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### Title

Differential gene expression and mitonuclear incompatibilities in fast- and slow-developing interpopulation *Tigriopus californicus* hybrids

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1 **Title Page**

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3 *Title:*

4 Differential gene expression and mitonuclear incompatibilities in fast- and slow-  
5 developing inter-population *Tigriopus californicus* hybrids

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7 *Running head:*

8 Gene expression in inter-population hybrids

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23 **Abstract**

24 Mitochondrial functions are intimately reliant on proteins and RNAs encoded in  
25 both the nuclear and mitochondrial genomes, leading to inter-genomic coevolution within  
26 taxa. Hybridization can break apart coevolved mitonuclear genotypes, resulting in  
27 decreased mitochondrial performance and reduced fitness. This hybrid breakdown is an  
28 important component of outbreeding depression and early-stage reproductive isolation.  
29 However, the mechanisms contributing to mitonuclear interactions remain poorly  
30 resolved. Here we scored variation in developmental rate (a proxy for fitness) among  
31 reciprocal F<sub>2</sub> inter-population hybrids of the intertidal copepod *Tigriopus californicus*,  
32 and used RNA sequencing to assess differences in gene expression between fast- and  
33 slow-developing hybrids. In total, differences in expression associated with  
34 developmental rate were detected for 2,925 genes, whereas only 135 genes were  
35 differentially expressed as a result of differences in mitochondrial genotype. Up-regulated  
36 expression in fast developers was enriched for genes involved in chitin-based cuticle  
37 development, oxidation-reduction processes, hydrogen peroxide catabolic processes and  
38 mitochondrial respiratory chain complex I. In contrast, up-regulation in slow developers  
39 was enriched for DNA replication, cell division, DNA damage and DNA repair. Eighty-  
40 four nuclear-encoded mitochondrial genes were differentially expressed between fast-  
41 and slow-developing copepods, including twelve subunits of the electron transport  
42 system (ETS) which all had higher expression in fast developers than in slow developers.  
43 Nine of these genes were subunits of ETS complex I. Our results emphasize the major  
44 roles that mitonuclear interactions within the ETS, particularly in complex I, play in

- 45 hybrid breakdown, and resolve strong candidate genes for involvement in mitonuclear
- 46 interactions.

47 **Introduction**

48           Coevolved genetic interactions within a population or species can be disrupted by  
49 hybridization, and these disruptions may produce incompatibilities that cause loss of  
50 fitness in hybrids (i.e., hybrid breakdown; e.g., Burton, 1990; Burton et al., 2006; Ellison  
51 & Burton, 2008b; Meiklejohn et al., 2013), potentially contributing to outbreeding  
52 depression, early-stage reproductive isolation and speciation (Gershoni et al., 2009;  
53 Burton & Barreto, 2012; Hill, 2016, 2019; Sloan et al., 2017). In eukaryotic organisms,  
54 incompatibilities underlying these important evolutionary processes may  
55 disproportionately involve interactions between genes encoded in the mitochondrial  
56 genome and genes encoded in the nuclear genome (Burton & Barreto, 2012). Two major  
57 factors contribute to this potential bias for involvement of mitonuclear incompatibilities.  
58 First, rates of evolution are higher for mitochondrial DNA than for nuclear DNA (Lynch,  
59 1997; Wallace, 2010), which increases divergence between the mitochondrial genomes of  
60 independent taxa at early stages of isolation; these differences in mitochondrial DNA give  
61 rise to intrinsic selection on nuclear-encoded genes to maintain compatible interactions  
62 (Burton & Barreto, 2012; Osada & Akashi, 2012; Barreto et al., 2018), resulting in taxon-  
63 specific mitonuclear coevolution. Second, mitochondrial functions are intimately reliant  
64 on mitonuclear interactions, and since mitochondria play critical roles in eukaryotic cells,  
65 including producing of the majority of cellular energy (i.e., ATP), mitochondrial  
66 dysfunction as a result of these incompatibilities is often associated with negative fitness  
67 consequences (Rand et al., 2004; Lane, 2005; Wallace, 2010; Hill, 2015; Hill et al.,  
68 2019).

