

1 **Title:** The molecular evolutionary basis of species formation revisited

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16
17 **Keywords**

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19
20 **Abstract**

21 How do new species arise? This is among the most fundamental questions in evolutionary
22 biology. The first genetic model for how reproductive barriers leads to the origin of new species
23 was proposed nearly 90 years ago. However, empirical evidence for the genetic mechanisms that
24 cause reproductive barriers took many decades to accumulate. In 2010, Presgraves presented a
25 comprehensive review of the literature on known “speciation genes” and the possible evolutionary
26 mechanisms through which they arose. Fifteen years later, with an explosion of studies that include
27 both non-model and model organisms, the number of known incompatibility genes has increased
28 ~7 fold. Here, we synthesize previous and new empirical examples to investigate the genetic
29 mechanisms through which intrinsic incompatibilities arise and highlight current gaps in our
30 understanding.

32 **Main Text**

33

34 **Introduction**

35

36 Evolutionary biologists have long been fascinated by the immense diversity of species and
37 the mechanisms through which they form [1]. While many distinct mechanisms contribute to
38 reproductive barriers between emerging species, including sexual and ecological selection on
39 hybrids [2–5], there has been special interest in understanding **genetic barriers** (see Glossary) that
40 prevent successful reproduction, perhaps because these barriers are viewed as “irreversible” when
41 they are sufficiently strong [6]. Early work in evolutionary biology predicted that genetic barriers
42 between species would arise via distinct genetic changes in each lineage [7–9]. The “**Dobzhansky-**
43 **Müller**” (**DMI**) **model** of hybrid incompatibility predicts that neutral or adaptive substitutions that
44 accumulate between diverging species may interact improperly in hybrids (Fig. 1), leading to
45 reduced viability and fertility. While the general predictions of this model have been well
46 supported by decades of genetic crosses in myriad species, only in recent years have the genes
47 underlying these interactions and the mechanisms through which they evolve come into focus,
48 aided by rapid technological advances. Work in the first decade of the 21st century focused on
49 classical lab models with exceptional genetic tools including *Drosophila*, *Arabidopsis*, and
50 *Saccharomyces* (reviewed in [6]), but advances in genomic tools for non-model species have
51 enabled the discovery of hybrid incompatibilities in diverse taxa. Here, we review how the past 15
52 years of speciation research has led to a richer understanding of the potential mechanisms through
53 which new species evolve, and deepened our knowledge of how incompatible alleles accumulate.

54 In addition, our review sheds light on how incompatibilities act in naturally hybridizing species
55 and highlights key knowledge gaps.

56

57 **What we knew about “Speciation Genes” and what we know today**

58

59 In his seminal 2010 paper "The molecular evolutionary basis of species formation",
60 Presgraves described all known genes involved in hybrid incompatibilities and outlined the first
61 clues about how these incompatibilities arise based on empirical data (for theoretical predictions
62 see [8–10]). Here, we revisit this work with a particular emphasis on incompatibility genes that
63 have been identified since 2010. We focus our search on hybrid incompatibilities that act
64 “intrinsically,” meaning that these incompatibilities cause hybrid dysfunction regardless of the
65 environment (but see [2]). Using both broad and targeted literature searches, we are able to identify
66 99 incompatibilities where at least one of the genes involved has been precisely identified (Table
67 1; see table legend for a description of our methodology). This large dataset allows us to begin to
68 explore broad patterns in the data, while keeping in mind the many factors that impact DMI
69 discovery and characterization.

70 One of the most striking differences when comparing our catalog of incompatibilities to
71 the genes reported by Presgraves is a major expansion in the species in which hybrid
72 incompatibilities have been identified (Fig. 2). Early work necessarily relied on species with
73 exceptionally powerful genetic toolkits. While *Drosophila* and *Arabidopsis* continue to be
74 overrepresented among organisms with precisely mapped hybrid incompatibilities, there has been
75 substantial progress in mapping incompatibilities in less traditional models over the last decade.
76 Table 1 includes 27 genera (13 of which include domesticated lineages; Fig. 2A), as opposed to

77 the 7 genera with mapped incompatibilities known in 2010 (3 of which included domesticated
78 lineages and were excluded from Presgraves's table). However, certain groups are notably
79 underrepresented, including vertebrates, where only seven incompatibilities have been mapped in
80 any species (Table 1).

81 Similarly, Table 1 covers a wider breadth of molecular mechanisms and phenotypes. Genes
82 involved in molecular processes from meiotic recombination to developmental patterning to adult
83 pigmentation have been shown to cause hybrid incompatibility (Table 1). These diverse molecular
84 functions are consistent with predictions of theoretical models that any interacting pair of genes
85 could become involved in hybrid incompatibilities [11]. Despite this diversity, Table 1 features
86 several instances where related genes have been implicated in incompatibility across different
87 species. For example, researchers have found repeated involvement of *RPP* genes in **hybrid**
88 **necrosis** in plants (Table 1). These observations raise the exciting possibility that the rate at which
89 hybrid incompatibilities evolve could differ across genes or pathways. However, it is also likely
90 that these observations are interconnected, with researchers more likely to prioritize
91 incompatibilities that are known in other systems. Moreover, biases may stem from the systems in
92 which incompatibility is most heavily studied— such as crop plants, which have undergone
93 domestication.

94

95 *A new understanding of genic drivers of incompatibility*

96 An expanded knowledge of the genes involved in hybrid incompatibilities allows us to
97 revisit hypotheses outlined by Presgraves [6] about the mechanisms that drive the evolution of
98 incompatibilities. In the majority of cases where hybrid incompatibilities have been precisely
99 mapped (Table 1), researchers have identified protein coding genes as the causal factors underlying

100 hybrid incompatibilities. Rapid evolution at the amino acid sequence level that disrupts protein-
101 protein interactions appears to be the molecular cause of many of the known hybrid
102 incompatibilities (e.g. [12–15]), and there are some documented cases of amino acid substitutions
103 altering RNA-protein interactions [16]. In other cases, both evolved changes in expression and
104 amino acid changes underlie hybrid incompatibility phenotypes. For example, in hybrids between
105 swordtail fish species dysfunctional interactions between *Xmrk* and its repressors can cause
106 melanoma [17]. Follow up work using cell culture experiments showed that both overexpression
107 of the *xmrk* repressor *cd97* and amino acid changes in its sequence contribute to melanoma
108 phenotypes in cell culture [18]. In several cases in Table 1, the causative variant is structural. This
109 is the case for so-called “**presence-absence variants**”, where duplication and reciprocal loss of a
110 gene makes it possible for hybrids to inherit no functional copies [19–21,17,22].

111 Even with the massive progress reflected in Table 1, there are still relatively few studies
112 that have successfully identified which mutations or regulatory changes lead to incompatibility.
113 Interrogating these patterns is a high priority research area. An expanded knowledge of the
114 mutations underlying incompatible interactions is not only important for our understanding of what
115 types of evolutionary changes are more likely to lead to reproductive isolation, but can also greatly
116 inform modeling efforts investigating the accumulation of incompatibility alleles (i.e. via the
117 snowball effect or other processes; [23]), inferring the importance of evolutionary history in the
118 emergence of hybrid incompatibilities, and determining how alleles interact at a molecular level
119 to cause hybrid dysfunction.

120

121 *Non-genic components of speciation*

122 In addition to major progress in identifying new protein-coding genes involved in hybrid
123 incompatibilities, research over the past decade has dramatically expanded our understanding of
124 hybrid incompatibilities which are not driven by genes (Table 1; [24]). These mechanisms include
125 structural changes in the genome that cause meiotic dysfunction, issues with inheritance of
126 epigenetic modifications, or global perturbations to the gene regulatory landscape that cause hybrid
127 dysfunction.

128 Our earliest understanding of the genetic basis of hybrid sterility came from broad scale
129 differences in genome structure [25]. Karyotype differences contribute to reproductive isolation
130 between many species, and are among the best understood incompatibilities in species that are not
131 genetically tractable (e.g. muntjac deer; [26]). Karyotype differences generally lead to hybrid
132 sterility when hybrids are unable to properly sort their chromosomes during meiosis. Similarly,
133 extremely high levels of genetic divergence between chromosomes can impact success in crossing
134 over during meiosis ([27,28]; Box 1). Structural changes, such as translocations, also play a crucial
135 role in hybrid sterility due to failed pairing and meiosis in many plant lineages [29] and have been
136 linked to hybrid incompatibility through a number of mechanisms. See [30–32] for several
137 excellent reviews on this topic.

138 In addition to structural factors, other types of non-genic elements have been implicated in
139 hybrid incompatibilities. Several families of transposable elements (TEs) have been linked to
140 hybrid dysfunction in *Drosophila* [33–36]. For example, the copy number of P-elements
141 significantly influences the frequency of **hybrid dysgenesis** [36,37]. Hybridization could also lead
142 to genome-wide transposable element (TE) deregulation, called “genomic shock” [38].
143 Associations between general TE misregulation and hybrid dysfunction have been observed in

144 *Drosophila* [36,39] and *Caenorhabditis elegans* [40]. Hybrid-specific misregulation of TEs has
145 been reported in diverse taxa [41–45]. However, others have found limited evidence of TE
146 misregulation in hybrids [46,47] or misregulation with no clear impacts on hybrid **fitness** [48].

147 Other non-genic elements such as satellite DNA (long tandem repeats found in
148 heterochromatin regions) and non-coding RNAs play an important role in hybrid incompatibilities.
149 In hybrids between *Drosophila melanogaster* and *D. simulans*, the *mh* allele from *D. simulans*,
150 which typically regulates satellite DNA, interferes with the function of satellite DNA *359bp*
151 inherited from *D. melanogaster*, leading to disrupted genome integrity and female infertility [49].
152 Satellite DNA is often highly differentiated even between closely related species, although this
153 does not always result in an incompatibility [50]. Non-coding RNAs play diverse mechanistic
154 roles, including regulating gene expression, chromatin remodeling, and suppressing transposable
155 elements, among others [51], and have been implicated in several hybrid incompatibilities. For
156 example, seeds produced by crosses of multiple *Capsella* species are inviable due to a lack of
157 maternally deposited siRNAs in the endosperm, which leads to abnormal gene regulation and
158 ultimately developmental failure [52]. Some of the genes that are targeted by siRNAs have
159 previously been identified as incompatibility genes in other systems (such as *PHE1* in *Arabidopsis*;
160 [53]), and a similar process may also lead to hybrid seed failure in *Solanum* [54] and *Oryza* [55].
161 Since non-coding RNAs tend to evolve rapidly but retain their functional importance [56], they
162 may fall into a class of elements that are mechanistically likely to become involved in hybrid
163 incompatibilities.

164 Together, this work highlights the immense diversity of mechanisms through which hybrid
165 incompatibilities can evolve. While the importance of non-genic hybrid incompatibilities has been
166 appreciated since the inception of the field [57,58], and was discussed by Presgraves in 2010,

167 newly mapped non-genic incompatibilities are emerging as important mechanisms underlying
168 incompatibility in the decade since, expanding the simple two-locus model originally proposed by
169 both Dobzhansky and Müller.

170

171 **Genetic architecture of speciation and its consequences for evolutionary outcomes**

172

173 While understanding genetic interactions and their breakdown in hybrids is an interesting
174 question in its own right, the increase in mapped incompatibilities allows us to begin to evaluate
175 questions about both their mechanistic drivers and their evolutionary consequences. Here, we
176 connect what we have learned from newly identified hybrid incompatibilities to classic
177 evolutionary theory.

178

179 *Symmetry and Complex Incompatibilities*

180 Classic theoretical work made two major predictions about the architecture of
181 incompatibilities. First, under a model of neutral evolution, researchers predicted that
182 incompatibilities would be “asymmetrical,” meaning that only one of the mismatched two-locus
183 genotype combinations is expected to experience selection [59]. Although some incompatibilities
184 fit this asymmetrical model (e.g. *Overdrive*; [60]), in many empirical cases, hybrid
185 incompatibilities act “symmetrically,” meaning that selection acts on both mismatched two-locus
186 genotypes. **Symmetrical incompatibility** can arise through coevolution driving multiple
187 substitutions in interacting genes [61,62]. While these differences in genetic architecture may seem
188 subtle, they can have profound impacts on how genetic incompatibilities act after hybridization.
189 With **asymmetrical incompatibilities**, hybridization tends to lead to a loss of genetic isolation

190 between species as a result of the compatible genotype combination spreading [21,63]. By contrast,
191 symmetrical incompatibilities act as strong barriers to hybridization because all heterospecific two
192 locus genotype combinations experience selection.

193 Similarly, theoretical models predicted that hybrid incompatibilities are likely to be
194 “complex”, meaning that they are expected to involve more than two interacting genes [11]. The
195 intuition behind these theoretical models is that **complex incompatibilities** can evolve through
196 more mutational paths that avoid low-fitness genotypic combinations. However, complex genetic
197 interactions are notoriously difficult to detect and incompatibilities involving three or more genes
198 are extremely rare in the empirical literature. Despite this, progress has been made in identifying
199 [64] and mapping [14,65] complex incompatibilities, primarily in model organisms where large
200 screens are possible. In some cases, complexity has been added to previously known
201 incompatibilities. Bladen and colleagues [65] recently uncovered additional complexity in the
202 Hmr-Lhr-gfzf incompatibility in *Drosophila* [66,67], mapping a novel locus in *D. sechellia* known
203 as *Sechellia aversion to hybrid rescue (Satyr)*. Similarly, work by Moran et al. [14] identified a
204 novel example of a complex hybrid incompatibility in *Xiphophorus* (Fig. 4). F2 hybrids carrying
205 *X. birchmanni* nuclear ancestry at *ndufa13* and *nufs5* and *X. malinche* mitochondrial ancestry are
206 inviable. While this interaction initially appears to be the product of two simple incompatibilities
207 with the mitochondrial genomes, Moran and colleagues found that harboring even one mismatched
208 *ndufs5* allele sensitizes F₂ fish to the *ndufa13* incompatibility. This is a subtle three-way interaction
209 that was only detectable because it was possible to generate nearly 1,000 hybrids in the laboratory.
210 This highlights the difficulty of addressing this question in the current literature: while the fact that
211 few complex incompatibilities have been identified in any species could hint that they are less
212 common than theoretical models predict, it is equally likely that the technical issues impacting

213 their detection obscure their importance. Since it is challenging for even large experiments to have
214 power to detect complex hybrid incompatibilities, progress in this area will likely require the
215 development of new computational or experimental tools ([68]; See Box 2).

216

217 *Snowball Theory*

218 The rate at which two diverging lineages become fully reproductively isolated depends on
219 how quickly they accumulate hybrid incompatibilities. While classic theoretical work predicts the
220 presence of a “snowball” effect, where the number of genetic incompatibilities grows non-linearly
221 with genome-wide genetic divergence between lineages [11], only a handful of studies have
222 evaluated this empirically [81–83]. More recent work has suggested a snowball effect might not
223 be expected under certain models of speciation [84,85] or certain models of gene interaction [23].
224 For example, a gene at the center of a highly connected gene network may be more prone to
225 incompatible interactions, whereas modularity may reduce the opportunity for incompatibilities
226 [23]. Moreover, to our knowledge, no similar theoretical work has been performed for the strength
227 of selection on genetic interactions, which is arguably an equally important factor for
228 understanding the emergence of new species. As a result, we are still very much in the dark about
229 how the genetic architecture of incompatibilities scales with genetic divergence, with crucial
230 implications for how quickly new species are expected to become isolated.

