the effect of 586 gravitropism on fitness in each environment:  $y_{ijklmn} = B_i + V_j + G_{k(i)} + D_{l(ik)} + S_{m(ik)} + e_{n(ijklm)}$ , where 587 temporal block (Bi) is the three time points in which the F11 seeds were grown (~seven days 588 apart); intrinsic viability  $(V_j)$  is the number of days until the death of F11 plants in controlled 589 conditions; and genetic line, which consists of the three independent genetic lines (A, B and 590 C), is nested within the temporal block ( $G_{k(i)}$ ). Dam fitness was nested in genetic line and 591 temporal block (D<sub>I(ik)</sub>) and sire fitness was also nested in genetic line and temporal block (S<sub>m(ik)</sub>). 592 Dam and sire fitness is the F10 family fitness values for the individuals that were crossed to

593 create the F11 offspring where gravitropism was measured. All factors were included as fixed 594 effects, and  $e_{n(ijklm)}$  was the residual error. Genetic line C was removed from analyses as it has 595 little variation in fitness values, which means it did not converge. Shapiro-Wilk W test shows 596 the residuals from the model are normally distributed for both the sand dune (W=0.98, 597 P=0.3879) and rocky headland (W=0.98, P=0.2776). The linear model was performed in JMP 598 13 (SAS 2015).

# 599 Genetic association between height and gravitropism

600 We tested the genetic association between height and gravitropism after segregation in an 601 advanced recombinant population. We implemented a mixed linear model for the three F11 602 populations (Dune survivors, Headland survivors, and a Control population) that accounts for 603 family variation:  $y_{ijk} = H_i + F_j + e_{k(ij)}$ , where gravitropism ( $y_{ijk}$ ) is the angle of the growth response 604 12 hours after a 90° rotation, height (H<sub>i</sub>) is the vertical distance from the soil to the top of the 605 vegetative leaves, measured after maturity in the glasshouse and family ( $F_i$ ) is a random effect 606 that consists of individuals that have the same dam and sire. The mixed linear model was 607 performed in JMP 13 (SAS 2015).

# 608 Genotyping of F11 gravitropism tails

609 To isolate gravitropism candidate genes, we genotyped 77 gravitropic (>56°) and 68 610 agravitropic (<20°) F11 individuals (Data S6). We extracted DNA from leaf tissue using a 611 modified CTAB protocol (75) and quantified the DNA using the PicoGreen reagent (Invitrogen, 612 Carlsbad, CA). To determine which parent the alleles were derived from, we included 39 Dune 613 parentals (D01) and 41 Headland parentals (H01). Leaves from the Lennox Head Dune and 614 Headland natural populations were collected directly from the field and the same DNA 615 extraction protocol was followed. Each F11 individual was duplicated in independent wells and 616 libraries of Restriction-site Associated DNA (RAD) tags were created at Floragenex following 617 Baird, et al. (77), but using the Pstl restriction enzyme. We sequenced 380 samples on four 618 lanes of an Illumina HiSeq 4000 with 91bp single-end reads at Floragenex. A total of 1.39 billion 619 reads with a mean of 3.62 million reads per sample were produced. Reads were aligned to the 620 Illumina reference genome using Bowtie 1.1.1 (78) and a FASTQ quality score of above 20. 621 We then used SAMtools 0.1.16 (79) to create an mpileup file of all samples with a minimum 622 Phred quality score of 10, minimum sequencing depth per sample of 6x and minimum per cent 623 of population genotyped of 75%. This approach produced 26.8K variable positions (224K 624 variants before filtering) with a minimum distance between variants of 50bp. The gravitropism 625 candidate gene set consisted of SNPs in the 99.9% quantile of the distribution of differentiated 626 SNPs between the gravitropism tails. The region of the scaffold containing the SNP was 627 annotated using the BLASTx NCBI database (80).

#### 628 Senecio lautus gravitropism candidate genes

We tested for overrepresentation of gene function and linkage disequilibrium between gravitropism loci in the gravitropism candidate gene set. A statistical overrepresentation test was performed in PANTHER (<u>http://pantherdb.org/</u>) using the TAIR identification for 32 unique gravitropism candidate genes matched to a reference list of 27,502 *Arabidopsis thaliana* genes. To calculate linkage disequilibrium between loci, a likelihood-ratio chi-square test was performed in JMP 13 (SAS 2015) with each F11 population independently (Dune survivors, Headland survivors and Control; Data S7).