69           Despite the potential impact of mitonuclear incompatibilities on hybrid  
70 breakdown, the physiological and genetic mechanisms underlying these effects are poorly  
71 resolved. Although the mitochondrial genome is small (typically ~16 kb encoding only  
72 37 genes in most metazoans; e.g., Levin et al., 2014), approximately 1,500 nuclear-  
73 encoded genes function within mitochondria (Bar-Yaacov et al., 2012; Hill, 2014, 2017),  
74 and at least 180 of these genes closely interact with mitochondrial-encoded proteins or  
75 RNAs (Burton & Barreto, 2012; Burton et al., 2013; Hill, 2017). The best characterized  
76 examples of mitonuclear incompatibilities occur between protein subunits of the electron  
77 transport system (ETS; e.g., Ellison & Burton, 2006; Blier et al., 2001; Pichaud et al.,  
78 2019), or between a mitochondrial tRNA and its corresponding nuclear-encoded  
79 aminoacyl-tRNA synthetase (Meiklejohn et al., 2013). However, genetic  
80 incompatibilities in general can also result in changes in gene expression (Haerty &  
81 Singh, 2006; Landry et al., 2007) either directly through incompatible regulatory  
82 interactions or indirectly through physiological impacts of incompatibilities that alter the  
83 regulation of gene expression (Wittkopp et al., 2004; Graze et al., 2009; McManus et al.,  
84 2010; Barreto et al., 2015). Both of these possibilities are relevant to mitonuclear  
85 interactions, as nuclear-encoded polymerase complexes are responsible for mitochondrial  
86 DNA replication and RNA transcription (e.g., Ellison & Burton, 2008a), and variation in  
87 mitochondrial functions create regulatory signals that influence nuclear transcription as a  
88 part of ‘crosstalk’ between the genomes (Poyton & McEwen, 1996; Cannino et al., 2007;  
89 Horan et al., 2013). Therefore, assessing transcriptome-wide changes in gene expression  
90 associated with mitonuclear incompatibilities and hybrid breakdown is a promising

91 avenue to resolve not only pathways underlying the effects of incompatibilities, but also  
92 specific genes potentially involved in these interactions.

93         The intertidal copepod *Tigriopus californicus* is an ideal species to study the  
94 effects of mitonuclear incompatibilities. *T. californicus* are found in splashpools along the  
95 west coast of North America from Baja California, Mexico to Alaska, USA. Populations  
96 are restricted to specific rocky outcrops along the coast (Burton, 1997), which results in  
97 substantial mitochondrial and nuclear sequence divergence among populations (Burton &  
98 Lee, 1994; Burton 1997; Edmands, 2001; Peterson et al., 2013; Pereira et al., 2016;  
99 Barreto et al., 2018). Despite these high levels of divergence, inter-population crosses  
100 generate viable hybrid offspring in the laboratory (e.g., Burton, 1986), and signatures of  
101 inter-genomic coevolution have been detected for nuclear-encoded mitochondrial (N-mt)  
102 genes across several geographically isolated populations (Barreto et al., 2018).  
103 Specifically, effects of mitonuclear incompatibilities on oxidative phosphorylation  
104 (Ellison & Burton, 2006, 2008b; Healy & Burton, 2020; Han & Barreto, 2021),  
105 mitochondrial transcription (Ellison & Burton, 2008a), and the evolution of  
106 mitochondrial ribosomal proteins (Barreto & Burton, 2012) have been observed in *T.*  
107 *californicus* hybrids. Recent studies have demonstrated strong effects of mitonuclear  
108 incompatibilities by comparing nuclear-allele frequencies between reciprocal F<sub>2</sub> hybrids  
109 with fast or slow developmental rate (a proxy for fitness in *T. californicus*; Burton, 1990),  
110 and have identified chromosomes that likely contain loci responsible for these effects  
111 (Healy & Burton, 2020; Han & Barreto, 2021). However, the genes underlying these  
112 effects, and the relative influences of effects on different cellular pathways remain  
113 unknown.

114 In the current study, we examine physiological and genetic mechanisms  
115 underlying mitonuclear incompatibilities by using RNA sequencing (RNA-seq) to  
116 compare transcriptome-wide variation in gene expression between fast- and slow-  
117 developing F<sub>2</sub> *T. californicus* hybrids. Our goals were: (1) to assess the extent of variation  
118 in gene expression associated with differences in developmental rate, (2) to identify genes  
119 that were differentially expressed as a result of variation in mitochondrial genotype, (3) to  
120 determine biochemical pathways enriched for these differences in gene expression, and  
121 (4) to examine patterns of differential expression for both N-mt genes and mitochondrial-  
122 encoded genes.