231

232 **The evolutionary forces that drive speciation**

233

234 Almost since the inception of the field, evolutionary biologists have searched for common
235 mechanisms that drive the emergence of barriers to hybridization. Even in the decades when

236 empirical work on the genetic mechanisms of reproductive isolation was limited, theoretical and
237 narrative predictions about the potential drivers of this process flourished and were heatedly
238 debated [86–89]. With dozens more empirical cases in hand (Table 1), we can begin to evaluate
239 some of these predictions.

240

241 *“Classic” models for the evolution of incompatibility*

242 Much of the classic speciation theory supposes that incompatibility loci fix as a result of
243 genetic drift [90]. However, only a handful of incompatibility alleles to date clearly support this
244 “neutral” model. Several incompatibilities caused by gene duplication are consistent with a model
245 of neutral evolution [19,20,91,92]. In contrast, some of the best studied genes involved in hybrid
246 incompatibilities exhibit elevated rates of molecular evolution, such as *Prdm9*, which is one of the
247 most rapidly-evolving genes in many vertebrate genomes [93,94]. The importance of rapid
248 evolution as a driver of hybrid incompatibilities has been apparent for decades [6,95], with verbal
249 models for their evolution highlighting the importance of evolutionary **arms races** such as
250 **intragenomic conflicts** and host-pathogen co-evolution. Evidence for the importance of these
251 evolutionary forces has only strengthened with 15 additional years of research, with “selfish
252 genetic elements” and “host-pathogen coevolution” being the two most common mechanisms
253 proposed by authors as drivers of the evolution of the incompatibilities listed in Table 1 (Fig. 2B).
254 Given its clear importance, there have been many excellent and in-depth reviews on the role of
255 genetic conflict in driving hybrid incompatibility and other genomic processes [96–99]. However,
256 despite empirical evidence of the importance of these processes, to our knowledge, they have yet
257 to be integrated into theoretical models of hybrid incompatibilities, presenting an important (and
258 addressable) knowledge gap for the field.

259 Another classic model for the evolution of hybrid incompatibilities is the evolution of
260 incompatibility as a byproduct of substitutions driven by divergent ecological selection [90]. This
261 model has a long and contentious history in speciation biology [100,101]. The most direct evidence
262 that ecological divergence can lead to the accumulation of hybrid incompatibilities comes from
263 experimental evolution in yeast and *Drosophila* [102–105]. However, empirical evidence of this
264 process in nature is scarce and the degree to which adaptation drives the accumulation of intrinsic
265 incompatibilities in nature is still poorly understood. Examples include strong hybrid
266 incompatibilities between closely related populations adapted to different environments [106,107],
267 and hybrid breakdown associated with dysfunctional metabolism [108,109]. Nonetheless, since
268 we lack knowledge of the precise genes or mechanisms involved in these cases, it remains
269 challenging to distinguish whether ecological divergence is directly responsible for the
270 accumulation of incompatibility alleles versus scenarios of **hitchhiking** or **linkage disequilibrium**
271 [29,110,111].

272

273 *Gene networks, complexity, and developmental mechanisms*

274 While earlier studies reviewing genes involved in hybrid incompatibilities recognized the
275 importance of compensatory evolution, insights from systems biology have led to new models for
276 how incompatibilities might arise since Presgraves 2010. **Developmental systems drift** describes
277 observations inspired by gene regulatory networks, where evolving biological systems can remain
278 functionally ‘equivalent’ but have diverged in their underlying structure [68,112,113]. Theoretical
279 work on this topic supports the inference that even biological systems under strong stabilizing
280 selection can lead to the rapid evolution of incompatibility [114], and that this outcome is
281 particularly likely in models of complex gene regulatory networks with functional redundancy.

282 Importantly, the developmental systems drift model does not require any form of adaptive
283 divergence or genetic conflict within parental lineages for hybrids to experience strong selection.
284 Studies over the past decade have highlighted the prevalence of gene expression misregulation in
285 hybrids [113,115,116] and divergence in the genetic architecture of seemingly identical
286 phenotypes among related species [117], both of which are predicted under a systems drift model
287 (we note that gene misregulation does not necessarily derive directly from incompatibilities;
288 [115]). More direct evidence has come from new empirical studies that have documented hybrid
289 incompatibilities arising in conserved developmental pathways. In a pair of papers, Chang et al.
290 [117,118] show that two highly conserved transcription factors that play the same developmental
291 role *across Drosophila* species cause severe developmental incompatibilities in hybrids (Fig. 5)
292 These results provide exciting empirical evidence for developmental systems drift in action, and
293 its link to developmental dysfunction in hybrids.

294

295 *Underappreciated evolutionary mechanisms: balancing selection and past introgression*

296 Recent work has revealed evolutionary mechanisms that can lead to the emergence of
297 hybrid incompatibilities that were not predicted by previous conceptual or theoretical models:
298 **balancing selection** and **introgression**. Ancient balancing selection in yeasts has maintained a
299 polymorphism in the ability to grow rapidly in galactose-rich environments (as opposed to glucose-
300 rich environments), driven by three loci involved in galactose metabolism. When alleles from
301 galactose- and glucose-adapted strains are introduced to each other in hybrids, certain
302 combinations result in severe growth defects. In natural populations, the identity of the three loci
303 matches the environmental condition (e.g. galactose alleles found in isolates from dairy-rich
304 environments), and the two versions of the alleles themselves appear to be millions of years old

305 [119]. This suggests that ancient balancing selection has maintained functionally distinct sets of
306 co-adapted alleles that result in incompatibility when combined in the same genetic background.
307 Similar mechanisms may underlie some hybrid necrosis phenotypes in plants: NB-LRR proteins
308 that are activated in immune responses to pathogens often harbor high levels of polymorphism,
309 presumably driven by balancing selection that maintains alleles contributing to immunity [97,120];
310 Table 1). Beyond these specific examples, a large body of work has highlighted the importance of
311 polymorphic hybrid incompatibilities [121]. These observations could be consistent with an
312 underappreciated role of balancing selection in the maintenance of hybrid incompatibilities, or
313 simply indicate that these variants are on their way to fixation or loss via natural selection or
314 genetic drift.

315 Historically, researchers have predicted that hybridization between species should erode
316 genetic incompatibilities. Although much theory and some empirical work support this hypothesis
317 [122–124], a growing body of work suggests that hybridization can lead to complex patterns of
318 reproductive isolation and potentially move alleles involved in incompatibilities between species.
319 For example, recent work in *Xiphophorus* found that alleles involved in an incompatibility between
320 *X. malinche* and *X. birchmanni* have introgressed from *X. malinche* into a third species, *X. cortezi*.
321 Crosses between *X. birchmanni* and *X. cortezi* suggest that these introgressed alleles could be
322 causing a phenotypically similar incompatibility in this species pair [125]. Similarly in *Mimulus*,
323 patterns of organelle capture from the outcrossing *M. cardinalis* into selfing *M. parishii* may have
324 facilitated cytoplasmic male sterility between *M. parishii* and a third species– *M. lewisii* [126].
325 Lastly, horizontal gene transfer of a **toxin-antidote system** among distantly related
326 *Caenorhabditis* species has seemingly facilitated ongoing incompatibility within *C. briggsae* [40].
327 Together, this highlights the potential for past hybridization and gene transfer events to impact the

328 present-day distribution of hybrid incompatibilities between species and adds substantial
329 complexity to our understanding of the evolution of hybrid incompatibilities. We speculate that in
330 the case of both balancing selection and introgression, the increased genetic divergence between
331 interacting genes (either driven by ancient balancing selection or movement of genes from a
332 divergent lineage) may be contributing to incompatibility. We predict that these mechanisms may
333 be common beyond the highlighted case studies, with major implications for our understanding of
334 the evolution of reproductive isolation. Understanding when introgression leads to the
335 maintenance, erasure, or transfer of incompatibility alleles will require significant strides in both
336 theory and empirical works. This will also be aided by a greater understanding of how
337 incompatibility genes behave in nature (see Box 3).

338

339 *Evolutionary idiosyncrasies: patterns, processes and reading the phylogenetic tea leaves*

340 With a rapid increase in the number of mapped hybrid incompatibilities, we have an
341 opportunity to ask whether the mechanisms that drive the evolution of incompatibilities are shared
342 across the branches of the tree of life. At first glance, it appears that the evolutionary mechanisms
343 that underlie incompatibilities may vary across kingdoms, with coevolution with satellite DNA
344 being especially common in *Drosophila* and host-pathogen coevolution remarkably common in
345 plants, to name a few patterns that immediately emerge from our analysis (Fig. 2B). Furthermore,
346 several cases where the same genes repeatedly become involved in hybrid incompatibilities may
347 be driven by these common evolutionary pressures. For example, almost all incidences of hybrid
348 necrosis across diverse plant species involve nucleotide-binding domain and leucine-rich repeat
349 (NLR) genes [97].

350 It is important to note, however, that these discoveries do not occur in isolation. Each new
351 mapped incompatibility spurs research into the consequences of particular genetic mechanisms,
352 especially in closely related species. This makes unraveling phylogenetic patterns particularly
353 challenging. However, we can look to examples where a particular mechanism has been
354 investigated across diverse taxa. As one example, motivated by compelling evidence of the links
355 between TE misregulation and hybrid dysgenesis in *Drosophila*, studies in several systems have
356 found evidence for changes in TE regulation in hybrids, but few have found evidence that this is
357 linked to lower viability or fertility in hybrids [36], suggesting that this mechanism may be
358 somewhat lineage specific. By contrast, cytonuclear incompatibilities appear to be quite common
359 across taxa and may represent a common evolutionary mechanism for the emergence of
360 incompatibilities. Moreover, the convergent evolution of **genomic imprinting** in mammals and
361 angiosperms could explain the seemingly parallel patterns of parent-of-origin growth defects
362 underlying early onset hybrid inviability in these taxa [134]. Overall, the variance in mechanisms
363 across systems highlights how little is known in general about the degree to which the evolutionary
364 drivers of hybrid incompatibilities are shared versus lineage specific.

365

366 **Concluding Remarks**

367

368 Despite substantial progress in the past 15 years in identifying the genes underlying hybrid
369 incompatibilities and the mechanisms through which they evolve, many outstanding questions
370 remain (Box 4). With dozens of newly mapped hybrid incompatibilities, we find that several
371 mechanisms previously synthesized by Presgraves [6] and others [135,136], such as intragenomic
372 conflicts, remain an important force in the evolution of hybrid incompatibilities. However, we also

373 highlight new evolutionary scenarios that may play fundamental roles in the evolution of
374 incompatibilities, including developmental systems drift, balancing selection, and introgression.
375 Although we are now amassing some empirical examples of these processes, the relative
376 importance of these evolutionary drivers remains unknown. In Box 2, we highlight new and
377 promising approaches to begin to pursue these fundamental questions. Moreover, there is an urgent
378 need to revisit classic theoretical models of how hybrid incompatibilities evolve in light of current
379 empirical results and newer models for the evolution of hybrid incompatibility.

380

381 **Box 1. Recombination, Sequence Divergence, and Isolation**

382 Successful meiosis requires that a precursor cell accurately sorts one copy of each of its
383 chromosomes into the future gametes. Pairing of homologous chromosomes is a crucial step in
384 this process. If the paired chromosomes are too dissimilar, “anti-recombination” mechanisms can
385 prevent crossing over and halt segregation, generally initiated by mismatch repair proteins
386 ensuring homology [137]. While this mechanism typically prevents rare errors where non-
387 homologous chromosomes pair during meiosis, a similar process may also come into play in
388 hybrids. Specifically, if the two chromosomes that need to pair come from deeply diverged species,
389 this may trigger anti-recombination pathways in nearly every meiosis, ultimately resulting in
390 hybrid sterility.

391 This mechanism of reproductive isolation has been observed in yeast (Fig. 3). Early studies
392 in yeast showed that the mismatch-repair system plays a key role in several instances of hybrid
393 sterility between species [137] and between divergent lineages [138]. Hybrids of *Saccharomyces*
394 *cerevisiae* and *S. paradoxus*, which exhibit ~12% sequence divergence, experience dysfunctional
395 chromosomal segregation and high rates of aneuploidy [139]. Among *S. paradoxus* strains, even

396 relatively low levels of sequence divergence (1.4%) result in increased rates of spore inviability
397 due to activation of anti-recombination mechanisms [139]. The suppression of mismatch-repair
398 during meiosis rescues hybrid fertility, confirming the role of anti-recombination mechanisms in
399 reproductive isolation between these species. While several mismatch repair genes have been
400 implicated in this process (e.g. *MHS2* and *SGS1*), the underlying genetic divergence between the
401 sequences plays a key role in meiotic failure and hybrid sterility [28].

402 Meiotic problems impacting chromosome pairing tend to be observed in species with
403 extraordinary levels of genetic divergence at the nucleotide level, and the degree to which similar
404 mechanisms may impact fertility in species with less extreme genetic divergence is unclear. That
405 said, sequence divergence at the binding sites of *Prdm9*, which specifies the locations of meiotic
406 double strand breaks in mammals and some other vertebrates, also drives hybrid sterility in mice
407 through distinct mechanisms [140,141]. This suggests that there may be multiple ways in which
408 recombination interacts with sequence divergence to impact successful meiosis, and future work
409 may uncover further links between recombination and hybrid sterility.

410

411 **Box 2: Promising new computational and experimental approaches**

412 A major barrier to progress in research on hybrid incompatibilities is the high cost and
413 labor of identifying causative genes. As one example, the interacting partner of *Xmrk* in hybrids
414 between *X. maculatus* and *X. hellerii* took ~30 years to be identified [69]. Some recent
415 experimental work has taken advantage of a combination of natural hybrids and admixture
416 mapping approaches with lab-generated hybrids to combine the precision of mapping in the lab
417 with the shorter ancestry tracts found in late generation hybrids [14,17]. However, few systems in
418 which we can genetically map incompatibility in the lab also have active hybrid zones, precluding

419 this possibility for many research groups. We propose that an exciting possibility could come from
420 adapting methods from other fields. For example, researchers focused on mapping the interactome
421 have developed high-throughput and sensitive approaches to detect epistasis in cell lines [70].
422 Since it is increasingly possible to generate cell lines from non-model species [71,72], this
423 approach could be accessible to many researchers, and could even be combined with a reciprocal
424 hemizyosity test in F1 cell lines [73]. We note, however, that it would only allow researchers to
425 assay a limited number of phenotypes. In cases where phenotypes associated with incompatibilities
426 are known, other approaches such as targeted or single cell RNAseq, have allowed researchers to
427 identify genes that are expressed or coexpressed in cell types of interest [74,75].