#### 636 Intrinsic reproductive isolation

#### 637 Gravitropism and hybrid sterility correlation

We tested whether hybrid sterility was associated with gravitropism by randomly crossing within and between the F11 gravitropic and agravitropic groups in a controlled temperature room and recording successful and failed crosses. To maximize sample size, all three replicate genetic lines (A, B, and C) were used across all three environments (Dune survivors, Headland survivors, and Control). A total of 138 crosses were completed (Data S8), 71 crosses between the tails and 67 within the tails (agravitropic tail = 29 and gravitropic tail = 38). Crosses were

644 completed by rubbing multiple flower heads of two individuals and collecting the seeds 645 produced from both plants. To remove genetic incompatibilities that might be caused by 646 relatedness, crosses within the same family were not performed. Hybrid sterility (a failed cross) 647 was considered when, in the presence of pollen, less than three seeds were produced per 648 flower head from both plants (reciprocal crosses) with three mating attempts. Here, hybrid 649 sterility could be caused by failure to produce fertilized ovules (prezygotic), or by fertilized 650 ovules failing to develop into viable seeds (postzygotic). Six crosses displayed differences in 651 sterility in the reciprocal cross (asymmetry), with one successful and one failed cross when 652 using the same parents, and so were removed from the analysis (4 crosses between the tails 653 and two within the tails).

654 If gravitropism contributed to divergence in S. lautus, we expected to observe an increase in 655 hybrid sterility in crosses between gravitropic and agravitropic individuals. We performed a 656 linear model in JMP 14 (SAS. 2018) to determine whether there was a significant association 657 between cross-type (within vs between gravitropism tails) and hybrid sterility while accounting 658 for genetic line and F11 population:  $y_{ijkl} = T_i + G_j + P_k + e_{I(ijk)}$ , where tails (T<sub>i</sub>) is crosses within or 659 between gravitropism tails, genetic line (Gi) are the three independent genetic lines (A, B and 660 C) and population (Pk) are the three F11 populations (Dune survivors, Headland survivors, and 661 Control). All factors were included as fixed effects, and el(ijk) was the residual error. Hybrid 662 fertility (yijki) was compared using a likelihood-ratio chi-square test.

663 ENODL1 and ABA3 association with hybrid sterility

664 We implemented a linear model to test the hypothesis that ENODL1 and ABA3 alleles are 665 correlated with hybrid sterility. From the F11 individuals that were crossed, we extracted their 666 genotypes and predicted the genotypes of their offspring (F12). Genotypes that were 667 ambiguous due to heterozygous parents were removed, which reduced the sample size to 61 668 crosses in which 11 were failed crosses (Data S9). We tested the effect of ENODL1 and ABA3 669 alleles and their interaction on the percentage of failed crosses:  $y_{iik} = E_i + A_i + E_{Aii} + e_{k(ii)}$ , where 670 ENODL1 (E<sub>i</sub>) is the allele counts for the ENODL1 C allele in the F12's; ABA3 (A<sub>i</sub>) is the allele 671 counts for the ABA3 G allele in the F12's; and ENODL1 x ABA3 (EA<sub>ii</sub>) is their interaction. All 672 factors were included as fixed effects, and  $e_{k(ij)}$  was the residual error. Shapiro-Wilk W test 673 shows the residuals from the model are normally distributed (W=0.94, P=0.6314). The linear 674 model was performed in JMP 15 (SAS 2015).

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#### 676

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# 686 Author Contributions

687

688 MJW, FR and DO conceived the projects and experiments. MJW conducted height adaptation experiments, reared and phenotyped various glasshouse populations and performed 689 690 reproductive isolation experiment. FR and MJW performed physiological and molecular biology 691 experiments. GMW reared and phenotyped the natural populations in the glasshouse with help 692 from MJW and MEJ. GMW conducted the field experiment for the gravitropism adaptation 693 experiments with assistance from MJW, MEJ, FR and DO. MJW, MEJ and HLN phenotyped 694 natural populations. MEJ and MJW extracted the DNA from the F11's and RN and JW called 695 the genotypes. MEJ reared the plants and prepared the Illumina libraries for SA to assemble 696 the S. lautus genome. CB guided the physiological experiments. MJW and DO wrote the paper 697 with input from all authors. DO secured the funds and is mentor and supervisor for the research 698 program.

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## 898 Figures and Tables



899

#### 900 Fig. 1. Sample locations and growth habit differences between adjacent Senecio lautus

901 **populations. a**, Map of Australia showing locations of the 16 populations used in this study. The

902 seven coastal localities have a Dune (orange) and Headland (green) population occurring adjacent to

903 each other. The populations are split into two monophyletic clades (35), the eastern clade (closed

904 circles) and the south-eastern clade (open circles). b, Senecio lautus native to the sand dunes have

an erect growth habit and *S. lautus* native to the rocky headlands have a prostrate growth habit. **c**,

906 Alpine populations of *S. lautus* include a sheltered alpine gully and an exposed alpine meadow,

907 containing individuals with an erect and prostrate growth habit, respectively.