123

## 124 **Materials and Methods**

### 125 *Copepod collection, culturing and crossing*

126 *T. californicus* adults were collected from supralittoral tidepools at San Diego,  
127 California (SD; 32° 45' N, 117° 15' W) and Santa Cruz, California (SC; 36° 56' N, 122°  
128 2' W) in the summer of 2019. Large plastic pipettes were used to transfer copepods and  
129 tidepool water to 1 L plastic bottles. Bottles were transported to Scripps Institution of  
130 Oceanography, University of California San Diego within 24 h of collection, and  
131 population-specific laboratory cultures were initiated by dividing the collections into 400  
132 mL glass beakers (250 mL per beaker). Cultures were maintained using filtered seawater  
133 (35 psu), and were held in incubators at 20 °C under a 12 h:12 h light:dark photoperiod.  
134 Powdered spirulina and live *Tetraselmis chuii* algal cultures were added to the cultures as  
135 food once per week, but copepods also consumed natural algal growth within their  
136 beakers. Laboratory cultures were maintained under these constant conditions for at least

137 12 months (~1 month per generation; e.g., Pereira et al., 2021) prior to the initiation of  
138 experimental crosses.

139 Four experimental hybrid lines were established for each reciprocal cross between  
140 the two populations: SD♀ x SC♂ (SDxSC; lines A-D) and SC♀ x SD♂ (SCxSD; lines E-  
141 H). Note that SDxSC and SCxSD lines differ in their mitochondrial genotype, which is  
142 generally maternally inherited in *T. californicus* (e.g., Burton et al., 2006, but see Lee &  
143 Willett, 2022), whereas population-specific contributions to nuclear genotypes are  
144 expected to be equal under a neutral assumption (e.g., Lima & Willett, 2018). Virgin  
145 females of each population were obtained by splitting mate-guarding pairs using a fine  
146 needle (Burton et al., 1981; Burton, 1985). Lines were started by adding 50 virgin  
147 females to 2.5 x 15 cm petri dishes containing ~200 mL filtered seawater and 50 males of  
148 the alternative population. Individuals were allowed to pair and mate haphazardly, and  
149 lines were maintained and fed as described above for the laboratory cultures. When  
150 gravid females were observed, they were transferred to new dishes (one dish per line),  
151 and 28 to 39 gravid P<sub>0</sub> females were obtained per line (Supplemental Table S1). F<sub>1</sub>  
152 offspring hatched naturally into the new dish, and once F<sub>1</sub> copepodids (juveniles) were  
153 visible without magnification, the P<sub>0</sub> females were removed resulting in an F<sub>1</sub>-only dish  
154 for each line. *T. californicus* females produce multiple egg sacs from a single mating, and  
155 typically ~22-32 offspring hatch from each egg sac (e.g., Edmands & Harrison, 2003),  
156 meaning each F<sub>1</sub>-only dish contained a minimum of many hundreds of offspring. F<sub>1</sub>  
157 individuals matured and mated haphazardly within their dishes, and the dishes were  
158 maintained until one week after gravid F<sub>1</sub> females were initially observed. At this time, F<sub>2</sub>  
159 developmental trials were started, which avoided inadvertently selecting only the fastest

160 developing F<sub>1</sub> females as parents in the F<sub>2</sub> trials and prevented any F<sub>2</sub> offspring that  
161 hatched in the F<sub>1</sub>-only dish from reaching adulthood.