428 In addition to these experimental challenges, scans for hybrid incompatibilities notoriously
429 suffer from low power because of the immense number of statistical tests required [76], but
430 methodological advances have been slow. Most methods, including those developed by our
431 groups, are underpowered and have high false positive rates (e.g. [77]). Researchers have used
432 several effective approaches to improve power, such as first identifying segregation distortion in
433 controlled crosses, and then performing scans for loci that interact with the distorter [14]. However,
434 in a recent study we found that even with ~1800 hybrids, we only had power to detect segregation
435 distorters that reduced survival by at least 30% [78], highlighting the likely presence of many
436 biologically relevant incompatibilities that fall below the detection thresholds of most studies.
437 Applications of new approaches from human genetics such as network-informed mapping [79] or
438 machine learning approaches to identify signals in genetic data that have not been the focus of
439 population genetic models could further improve power [80]. Progress in either experimental or
440 computational tools could fuel major shifts in the field.

441

442 **Box 3. Reproductive isolation in the wild**

443 One major shortcoming of the current literature is a limited understanding of how hybrid
444 incompatibilities are exposed in nature and the ways in which they act to impact reproductive
445 isolation in the wild. Because the vast majority of hybrid incompatibilities have been identified in
446 species that do not naturally hybridize (Table 1), it is impossible to evaluate their action in natural
447 populations. The few exceptions - including mice, *Mimulus*, and swordtails - have yielded mixed
448 results. Recently, Frayer and Payseur reported that most loci involved in reproductive
449 incompatibility in mice do not prevent gene flow in natural hybrids [127]. By contrast, work in
450 swordtails has indicated strong selection against mitonuclear incompatibilities and hybrid
451 melanoma in wild populations, often resulting in changes in ancestry around these loci [128,129].
452 In hybrids between *Mimulus guttatus* and *M. nasutus*, some alleles show reductions in
453 introgression in nature, while others do not [21,130,131].

454 An additional complexity is the growing realization that reproductive isolation is highly
455 polymorphic in nature. While patterns of local ancestry in replicated hybrid zones are very
456 consistent in some species [129], in other species pairs local ancestry patterns are highly variable
457 [132]. While some of these patterns are likely driven by extrinsic factors, they could also reflect
458 the outcomes of polymorphism in the underlying loci involved in hybrid incompatibilities. Indeed,
459 many of the genes in Table 1 are polymorphic within their respective species. Just as asymmetric
460 incompatibilities may be more likely to be removed by strong selection against hybrids (see section
461 “Symmetry and Complexity”), an incompatible allele that is polymorphic within a population may
462 also be easily removed by selection.

463 More broadly, we highlight that the way that incompatibility alleles act in naturally
464 hybridizing species may be more complex than has long been anticipated [122,123,133].

465 Expanding our understanding of genetic incompatibilities in naturally hybridizing species and
466 determining how frequently and under what conditions they play a role in preventing genetic
467 exchange between species in nature should be a major priority for future work.

468

469 **Glossary**

470 ❖ **Arms race:** The continuous co-evolution of genetic elements that experience antagonistic
471 evolution, typically through intragenomic conflict or host-pathogen conflict.

472 ❖ **Asymmetrical incompatibilities:** Genetic incompatibilities in which only one hybrid
473 genotype exhibits reduced fitness (i.e. *AAbb or aaBB*).

474 ❖ **Balancing selection:** When natural selection acts to maintain multiple alleles in a
475 population.

476 ❖ **Complex incompatibilities:** Hybrid incompatibilities involving more than two interacting
477 genes or genomic regions.

478 ❖ **Developmental systems drift:** A process by which the underlying genic structure of a
479 phenotype evolves, while the phenotype itself remains relatively unchanged. Typically,
480 this is conceptualized by a trait under stabilizing selection, with mutations shifting fitness
481 away from the optima, with subsequent selection for compensatory mutations that move
482 the population back towards the optima.

483 ❖ **Dobzhansky-Müller model of hybrid incompatibilities (DMI):** A model to explain the
484 evolution of intrinsic postzygotic reproductive isolation, by which populations diverge at
485 two or more loci. While each new allele is neutral or increases fitness in the background in
486 which it has evolved, combining these alleles in hybrids can result in dysfunction.

487 ❖ **Fitness:** The ability of an organism to survive to maturity and reproduce.

- 488 ❖ **Genetic barriers:** Genetic factors that prevent successful mating within or between
489 populations.
- 490 ❖ **Genomic Imprinting:** Gene expression that exhibits a parent-of-origin specific bias;
491 typically caused by epigenetic modifications which preferentially silence expression of one
492 parental copy of an allele.
- 493 ❖ **Hitchhiking:** The process by which a neutral allele increases in frequency due to selection
494 on a nearby allele.
- 495 ❖ **Hybrid dysgenesis:** A phenotypic syndrome described in hybrids that includes reduced
496 fertility and mal-formed reproductive organs. In described cases, this is typically caused
497 by overactivity of transposable elements in hybrids.
- 498 ❖ **Hybrid Necrosis:** A suite of stress-related phenotypes that are the outcome of immune
499 system overactivation. This includes cell death (necrosis) and stunted growth (dwarfism).
- 500 ❖ **Intragenomic conflict:** Co-evolution among genes within a genome caused by
501 antagonistic natural selection, typically arising at different levels of selection. Examples
502 include chromosomes that exhibit meiotic drive, or transposable elements and their
503 respective repressors.
- 504 ❖ **Introgression:** The incorporation of genetic material from one lineage into another through
505 hybridization.
- 506 ❖ **Linkage disequilibrium:** The statistical non-independence of alleles at different loci. This
507 can be caused by physical proximity (i.e. linkage), non-random mating, or natural selection
508 maintaining associations between two or more loci.
- 509 ❖ **Presence-Absence variants:** A structural variant in which individuals vary in the presence
510 or absence of a genomic region.

511 ❖ **Speciation genes:** Genes associated with a hybrid incompatibility that play a role in
512 reproductive barriers between species.

513 ❖ **Symmetrical incompatibilities:** Genetic incompatibilities in which reciprocal hybrid
514 genotypes both exhibit reduced fitness (i.e. both AAbb *and* aaBB genotypes).

515 ❖ **Toxin-antidote systems:** A specific form of intragenomic conflict wherein “killer”
516 gametes evolve an antidote and poison, the latter of which serves to incapacitate gametes
517 that do not produce the antidote.