908 909 Fig. 2. Gravitropism and height variation across 16 Senecio lautus populations. a, The 910 correlation between gravitropism and height across S. lautus populations split into their monophyletic 911 clades - see Fig. 1 for details. Each point in the graph represents a population mean where height 912 was measured in the glasshouse and gravitropism was measured 24 hours after a 90° rotation. b,c, 913 Divergence in gravitropism (°), height (cm) in the glasshouse and height in the field between adjacent S. lautus populations (D = Dune, H = Headland, A-S=Alpine Sheltered and A-E = Alpine Exposed). b, 914 915 eastern clade and **c**, south-eastern clade. Height in the field for Falls Creek, Kosciusko NP and Point Labatt were not measured. Data are mean  $\pm$  SE; one tailed Student's t-test (Table S6), \*P  $\leq$  0.05, 916

917 \*\* $P \le 0.01$ , \*\*\* $P \le 0.001$ , NS not significant.



Fig. 3. Parental survival curves in the height (2016) and gravitropism (2012-2014) adaptation experiments at the sand dune and rocky headland at Lennox Head. a,b, Survival (Estimated S(t)) over the length of the field experiments is shown for the Lennox Head Dune population (orange) and the Lennox Head Headland population (green) for four independent field selection experiments in the a, sand dune and b, rocky headland. Asterisks indicate a significant difference in mortality risk between the Dune and Headland ecotypes (\*\*P ≤ 0.01, \*\*\*P ≤ 0.001).





926 Fig. 4. The creation of the recombinant hybrid generation, the design of the gravitropism

927 adaptation experiments and sequencing of the tails of the gravitropic distribution. a, 23 928 parental Dune and 22 parental Headland individuals from Lennox Head were crossed randomly and 929 with equal contribution for eight generations. b, Seeds from this F8 recombinant population were 930 glued to toothpicks and transplanted into the sand dune and rocky headland at Lennox Head. Amongfamily based selection occurred for three generations (F8, F9 and F10), where full-siblings from the 931 932 fittest families were grown in the glasshouse and crossed amongst their respective genetic lines (A, B 933 and C) and their environment (Dune survivors or Headland survivors). An inbred control was kept in 934 the glasshouse and underwent the same crossing scheme but free from viability selection. c, 935 Gravitropism was measured in the F11 recombinant population by re-orientating the plant by 90°. 936 Here, agravitropic plants are define as individuals with gravitropic angles <20°, while gravitropic plants 937 have gravitropic angles >56° as they reorient their growth and subsequently grow upright. Individuals 938 in the tails of the gravitropism distribution were sequenced on four lanes of the Illumina HiSeq 4000 939 platform.



940 941 **Fig. 5. Association between** *ENODL1* **and** *ABA3* **alleles and gravitropism in** *Senecio lautus.* **The** 

942 average gravitropism angle is shown for each allelic combination, independently and when the

943 agravitropic alleles (dark grey) are combined. Different letters denote significant differences between 944 genotypes at a significance level of  $\alpha = 0.05$ .

#### Table 1. General linear model for the effect of dam and sire on gravitropism (°) after a field selection experiment on a recombinant hybrid Dune and Headland population.

947 Field selection experiments were performed on F8, F9 and F10 recombinant hybrid

generations to achieve three rounds of selection in the sand dune and rocky headland at

249 Lennox Head (see Fig. 4 for the experimental design). Dam and sire fitness are the F10

950 family fitness values for the individuals that were crossed to create the F11 offspring where

951 gravitropism was measured. Intrinsic viability is the number of days until death of the F11

generation in the controlled temperature room. This experiment was conducted three times(temporal block) with three independent genetic lines.

·		Dune			Headland			
Source	DF	SS	F-Ratio	P-value	DF	SS	F-Ratio	P-value
Dam family fitness	6	8515.77	4.779	<0.001	6	1884.31	0.701	0.650
Sire family fitness	6	1806.62	1.014	0.424	5	2315.36	1.033	0.405
Intrinsic viability	1	260.85	0.878	0.352	1	5209.38	11.624	0.001
Genetic lines	3	1135.49	1.275	0.290	3	3357.19	2.497	0.067
Temporal block	2	193.14	0.325	0.724	2	2234.96	2.494	0.090

954 DF, degrees of freedom; SS, sum of squares.

# 955 Table 2. General linear model for the effect of *ENODL1* and *ABA3* alleles on hybrid

956 sterility. The genotypes of the F12's were predicted based on F11 parental genotypes with 957 ambiguous genotypes removed. *ENODL1* is the allele counts for the *ENODL1* C allele in the 958 F12's, while *ABA3* is the allele counts for the *ABA3* G allele. *ENODL1* x *ABA3* is the effect of 959 all observed allelic combinations between these two gravitropism candidate loci and the 960 percentage of failed crosses.

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Source	DF	SS	F-Ratio	P-value
ENODL1	1	6.51	0.078	0.791
ABA3	1	925.52	11.076	0.021
ENODL1 x ABA3	1	9.77	0.117	0.746
		-		

962 DF, degrees of freedom; SS, sum of squares.