518

519

520

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527

528 **Declaration of interests**

529 The authors declare no competing interests.

530

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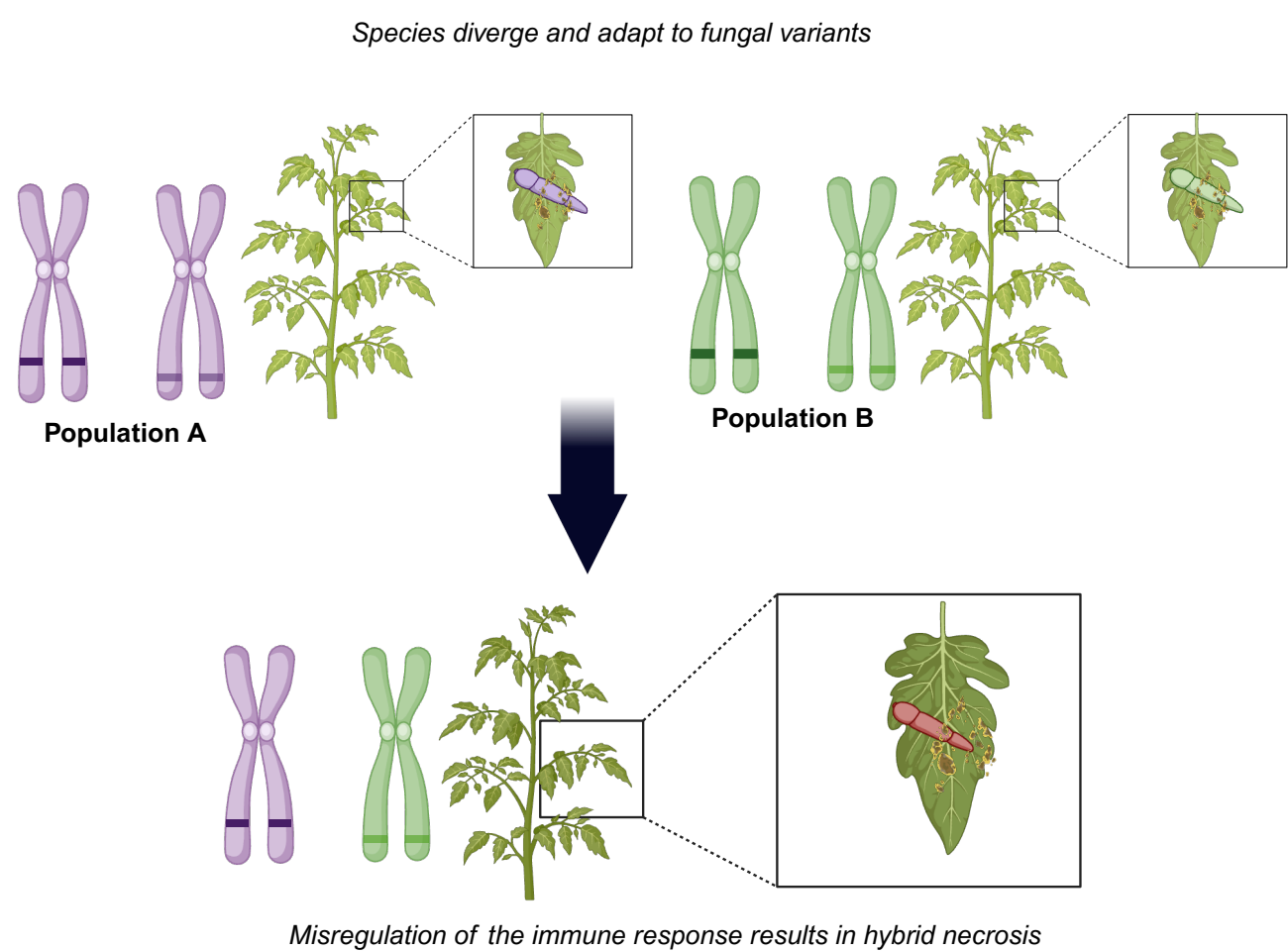
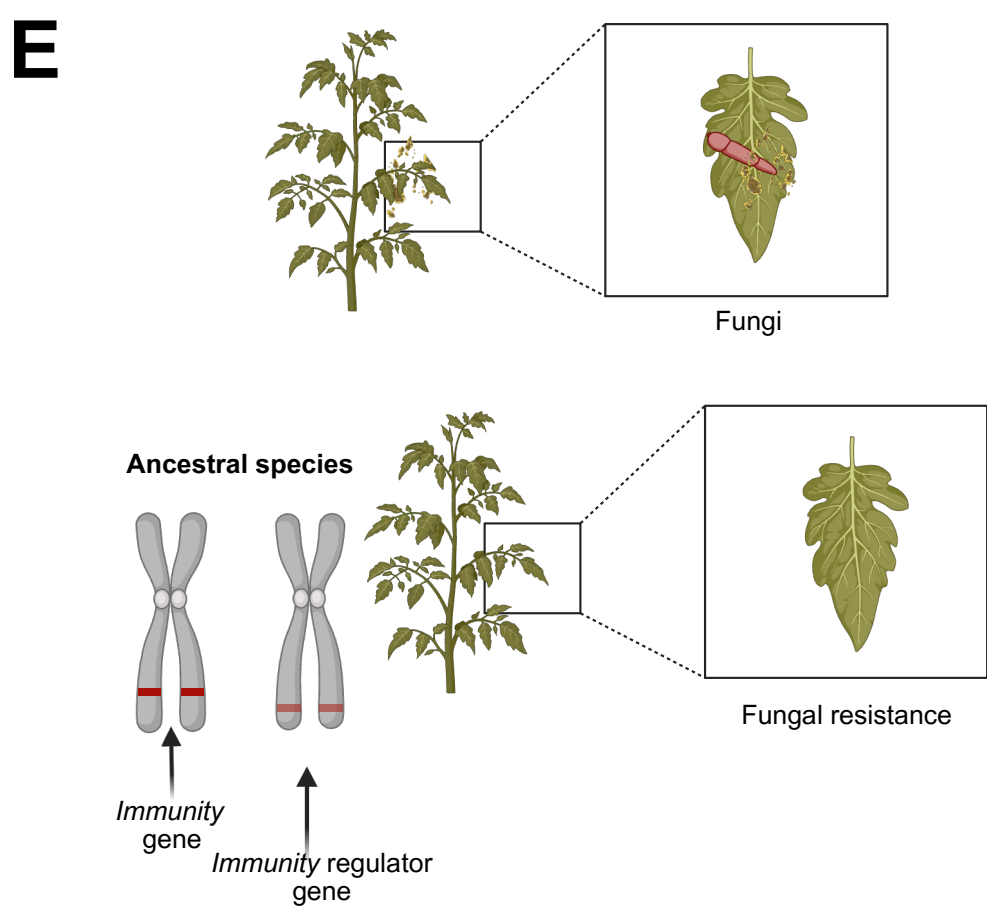
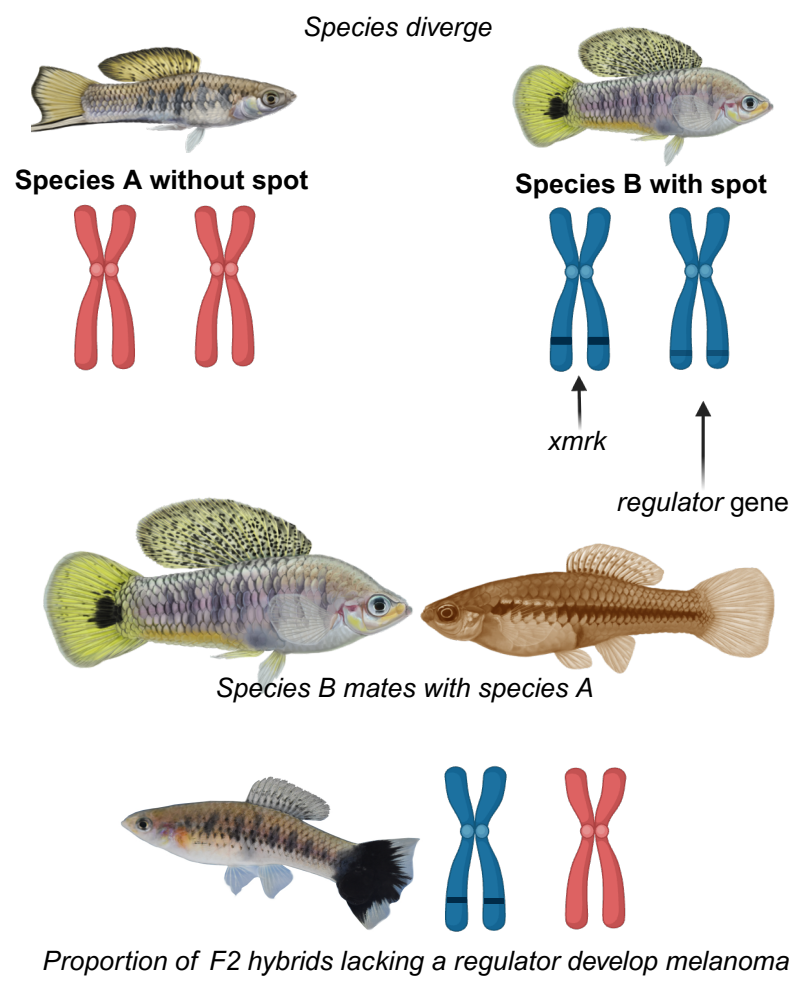
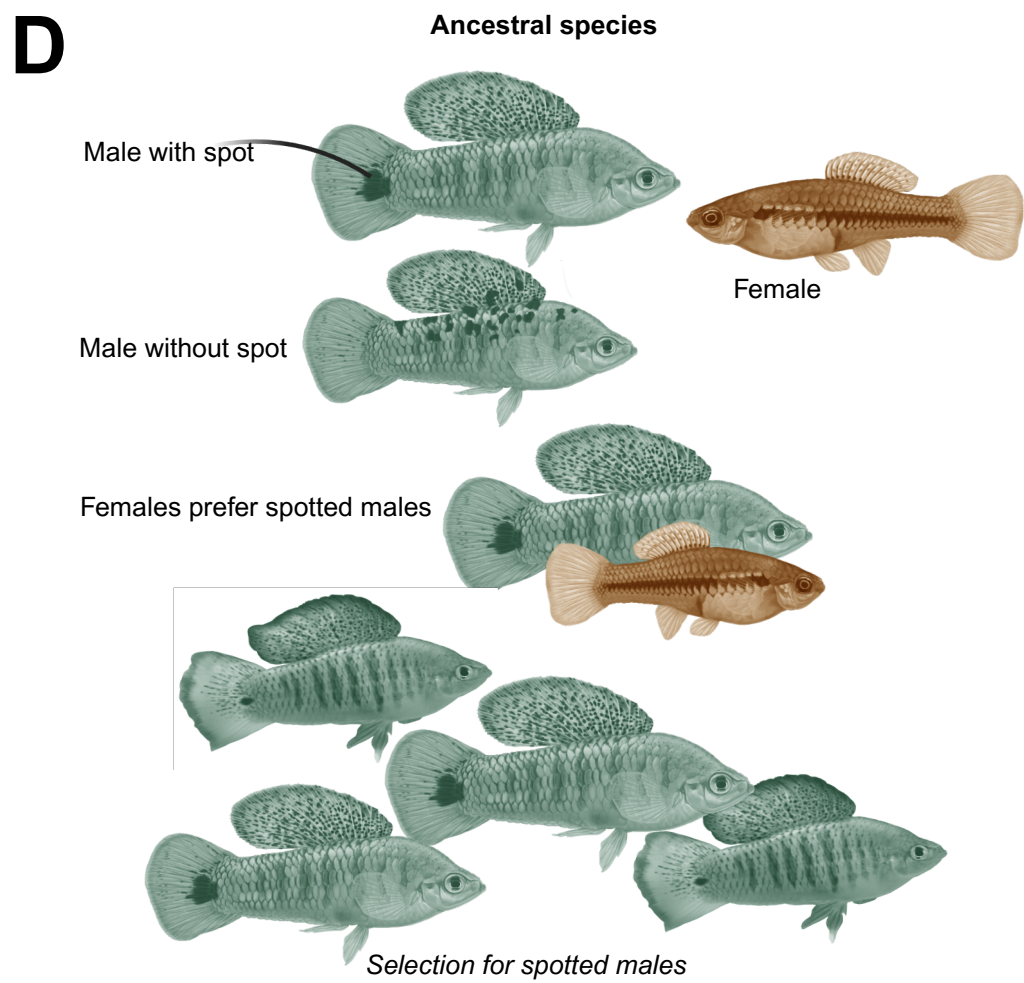
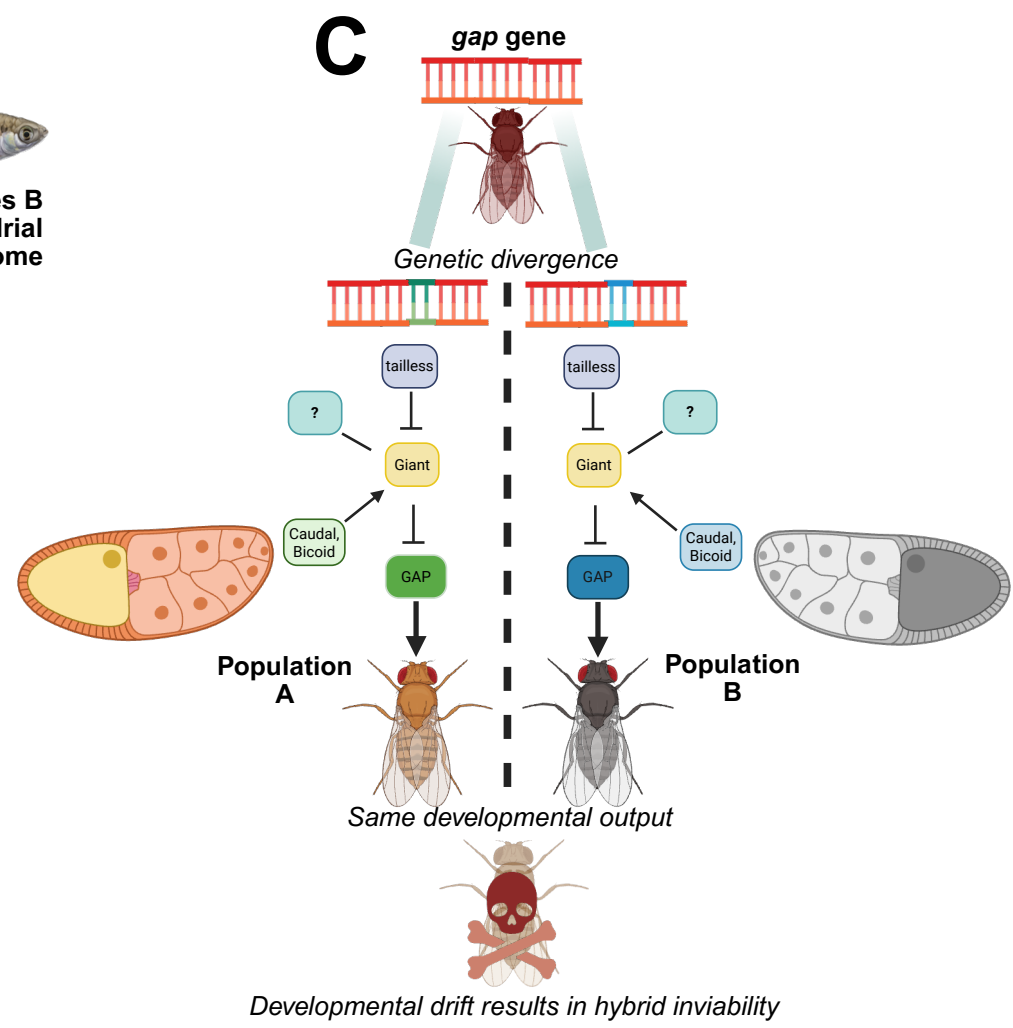
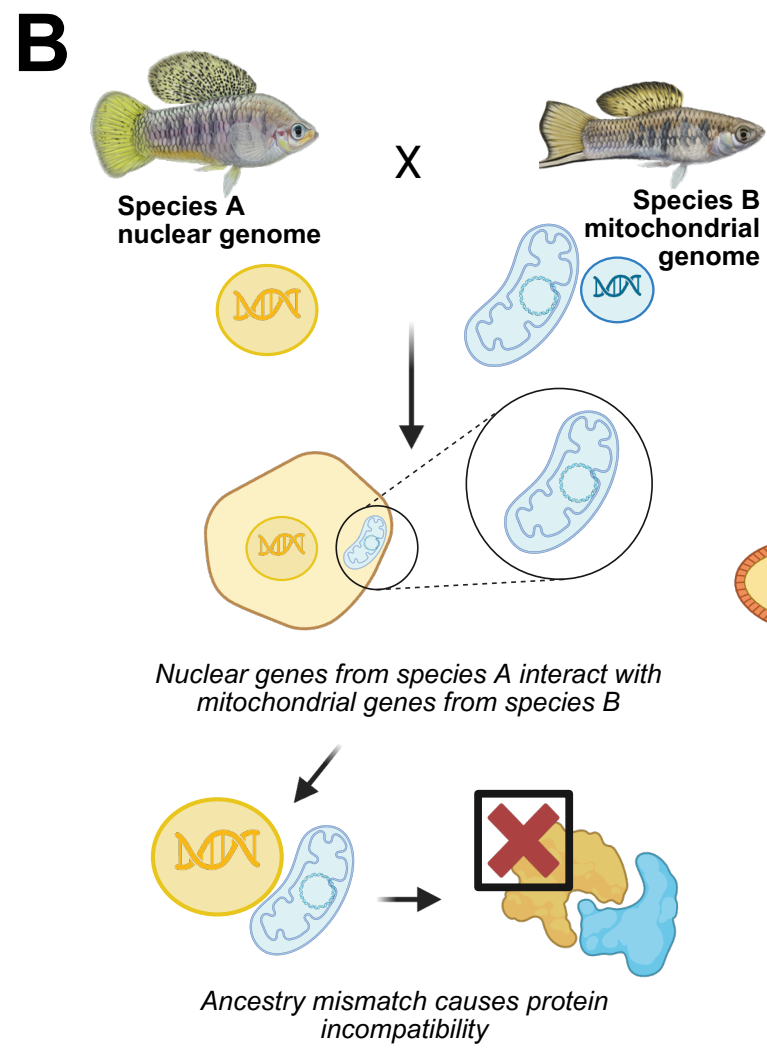
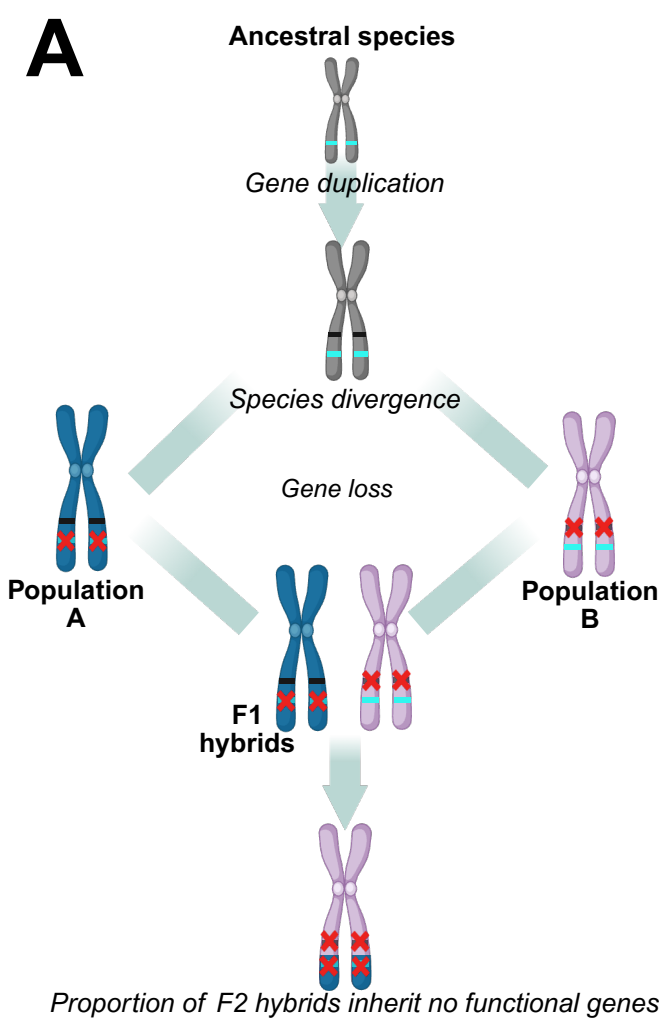
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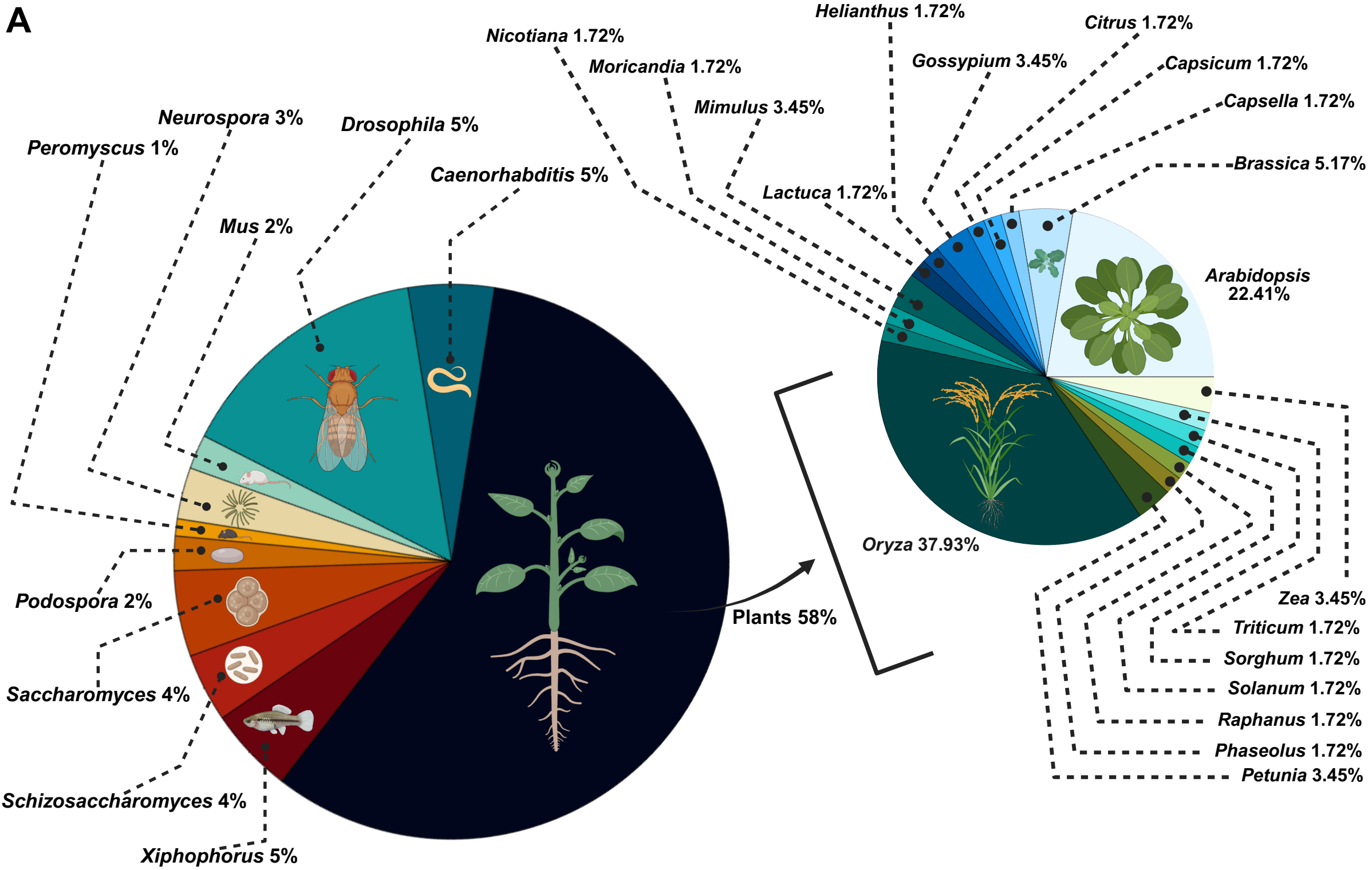
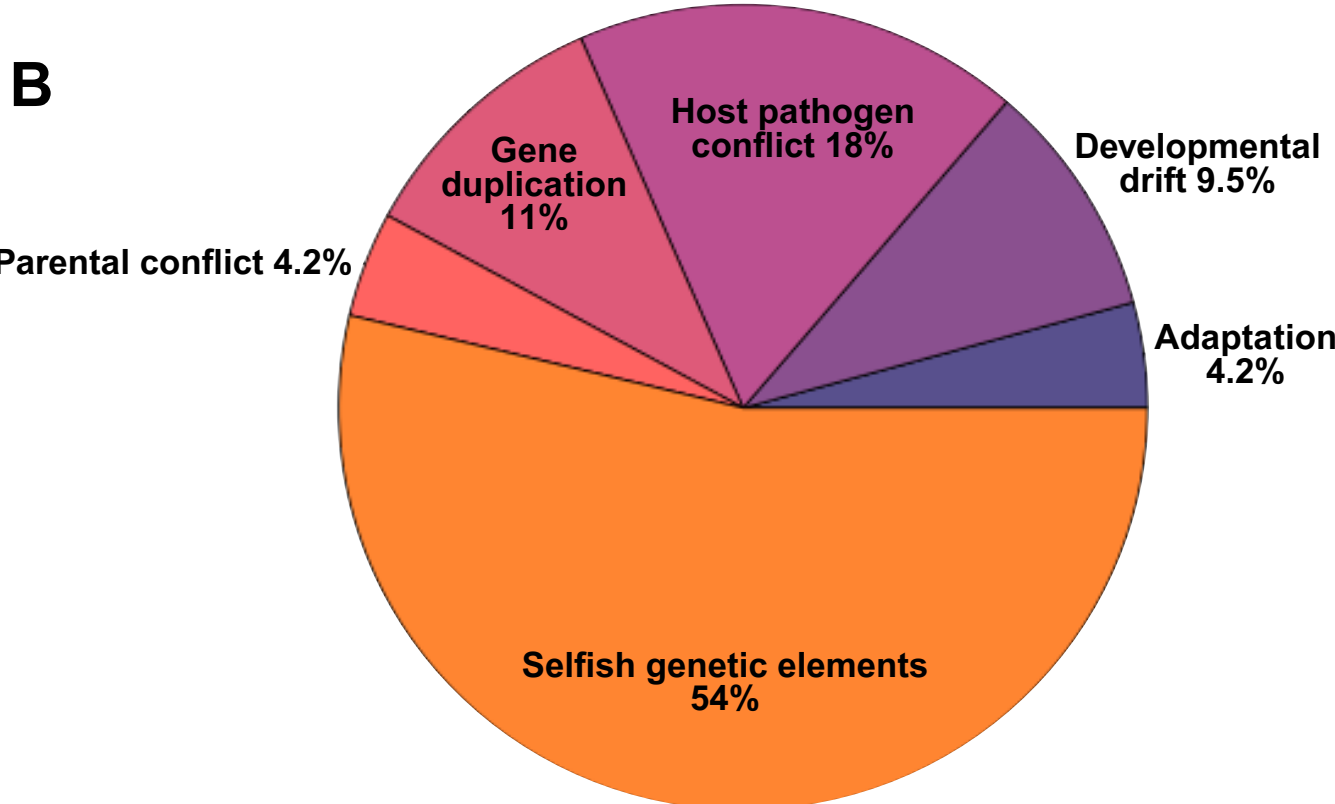
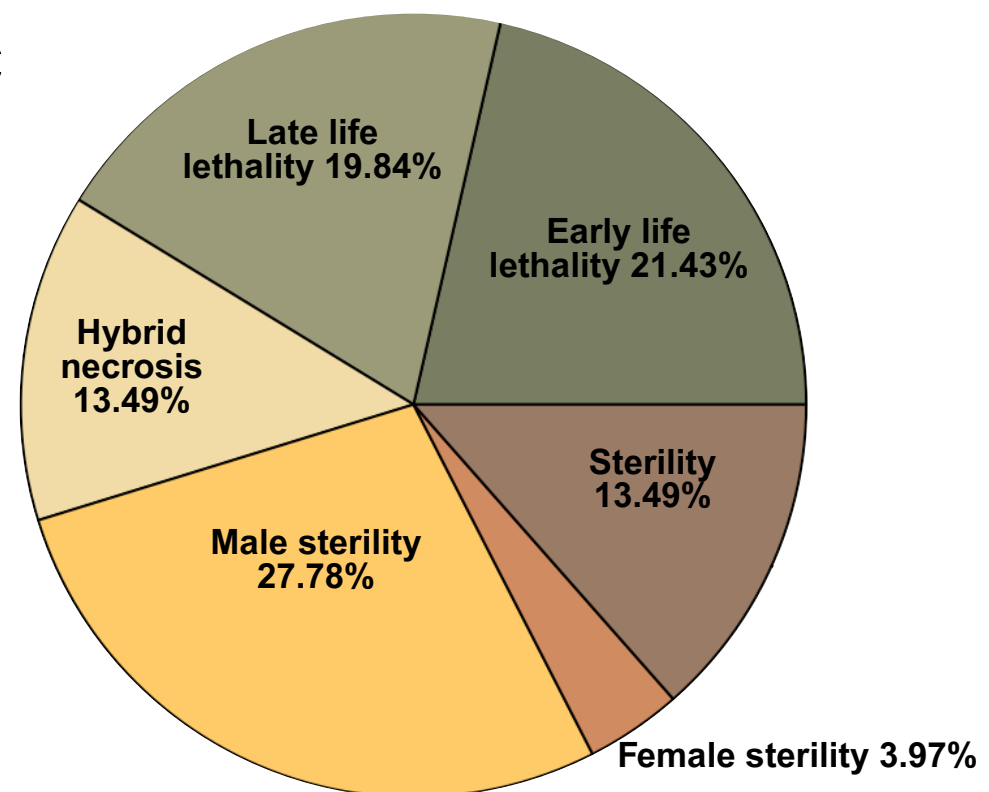
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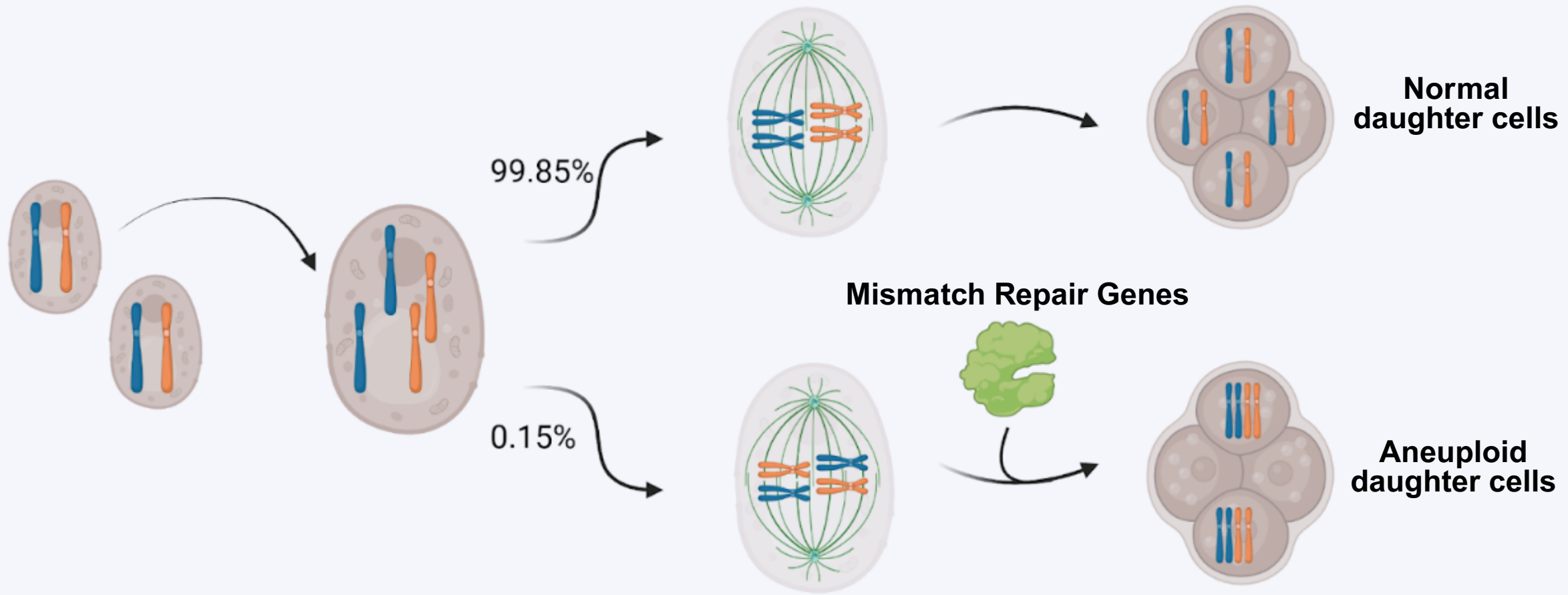
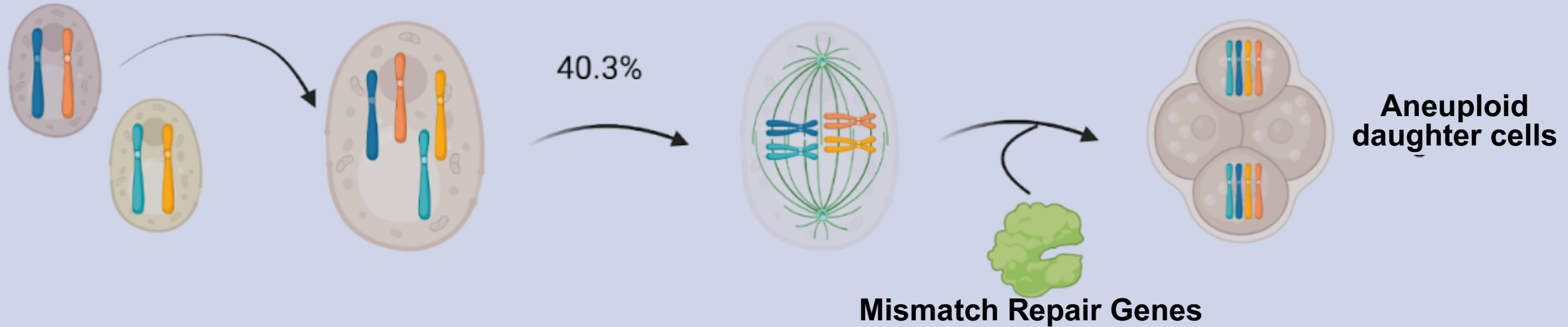


839 **Figure 1.** Illustration of different evolutionary mechanisms that can contribute to the evolution of
840 hybrid incompatibilities (Table 1). **(A)** Gene Duplication in the ancestral lineage followed by
841 differential loss of duplicate copies in the daughter lineages can result in subset of hybrids
842 inheriting no copies of a gene, which commonly results in inviability. **(B)** Coevolution between
843 interacting proteins within lineages can result in dysfunctional interactions when mismatched
844 proteins are introduced to each other in hybrids. Example shown here corresponds to a mitonuclear
845 incompatibility from Moran et al. [14]. **(C)** Developmental systems drift describes the observation
846 that genetic pathways underlying important biological processes can diverge over evolutionary
847 timescales, but remain functionally conserved. The example shown here is drawn from Chang et
848 al. [118,118], where the authors found that combining different versions of conserved
849 developmental pathways in *Drosophila* hybrids can result in developmental defects. This example
850 is further discussed in Fig. 5. **(D)** Adaptation and sexual selection can drive the fixation of variants
851 that differ between species, and as a byproduct of this process, these variants can become involved
852 in hybrid incompatibilities. Evidence for this particular process is sparse. Here we show an
853 example from Powell et al. [17] where sexual selection may be important in the evolution of a
854 melanoma incompatibility. Spotting patterns are sexually selected in some *Xiphophorus* species
855 [145] but the gene underlying these spots often causes melanoma in hybrids. **(E)** Evolutionary
856 arms races between pathogens and hosts can drive genetic changes between host lineages in genes
857 involved in pathogen response. Misregulation of these genes in hybrids has been identified as a
858 frequent cause of hybrid necrosis in plants. Example shown here corresponds to the case described
859 by Kruger et. al. [146].

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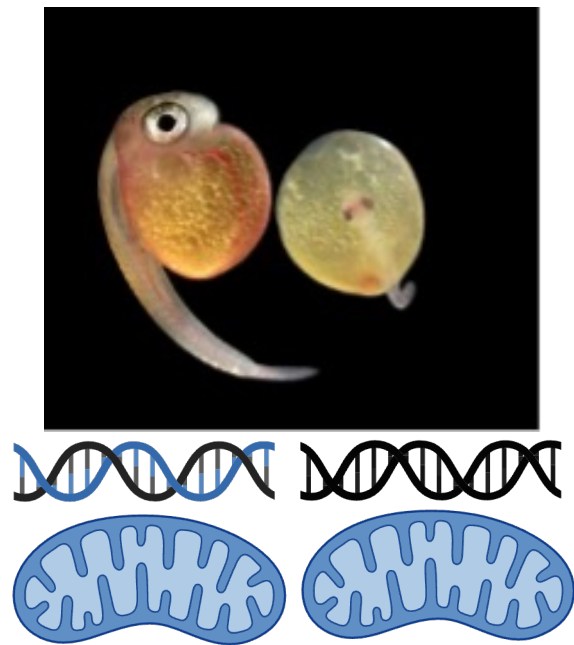
A**B****C**

862 **Figure 2.** Summary of results from our literature search and curation of hybrid incompatibility
863 genes that have been precisely mapped. **A)** Despite recent progress, hybrid incompatibilities have
864 been mapped in only a small subset of eukaryotic species. Shown here are results from Table 1
865 split by taxonomic group, with the inset summarizing plant genera where incompatibilities have
866 been mapped. These results highlight several lineages that are absent from the existing literature,
867 including amphibians and reptiles, among many others. **B)** Proportion of hybrid incompatibilities
868 that have been identified categorized by the likely mechanism that drove their evolution (see
869 Table 1). The “Adaptation” category includes cases involving both sexual selection and
870 ecological adaptation. We note that although we plot only one mechanism per incompatibility –
871 the one the authors of the original work viewed as most likely – many mechanisms are not
872 mutually exclusive and a given hybrid incompatibility may span more than one category. **C)**
873 Proportion of hybrid incompatibilities classified as a function of hybrid phenotype reported.
874 Early Life and Late Life Lethality include cases of melanoma, abnormal development, biased sex
875 ratio, and inviability. Female and Male Sterility refers to either sterility of an individual of a
876 given sex or sterility of the male vs female gametes in hermaphroditic plants. If sterility is
877 present in both sexes or not specified, it is listed under “Sterility”.
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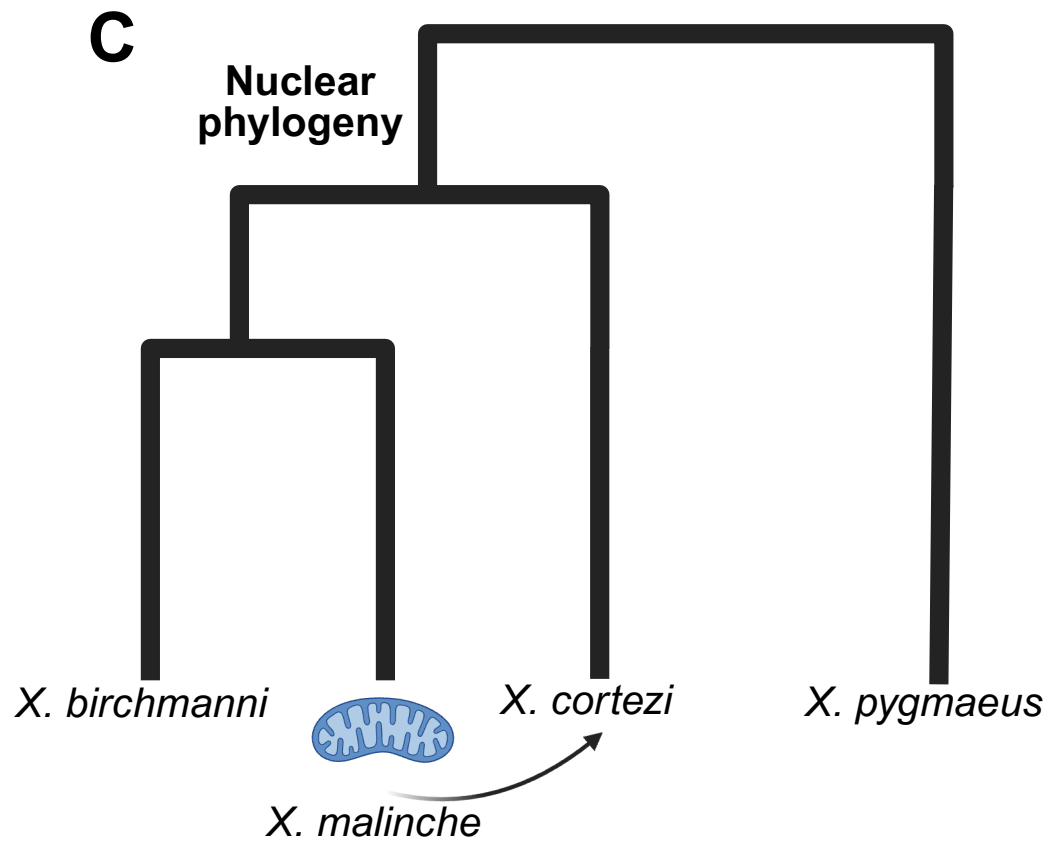
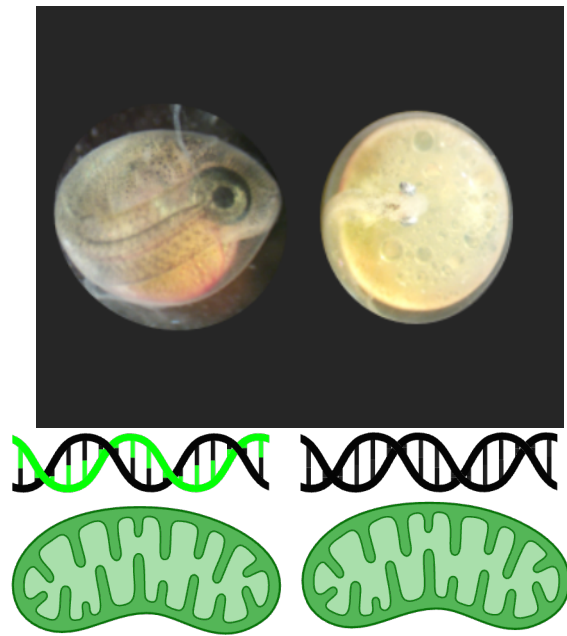
A**B**

880 **Figure 3.** During a typical *S. cerevisiae* meiosis (**A**), chromosomes pair with their homologs,
881 undergo recombination, and are then sorted into haploid gametes. In about 0.15% of meioses
882 [139], the mismatch repair system detects a lack of similarity between pairs and halts
883 segregation, producing tetrads with aneuploid cells. In hybrids between *S. cerevisiae* and *S.*
884 *paradoxus* (**B**), the mismatch repair system is often activated by the sequence divergence
885 between homologous chromosomes derived from each species. This results in tetrads with
886 aneuploid cells, and because it occurs at such a high rate, the hybrid yeast are rendered sterile.
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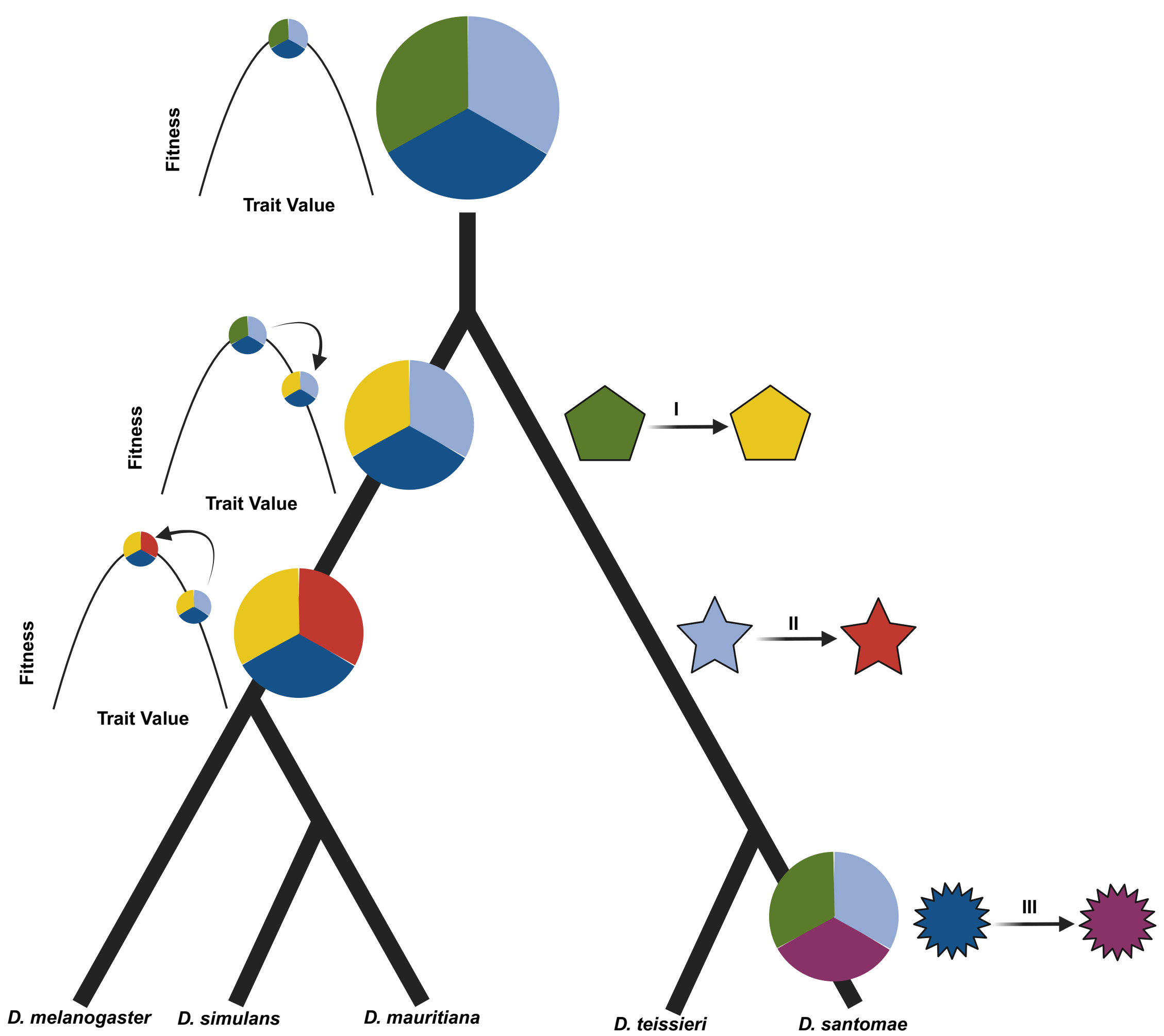
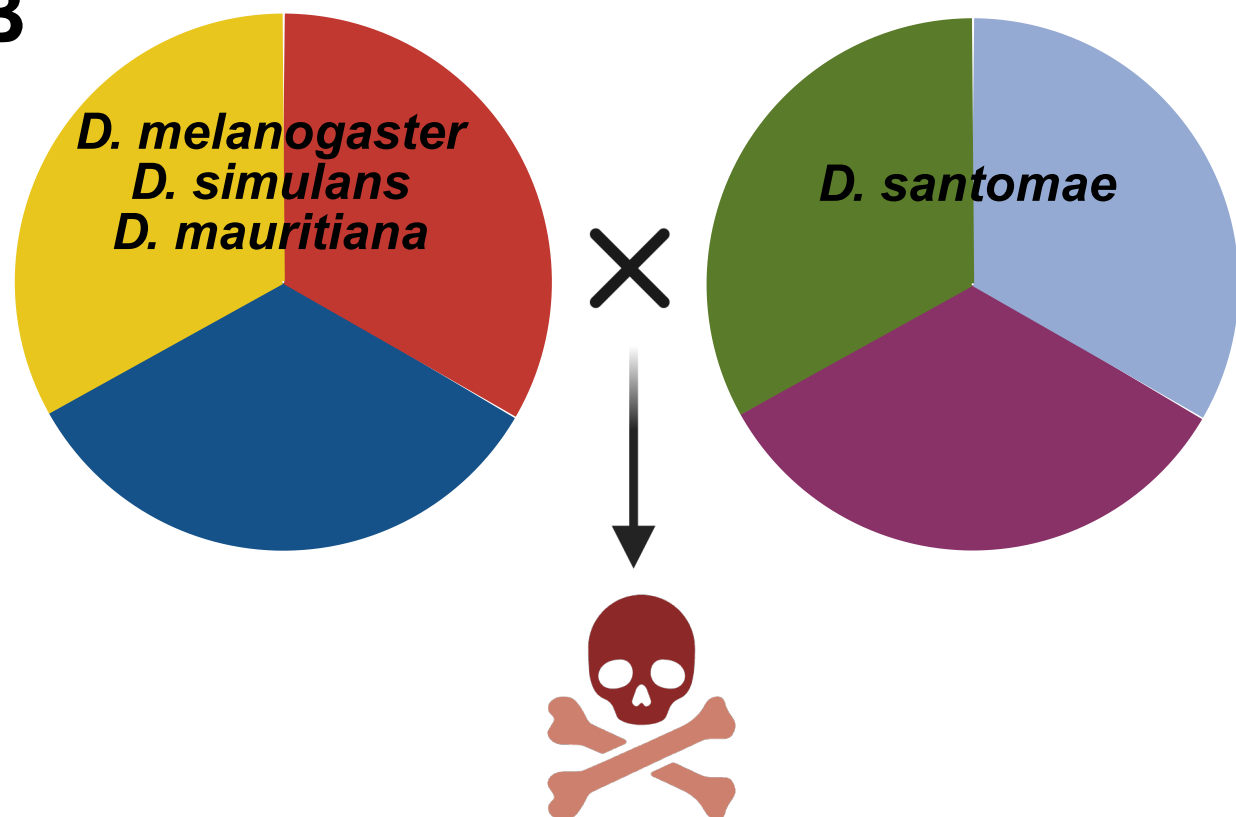
A *X. malinche* x *X. birchmanni* F2



B *X. cortezi* x *X. birchmanni* F2



889 **Figure 4. A)** F2 hybrid with *X. malinche* mitochondrial ancestry and *X. birchmanni*
890 heterozygous nuclear ancestry at *ndufs5* (left); F2 hybrid with *X. malinche* mitochondrial
891 ancestry and *X. birchmanni* homozygous ancestry at *ndufs5* (right; [14]). **B)** F2 hybrid with *X.*
892 *cortezii* mitochondrial ancestry and *X. birchmanni* heterozygous nuclear ancestry at *ndufs5* (left);
893 F2 hybrid with *X. cortezii* mitochondrial ancestry and *X. birchmanni* homozygous ancestry at
894 *ndufs5* (right;[125]). Ancestry mismatch at these loci has remarkably similar consequences for
895 phenotypes and hybrid survival in *X. cortezii* x *X. birchmanni* hybrids as in *X. malinche* x *X.*
896 *birchmanni* hybrids. Individuals with mismatched ancestry at *ndufs5* undergo arrested
897 development *in utero* in both crosses and experience essentially 100% mortality. **C)** Ancient
898 hybridization between *X. malinche* and *X. cortezii* has resulted in introgression of the
899 mitochondria from *X. malinche* into *X. cortezii*.
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A**B****C**

902 **Figure 5.** Hybrid inviability between species from the *D. melanogaster* subgroup and *D. santomea*
903 is caused by developmental systems drift in pathways involving essential GAP genes. **A)** At least
904 3 loci control hybrid inviability between the *D. melanogaster* subgroup and *D. santomea*. The
905 phylogeny shows a model of allelic evolution for two GAP genes that are essential for normal
906 larval development, but cause hybrid inviability in crosses between the *D. melanogaster* subgroup
907 and *D. santomea* (*Giant* and *Tailless*). On the left are fitness optima, illustrating that the ancestral
908 combination of alleles existed at a fitness optimum. The developmental systems drift model
909 predicts that changes from the fitness optima in a phenotype under stabilizing selection are restored
910 by a compensatory mutation at another locus (we note at this time it is unknown which derived
911 allele at *Giant* or *Tailless* were involved in compensatory mutations). Incompatibility is conferred
912 by a three-way interaction involving a currently unidentified gene in *D. santomea*. **B)** These novel
913 tri-locus genotypes interact negatively to cause hybrid death via abdominal ablation [117,118]. **C)**
914 Image of abnormal development in *D. melanogaster* x *D. santomea* hybrids reveal a lethal
915 abdominal ablation (photo credit to D.R. Matute).

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920 **Table 1.** Compilation of known hybrid incompatibility genes, the predicted evolutionary mechanisms through which they evolved,
 921 organisms in which they occur, and associated phenotypes, if available. Note that data in this table includes genes curated from the
 922 primary literature as well as genes listed in previous review papers [6,98,142–144]. To identify empirical examples from the literature,
 923 we searched both Google Scholar and Web of Science, using forward and reverse searches to identify potential incompatibilities. We
 924 required that each incompatibility have at least one gene that is precisely mapped and a clear connection to a postzygotic barrier
 925 phenotype to be included in our table.
 926

Gene	Interaction	Proposed Evolutionary Pressure	Species	Hybrid Phenotype	Hybrid Genotype	Molecular mechanism	Refs
<i>Rf</i>	<i>A. l. petraea</i> mitochondrial genome	selfish genetic elements	<i>Arabidopsis l. petraea</i> x <i>A. l. lyrata</i>	Male sterility	F2 hybrids carrying <i>A. l. petraea</i> mitochondria and lacking <i>A. l. petraea Rf</i> .		[1]
ACD6		host-pathogen conflict	<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i> (intraspecific)	Hybrid necrosis, Inviability, Late life lethality	F1 hybrids with <i>ACD6</i> from different populations.	<i>ACD6</i> encodes a transmembrane ankyrin repeat protein, which modifies pattern recognition receptors (PRRs) and triggers autoimmunity.	[2]
DM1 (SSI4)	DM2 (RPP1)	host-pathogen conflict	<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i> (intraspecific)	Hybrid necrosis, Inviability, Late life lethality	Hybrids with <i>DM2</i> from <i>A. thaliana</i> accession <i>Landsberg erecta (Ler)</i> interacts and <i>DM1</i> .		[3]
EDS1	DM2 (RPP1)	host-pathogen conflict	<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i> (intraspecific)	Inviability, Hybrid necrosis, Late life lethality	Hybrids with <i>DM2</i> from <i>A. thaliana</i> accession <i>Landsberg erecta (Ler)</i> and <i>EDS1</i> .		[4]
<i>HPA1/HPA2</i>		neutral (gene duplication)	<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i> (intraspecific)	Early life lethality, Inviability	F2 hybrids homozygous for the non-functional allele at both loci.	Presence-absence variant	[5]
KPOK3A, KPOK3C	APOK3	selfish genetic elements	<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i> (intraspecific)	Male sterility	Hybrids heterozygous for the antidote	Toxin (<i>KPOK3A, KPOK3C</i>) -antidote (<i>APOK3</i>) system	[6,7]
OAK		host-pathogen conflict	<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i> (intraspecific)	Inviability, Hybrid necrosis, Late life lethality	F1 hybrids with <i>OAK</i> alleles from different populations.	Novel promoter region	[8]

RFL24		selfish genetic elements	<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i> (intraspecific)	Male sterility	Males lacking restorer genes (unknown).		[9,10]
RPP4/5		host-pathogen conflict	<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i> (intraspecific)	Inviability, Hybrid necrosis, Late life lethality	F1 hybrids with <i>RPP4/5</i> alleles from different populations.		[11]
RPP7	RPW8/HR4	host-pathogen conflict	<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i> (intraspecific)	Inviability, Hybrid necrosis, Late life lethality	Multiple allelic combinations	Variation in the number of repeats in RPW8 modulates its ability to interact with RPP7.	[12]
SRF3	DM2 (RPP1)	host-pathogen conflict	<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i> (intraspecific)	Inviability, Hybrid necrosis, Late life lethality	Hybrids with <i>DM2</i> from <i>A. thaliana</i> accession <i>Landsberg erecta</i> (<i>Ler</i>) and <i>SF3</i> .		[13]
<i>AGL62</i> , <i>AGL90</i>		parental conflict	<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i> x <i>A. arenosa</i>	Inviability, Early life lethality	F1 hybrids	Reduced expression of <i>AGL62</i> and <i>AGL90</i> leads to embryo arrest.	[14]
<i>PHE1</i>		parental conflict	<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i> x <i>A. arenosa</i>	Inviability, Early life lethality	F1 hybrids	Maternal imprinting of <i>PHE1</i> is disrupted.	[15,16]
<i>ORF263</i> , <i>ORF193</i> (<i>atp9</i>)		selfish genetic elements	<i>Brassica juncea</i> x <i>B. tournefortii</i>	Male sterility	Hybrid males lacking restorer genes (unknown).		[17]
<i>ORF224</i> , <i>ORF222</i>		selfish genetic elements	<i>Brassica napus</i> (intraspecific)	Male sterility	Males lacking restorer genes (unknown).		[18]
<i>ORF14767</i> (<i>msft-1</i>)		selfish genetic elements	<i>Caenorhabditis briggsae</i> (intraspecific)	Inviability, Early life lethality	F2 hybrids	Toxin-antidote system	[19]
<i>sup-35</i>	<i>pha-1</i>	selfish genetic elements	<i>Caenorhabditis elegans</i> (Hawaii strain x Bristol strain)	Inviability, Early life lethality	F2 hybrids lacking <i>pha-1</i> .	Toxin (<i>sup-35</i>)-antidote (<i>pha-1</i>) system	[20]
<i>zeel-1</i>	<i>peel-1</i>	selfish genetic elements	<i>Caenorhabditis elegans</i> (Hawaii strain x Bristol strain)	Inviability, Early life lethality	F2 hybrids lacking <i>zeel-1</i> .	Toxin (<i>peel-1</i>)-antidote (<i>zeel-1</i>) system	[21,22]
Cni-neib-1 (F-box gene)	Cbr-shls-1 (phosphoglucosylase)	host-pathogen conflict	<i>Caenorhabditis nigoni</i> x <i>C. briggsae</i>	Inviability, Early life lethality	F1 hybrids	The F-box protein degrades maternal and zygotic PGM	[23]

						from <i>C. briggsae</i> but not from <i>C. nigoni</i> .	
slow-1	grow-1	selfish genetic elements	<i>Caenorhabditis tropicalis</i> (intraspecific)	Inviability, Late life lethality	Hybrids lacking <i>grow-1</i>	Toxin (slow-1)-antidote (grow-1) system	[24]
<i>NPR-1</i>	<i>RPP5</i>	host-pathogen conflict	<i>Capsella grandiflora</i> x <i>C. rubella</i> ; <i>C. rubella</i> x <i>C. orientalis</i>	Inviability, Hybrid necrosis, Late life lethality	Hybrids with <i>RPP5</i> from <i>C. rubella</i> and <i>NPR1</i> from <i>C. grandiflora</i> or <i>C. orientalis</i> .		[25]
ORF456	CaPPR6	selfish genetic elements	<i>Capsicum annuum</i> (intraspecific)	Male sterility	Males lacking restorer genes		[26,27]
<i>ORF374</i> , <i>ORF384</i>	<i>Fh3g18750</i> , <i>Fh4g20550</i> , <i>Fh7g08550</i>	selfish genetic elements	<i>Citrus reticulata</i> x <i>C. maxima</i>	Male sterility	Males lacking restorer genes		[28]
<i>hhl</i>		selfish genetic elements	<i>Drosophila</i>	Inviability, Late life lethality	Hemizygous females with <i>D. melanogaster</i> X chromosome.		[29]
<i>hlx</i>	<i>su(hlx)</i>		<i>Drosophila mauritiana</i> females x <i>D. sechellia</i> males; <i>D. mauritiana</i> females x <i>D. simulans</i> males	Inviability, Early life lethality	Hybrids with <i>hlx</i> from <i>D. mauritiana</i> and recessive <i>D. sechellia</i> or <i>D. simulans</i> autosomal factors.		[30]
<i>OdsH</i>	Y chromosome heterochromatin	selfish genetic elements	<i>Drosophila mauritiana</i> x <i>D. simulans</i>	Male sterility	Male hybrids	The <i>D. mauritiana OdsH</i> abnormally associates with the heterochromatic Y chromosome of <i>D. simulans</i> .	[31]
<i>tmy</i>		selfish genetic elements	<i>Drosophila mauritiana</i> x <i>D. simulans</i>	Biased sex-ratio, Sterility, Early life lethality	Hybrid males with <i>tmy</i> from <i>D. simulans</i> and lacking its respective suppressor (unknown).	The <i>D. simulans tmy</i> on the X chromosome destroys <i>D. mauritiana</i> Y chromosome sperm during spermatogenesis.	[32]
<i>tmy</i>	<i>broadie</i>	selfish genetic elements	<i>Drosophila mauritiana</i> x <i>D. simulans</i>	Biased sex-ratio, Early life lethality, Male sterility	Hybrid males with <i>tmy</i> and <i>broadie</i> from <i>D. simulans</i> that lack the <i>D. simulans tmy</i> suppressor (unknown).		[32]

<i>HMR</i>	<i>LHR, gzf, Satyr</i>	selfish genetic elements	<i>Drosophila melanogaster females x D. simulans males</i>	Inviability, Early life lethality	F1 hybrids	Overexpression of <i>HMR/LHR</i> causes extensive mislocalization of <i>HMR</i> to <i>gzf</i> sites in interspecies hybrids if <i>gzf</i> from <i>D. simulans</i> is present.	[33,34]
<i>giant</i>		developmental systems drift or compensatory evolution	<i>Drosophila melanogaster x D. santomea</i>	Inviability, Abnormal development, Early life lethality	Hybrids with <i>D. melanogaster giant</i> .		[35,36]
<i>giant</i>	<i>tailless</i>	developmental systems drift or compensatory evolution	<i>Drosophila melanogaster x D. santomea</i>	Inviability, Abnormal development, Early life lethality	Hybrids with <i>D. melanogaster giant</i> and <i>tailless</i> .		[35,36]
<i>mh</i>	<i>zhr</i>	selfish genetic elements	<i>Drosophila melanogaster x D. simulans</i>	Inviability, Early life lethality	Hybrids with <i>mh</i> from <i>D. simulans</i> and <i>zhr</i> from <i>D. melanogaster</i> .	<i>mh</i> from <i>D. simulans</i> interferes with the function of satellite DNA in <i>D. melanogaster</i> .	[37,38]
<i>tyr</i>	<i>mt-TyrRS</i>	developmental systems drift or compensatory evolution	<i>Drosophila melanogaster x D. simulans</i>	Sterility, Abnormal development, Early life lethality	Hybrids with <i>tyr</i> from <i>D. simulans</i> and <i>mt-TyrRS</i> from <i>D. melanogaster</i> .		[39]
<i>ovd</i>		selfish genetic elements	<i>Drosophila pseudoobscura bogotana x D. pseudoobscura</i>	Biased sex-ratio, Early life lethality, Male sterility	F1 hybrid males lacking <i>D. p. bogotana</i> Y-linked and autosomal suppressors.	The <i>Drosophila p. bogotana ovd</i> and unknown co-distorters on the X chromosome destroy <i>Drosophila p. pseudoobscura</i> Y chromosome sperm during spermatogenesis.	[40]
<i>JYALPHA</i>		neutral (gene duplication)	<i>Drosophila simulans x D. melanogaster</i>	Male sterility	F2 hybrids homozygous for the non-functional allele at both loci.	Presence-absence variant	[41]
<i>nup96</i>	<i>nup160</i>	host-pathogen conflict	<i>Drosophila simulans x D. melanogaster</i>	Inviability, Early life lethality,	Hemizygotes and homozygotes with <i>Nup96</i> and <i>Nup160</i> from <i>D.</i>		[42]

				Female sterility	<i>simulans</i> lacking a <i>D. simulans</i> X chromosome.		
<i>shfr</i>			<i>Drosophila simulans</i> x <i>D. melanogaster</i>	Biased sex-ratio, Inviability, Early life lethality	Hybrid females lacking the <i>shfr</i> gene.	The lethality of the <i>Shfr</i> locus is temperature-dependent.	[43]
<i>dox</i>	<i>nmy</i>	selfish genetic elements	<i>Drosophila simulans</i> x <i>D. sechellia</i> ; <i>D. simulans</i> x <i>D. mauritiana</i>	Biased sex-ratio, Early life lethality, Male sterility	Hybrids with the <i>dox</i> distorter lacking an intact <i>nmy</i> gene.	<i>nmy</i> has undergone a recessive loss-of-function mutation due to a pair of inverted repeats which may allow <i>nmy</i> to create siRNAs from a repeat-induced stem loop structure.	[44]
<i>Gh_D11G2949</i>		host-pathogen conflict	<i>Gossypium hirsutum</i> x <i>G. barbadense</i>	Inviability, Hybrid necrosis, Late life lethality	Hybrids with <i>Gh_D11G2949</i> from <i>G. barbadense</i> and an unknown <i>Le3</i> locus in <i>G. hirsutum</i> .		[45]
<i>GoFLA19</i>		neutral (gene duplication)	<i>Gossypium hirsutum</i> x <i>G. barbadense</i>	Male sterility	F2 hybrids	Presence-absence variant	[46]
<i>ORF522</i>		selfish genetic elements	<i>Helianthus annuus</i> x <i>H. petiolaris</i>	Male sterility	Hybrids lacking restorer genes (unknown).		[47]
<i>RIN4</i>		host-pathogen conflict	<i>Lactuca sativa</i> x <i>L. saligna</i>	Inviability, Hybrid necrosis, Late life lethality	F2 hybrids homozygous for <i>RIN4</i> from <i>L. saligna</i> (partner locus unknown)		[48]
<i>pTAC14</i>		neutral (gene duplication)	<i>Mimulus guttatus</i> x <i>M. nasutus</i>	Inviability, Abnormal development, Late life lethality	F2 hybrids homozygous for the non-functional allele of <i>pTAC14</i> .	Presence-absence variant	[49]
<i>nad6</i>	<i>RF1, RF2</i>	selfish genetic elements	<i>Mimulus guttatus</i> x <i>M. nasutus</i>	Male sterility	F2 males that lack <i>RF1</i> and <i>RF2</i> .		[50,51]

<i>ORF108</i>	<i>M. arvensis</i> mitochondrial genome	selfish genetic elements	<i>Moricandia arvensis x Brassica juncea</i>	Male sterility	Male hybrids carrying <i>M. arvensis</i> mitochondria.		[52]
<i>Kcnq1 cluster, Phlda2, Ascl2</i>		parental conflict	<i>Mus m. domesticus x M. spretus</i>	Inviability, Abnormal development, Late life lethality	F1 hybrids	Incorrect imprinting of paternal genes leads to the misexpression of growth regulators during development.	[53]
<i>PRDM9</i>	X-linked <i>Hstx2</i>	developmental systems drift or compensatory evolution	<i>Mus m. musculus x M. m. domesticus</i>	Male sterility	F1 hybrid males	<i>Prdm9, Hstx2</i> , and a minimum amount of heterogenic DNA lead to recombination failure and ultimately meiotic arrest.	[54]
<i>Spk-2</i>	<i>rsk</i>	selfish genetic elements	<i>Neurospora intermedia x N. metzenbergii</i>	Sterility	Hybrids with the <i>Spk-2</i> driver from <i>N. intermedia</i> .	Meiotic drive	[55]
<i>Spk-3</i>	<i>rsk</i>	selfish genetic elements	<i>Neurospora intermedia x N. metzenbergii</i>	Sterility	Hybrids with the <i>Spk-3</i> driver from <i>N. intermedia</i> .	Meiotic drive	[55]
<i>Spk-1</i>		selfish genetic elements	<i>Neurospora sitophila</i> (intraspecific)	Sterility	Hybrids lacking the corresponding antidote.	Toxin-antidote system	[56]
<i>Nt6549g30</i>		host-pathogen conflict	<i>Nicotiana tabacum x N. africana</i>	Inviability, Hybrid necrosis, Early life lethality	Hybrids with <i>Nt6549g30</i> from <i>N. tabacum</i> and an unknown partner from <i>N. africana</i> .		[57]
<i>HSW1/HSW2/ EAF6</i>		neutral (gene duplication)	<i>Oryza glaberrima x O. s. japonica</i>	Sterility	Hybrids lacking a functional copy of the <i>EAF6</i> protein.	Presence-absence variant	[58,59]
<i>S1</i>		selfish genetic elements	<i>Oryza glaberrima x O. sativa</i>	Sterility	Hybrids lacking the corresponding antidote.	Toxin-antidote system	[60,61]
<i>S27/S28</i>		neutral (gene duplication)	<i>Oryza glumaepatula x O. sativa</i>	Male sterility	Hybrids lacking a functional copy of <i>S27/S28</i> .	Presence-absence variant	[62]

Hwc3	Hwc1		<i>Oryza japonica</i> (interspecific)	Hybrid necrosis, Inviability	F1 hybrids	Hwc3 is an LRR protein, it appears to be upregulated in hybrids by Hwc1.	[63]
<i>qHMS7</i>		selfish genetic elements	<i>Oryza meridionalis</i> x <i>O. sativa</i>	Male sterility	Hybrids lacking the corresponding antidote.	Linked toxin (<i>ORF2</i>)-antidote (<i>ORF3</i>) system	[64]
ORF182, WA352, WA314	RF3, RF4 (unknown)	selfish genetic elements	<i>Oryza rufipogon</i> (intraspecific)	Male sterility	Males lacking restorer genes (unknown).		[65,66]
<i>ESA1</i>			<i>Oryza rufipogon</i> x <i>O. sativa</i>	Female sterility	Backcross hybrids carrying <i>ESA1</i> from <i>O. rufipogon</i> .		[67]
<i>Hwi1</i> (25L1/25L2)	<i>Hwi2</i>	host-pathogen conflict	<i>Oryza rufipogon</i> x <i>O. sativa</i>	Inviability, Hybrid necrosis, Late life lethality	Hybrids with <i>Hwi1</i> from <i>O. rufipogon</i> and <i>Hwi2</i> from <i>O. sativa</i> .		[68]
DTE9 (OsMADS8)			<i>Oryza rufipogon</i> x <i>O. sativa japonica</i>	Inviability, Hybrid necrosis	Backcross hybrids to <i>O. sativa</i> .		[69]
<i>Ckl1</i>		host-pathogen conflict	<i>Oryza sativa japonica</i> x <i>O. s. indica</i>	Inviability, Hybrid necrosis, Late life lethality	Hybrids homozygous for <i>Ckl1</i> from <i>O. sativa japonica</i> and homozygous for <i>NBS-LLR</i> from <i>O. sativa indica</i> .		[70]
<i>DPL1/DPL2</i>		neutral (gene duplication)	<i>Oryza sativa japonica</i> x <i>O. s. indica</i>	Male sterility	F2 hybrids without a functional copy of <i>DPL</i> .	Presence-absence variant	[71]
<i>HSA1a</i>	<i>HSA1b</i>	selfish genetic elements	<i>Oryza sativa japonica</i> x <i>O. s. indica</i>	Female sterility	Hybrids lacking the corresponding antidote.	Toxin-antidote system	[72]
<i>pf12A</i> (<i>ORF3</i> , <i>ORF4</i>)		selfish genetic elements	<i>Oryza sativa japonica</i> x <i>O. s. indica</i>	Sterility	Hybrids lacking the corresponding antidote.	Toxin-antidote system	[73,74]

<i>RHS13</i> (<i>DUYAO</i> / <i>JIEYAO</i>)		selfish genetic elements	<i>Oryza sativa japonica</i> x <i>O. s. indica</i>	Male sterility	Hybrids lacking the corresponding antidote.	<i>DUYAO</i> targets mitochondrial protein <i>OxCOX11</i> and triggers cell death. <i>JIEYAO</i> reroutes <i>DUYAO</i> to autophagosomes.	[75]
<i>S7 ORF3</i>		selfish genetic elements	<i>Oryza sativa japonica</i> x <i>O. s. indica</i>	Female sterility	Hybrids lacking the corresponding antidote.	Toxin-antidote system	[76]
<i>SaM</i>	<i>SaF</i>	selfish genetic elements	<i>Oryza sativa japonica</i> x <i>O. s. indica</i>	Male sterility	Hybrids lacking the corresponding antidote.	Toxin-antidote system	[77]
<i>S5</i>		selfish genetic elements	<i>Oryza sativa japonica</i> x <i>O. s. indica</i> (<i>S5-i</i> and <i>S5-j</i>)	Female sterility	F1 hybrid females with <i>S5-i</i> and <i>S5-j</i> alleles (<i>ORF5+</i> and <i>ORF4+</i> genes).	The <i>ORF5+</i> protein possibly destroys the integrity of the cell wall. Signals are transmitted by the <i>ORF4+</i> protein, resulting in severe endoplasmic reticulum stress and female gamete abortion.	[78]
<i>Sc</i>		selfish genetic elements	<i>Oryza sativa japonica</i> x <i>Oryza s. indica</i>	Male sterility	Hybrids lacking the corresponding antidote.	Overexpression of <i>Sc-i</i> allele in the sporophyte selectively aborts pollen carrying <i>Sc-j</i> alleles.	[79]
<i>ORF79</i> , <i>ORFH79</i>	<i>RF1A</i> , <i>RF1B</i>	selfish genetic elements	<i>Oryza sativa</i> (intraspecific)	Male sterility	Males lacking restorer genes (unknown).		[80,81]
<i>S22A</i>	<i>S22B</i>		<i>Oryza sativa</i> x <i>O. glumaepatula</i>	Male sterility	Backcross hybrids to <i>O. sativa</i> .		[82]
<i>RPC4</i> (<i>DGS1/DGS2</i>)		neutral (gene duplication)	<i>Oryza sativa</i> x <i>O. nivara</i>	Male sterility	Hybrids lacking a functional copy of <i>RPC4</i> .	Presence-absence variant	[83]
<i>qHMS1</i>		selfish genetic elements	<i>Oryza sativa</i> x <i>O. meridionalis</i>	Male sterility	Hybrids with the toxin <i>qHMS1</i> from <i>O. sativa</i> and lacking the corresponding antidote (unknown).	Toxin-antidote system	[84]
<i>Peg3</i>		parental conflict	<i>Peromyscus maniculatus males</i> x <i>P. polionotus females</i>	Inviability, Abnormal development, Early life lethality	F1 hybrids	Incorrect imprinting leads to misexpression of growth factors.	[85,86]

<i>ChiA1</i>		host-pathogen conflict	<i>Petunia axillaris</i> x <i>P. exserta</i>	Inviability, Hybrid necrosis, Late life lethality	Hybrids with <i>ChiA1</i> from <i>P. axillaris</i> and a chr7 region in <i>P. exserta</i> .		[87]
ORF402	Rf-PPR592	selfish genetic elements	<i>Petunia hybrida</i> (intraspecific)	Male sterility	Males lacking restorer genes (unknown).		[88,89]
ORF239		selfish genetic elements	<i>Phaseolus vulgaris</i> (intraspecific)	Male sterility	Males lacking restorer genes (unknown).		[90,91]
Het-S		selfish genetic elements	<i>Podospora anserina</i> (intraspecific)	Sterility	Hybrids lacking the corresponding antidote.	Toxin-antidote system	[92]
Spok1, Spok2		selfish genetic elements	<i>Podospora anserina</i> (intraspecific)	Sterility	Hybrids lacking the corresponding antidote.	Toxin-antidote system	[93]
ORF138, ORS125/Rfo	RFK1	selfish genetic elements	<i>Raphanus sativus</i> (intraspecific)	Male sterility	Male hybrids lacking <i>RFK1</i> .		[94-97]
<i>AEP2</i>	<i>OLI</i>	ecological adaptation	<i>Saccharomyces cerevisiae</i> x <i>S. bayanus</i>	Sterility, Abnormal development, Early life lethality	Hybrids homozygous for <i>AEP2</i> from <i>S. bayanus</i> and a primarily <i>S. cerevisiae</i> background.	<i>AEP2</i> diverged as <i>S. bayanus</i> adapted to non-fermentable carbon sources. This has resulted in <i>Sb-AEP2</i> failing to translate <i>Sc-OLII</i> mRNA.	[98]
<i>Ccm1</i>	15s rRNA	developmental systems drift or compensatory evolution	<i>Saccharomyces cerevisiae</i> x <i>S. bayanus</i>	Inviability, Abnormal development, Late life lethality	Hybrids homozygous for a symmetrical mutation in <i>Ccm1</i> .	<i>Ccm1</i> has a lowered binding affinity to 15s rRNA resulting in reduced protein production.	[99]
PGM1	GAL2, GAL1/10/7	ecological adaptation	<i>Saccharomyces cerevisiae</i> (intraspecific)	Inviability, Late life lethality	Hybrids with the reference <i>PGM1</i> and alternative versions of <i>GAL2</i> , <i>GAL1/10/7</i> .	Alternative alleles allow yeast to utilize galactose while incompatible allele combinations result in yeast unable to grow on galactose.	[100]
<i>MRS1</i> , <i>AIM22</i>	<i>COX1</i>	developmental systems drift or compensatory evolution	<i>Saccharomyces cerevisiae</i> x <i>S. bayanus</i>	Inviability, Sterility, Early life lethality	Hybrids with <i>MRS1</i> , <i>AIM22</i> from <i>S. cerevisiae</i> , and the mitochondria from <i>S. bayanus</i> .		[101]

<i>MRS1</i>	<i>COX1</i>	developmental systems drift or compensatory evolution	<i>Saccharomyces cerevisiae</i> x <i>S. paradoxus</i>	Inviability, Sterility, Early life lethality	Hybrids with <i>MRS1</i> from <i>S. cerevisiae</i> and the mitochondria from <i>S. paradoxus</i> .	<i>MRS1</i> fails to remove intron from <i>COX1</i> .	[101]
<i>wtf4</i>		selfish genetic elements	<i>Schizosaccharomyces kambucha</i> x <i>S. pombe</i>	Sterility	Hybrids lacking the corresponding antidote.	Toxin-antidote system	[102]
<i>cw27</i>		selfish genetic elements	<i>Schizosaccharomyces pombe</i> (intraspecific)	Sterility	Hybrids lacking the corresponding antidote.	Toxin-antidote system	[103]
<i>cw9</i>		selfish genetic elements	<i>Schizosaccharomyces pombe</i> (intraspecific)	Sterility	Hybrids lacking the corresponding antidote.	Toxin-antidote system	[103]
<i>wtf13</i>	<i>wtf18-2</i>	selfish genetic elements	<i>Schizosaccharomyces pombe</i> (intraspecific)	Sterility	Hybrids spores lacking <i>wtf18-2</i> .		[104]
<i>Rcr3</i>	<i>Cf-2</i>	host-pathogen conflict	<i>Solanum lycopersicum</i> x <i>S. pimpinellifolium</i>	Inviability, Hybrid necrosis, Late life lethality	Hybrids with <i>Rcr3</i> from <i>S. pimpinellifolium</i> and <i>Cf-2</i> from <i>S. lycopersicum</i> .	<i>Rcr3</i> suppresses <i>Cf-2</i> which triggers autoimmunity.	[105]
<i>ORF107</i>	<i>RF1</i>	selfish genetic elements	<i>Sorghum bicolor</i> (intraspecific)	Male sterility	Male hybrids lacking <i>RF1</i> .		[106]
<i>ORF256</i>		selfish genetic elements	<i>Triticum aestivum</i> x <i>T. timopheevi</i>	Male sterility	Male hybrids lacking restorer genes (unknown).		[107]
<i>Xmrk</i>	<i>rab3d</i>	sexual selection	<i>Xiphophorus maculatus</i> x <i>X. hellerii</i>	Melanoma, Late life lethality	F2 hybrids lacking <i>rab3d</i> from <i>X. maculatus</i> .	<i>Xiphophorus</i> have independently evolved repressor(s) to control the activity of the proto-oncogene <i>xmrk</i> in some lineages. <i>xmrk</i> is not present in all <i>Xiphophorus</i> genomes.	[108,109]

<i>atp5mg</i>	mitochondrial genome	developmental systems drift or compensatory evolution	<i>Xiphophorus malinche</i> x <i>X. birchmanni</i>	Abnormal development, Early life lethality, Late life lethality	F2 hybrids with <i>X. malinche</i> mitochondria and <i>atp5mg</i> from <i>X. birchmanni</i> .		[110]
<i>ndufs5</i>	mitochondrial genome (<i>nd6/nd2</i>)	developmental systems drift or compensatory evolution	<i>Xiphophorus malinche</i> x <i>X. birchmanni</i>	Inviability, Early life lethality	F2 hybrids with <i>X. malinche</i> mitochondria and <i>ndufs5</i> from <i>X. birchmanni</i> .		[111]
<i>Xmrk</i>	<i>cd97</i>	sexual selection	<i>Xiphophorus malinche</i> x <i>X. birchmanni</i>	Melanoma, Late life lethality	F2 hybrids lacking <i>cd97</i> from <i>X. birchmanni</i> .	<i>Xiphophorus</i> have independently evolved repressor(s) to control the activity of the proto-oncogene <i>xmrk</i> in some lineages. <i>xmrk</i> is not present in all <i>Xiphophorus</i> genomes.	[112]
<i>ndufa13</i>	mitochondrial genome (<i>nd6/nd2</i>)	developmental systems drift or compensatory evolution	<i>Xiphophorus malinche</i> x <i>X. birchmanni</i> ; <i>X. cortezi</i> x <i>X. birchmanni</i>	Inviability, Early life lethality, Late life lethality	F2 hybrids with <i>X. malinche</i> or <i>X. cortezi</i> mitochondria and <i>ndufa13</i> from <i>X. birchmanni</i> .		[111]
<i>ORF355</i> , <i>ORF77</i> , <i>URF13</i>	<i>RF2</i>	selfish genetic elements	<i>Zea mays mays</i> (<i>intraspecific</i>)	Male sterility	Male hybrids lacking <i>RF2</i> .		[113–115]
<i>Dcl2</i>	<i>Tdr1</i> , <i>Tpd2</i> , non-coding RNA hairpin	selfish genetic elements	<i>Zea mays mays</i> x <i>Z. m. mexicana</i>	Male sterility	Hybrids with <i>Tdr1</i> and <i>Tpd2</i> from <i>Zea m. mexicana</i> that lack the <i>Dcl2</i> variant from <i>Zea m. mays</i> .	<i>Tpd1</i> contains a non-coding RNA hairpin targeting <i>Tdr1</i> and <i>Dcl2</i> . <i>Tpd1</i> individuals possess a variant of <i>Dcl2</i> , which suppresses 22nt siRNA production and acts as an antidote. <i>Tpd2</i> is unlinked and required for full pollen fertility.	[116]

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Table 1 References

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