### 162 *Developmental rate*

163         Developmental rate measurements for F<sub>2</sub> offspring from each hybrid line were  
164 conducted similarly to those described in Healy & Burton (2020). In brief, mature (red)  
165 egg sacs were dissected from 30 haphazardly selected F<sub>1</sub> females for each line using a  
166 fine needle. Egg sacs were transferred individually into wells of 6-well plates containing  
167 ~8 mL filtered seawater. Powdered spirulina was added to the wells, and then the plates  
168 were placed in the incubators that were used for the F<sub>1</sub> crosses (at 20 °C; 12 h:12 h  
169 light:dark). F<sub>2</sub> egg sacs hatched overnight, and offspring development was monitored  
170 daily with additional spirulina added every other day. Development in *Tigriopus sp.*  
171 involves a distinct metamorphosis between the last naupliar (N6) stage and the first  
172 copepodid (C1) stage (Raisuddin et al., [20172007](#)), which can be used to score  
173 developmental rate as time to metamorphosis. As copepodids appeared in the  
174 experimental wells, days post hatch (dph) to metamorphosis was scored for each  
175 individual, and copepodids were grouped by dph to metamorphosis in line-specific 2 x 10  
176 cm petri dishes containing ~50 mL filtered seawater. The total numbers of scored F<sub>2</sub>  
177 copepodids for each line are listed in Supplemental Table S1.

### 178 *RNA isolation and RNA-seq*

179         Stage 1 *Tigriopus sp.* copepodids are very small (~0.35 mm length [Raisuddin et  
180 al., 2007]), and obtaining sufficient RNA for standard RNA-seq library preparations from  
181 pools of large numbers of individuals at this stage is impractical. Thus, we allowed our  
182 scored F<sub>2</sub> hybrids to progress approximately two additional copepodid stages through

183 development to the C3 stage (~0.6 mm length) prior to RNA isolation. This progression  
184 was tracked by visual monitoring and by time, as under our experimental conditions stage  
185 3 is reached ~4-5 days after initial metamorphosis to a stage 1 copepodid (Healy et al., *in*  
186 *prep.*). The 100 fastest and 100 slowest developing stage 3 copepodids from each line  
187 were snap frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80 °C, and clear separation between  
188 fast and slow developers was achieved for every line (Supplemental Table S2). Note that  
189 monitoring developmental progression for copepodids that are not held individually is  
190 imprecise (Tsuboko-Ishii & Burton, 2018), but monitoring at the culture level was  
191 necessary given the number of copepodids scored in our study. As a result, it is possible  
192 that small numbers of frozen copepodids were at the C2 or C4 stages rather than the  
193 targeted C3 stage.

194 | RNA was isolated from the pools of fast developers and the pool of slow  
195 developers from each line using TRI Reagent® (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA)  
196 following the manufacturer's instructions with modifications as described in Healy et al.  
197 (2019). Genomic DNA contamination was removed with an Invitrogen™ TURBO DNA-  
198 *free*™ kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) according to the  
199 manufacturer's instructions, and final RNA concentrations were determined with an  
200 Invitrogen™ Qubit™ 2.0 Fluorometer and RNA HS assay kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific).  
201 RNA samples were submitted to the University of California San Diego Institute for  
202 Genomic Medicine Genomics Center for preparation of mRNA stranded libraries for 100  
203 base pair paired-end RNA-seq. The libraries were sequenced on an Illumina NovaSeq  
204 6000 (Illumina Inc., San Diego, CA, USA), and between 18,165,204 and 31,441,512  
205 paired-end reads were obtained for each sample (Supplemental Table S3).

206 *Data analysis and statistics*

207 All analyses were conducted in *R* v4.2.0 (R Core Team, 2022) with  $\alpha = 0.05$ .

208 Variation in log-transformed developmental rate as a result of variation in mitochondrial  
209 genotype was assessed with a linear mixed-effects model using the *lmerTest* package  
210 v3.1.3 (Kuznetsova et al., 2017) with mitochondrial genotype as a fixed factor and line as  
211 a random factor.

212 RNA-seq reads were trimmed to remove any potential adapter sequences with  
213 *Cutadapt* v3.4 (Martin, 2011), and were then mapped to a hybrid genome for SD and SC  
214 *T. californicus* prepared using the *T. californicus* reference genome (SD reference  
215 genome GenBank: GCA\_007210705.1, Barreto et al., 2018), a SC-specific genome from  
216 population re-sequencing (Healy & Burton, 2020), and published sequences for the SD  
217 and SC mitochondrial genomes (GenBank: DQ913891.2 and DQ917374.1, respectively;  
218 Burton et al., 2007). Note the SD and SC genomes were masked such that any ‘N’  
219 position in one genome was also ‘N’ in the other genome to avoid any potential mapping  
220 biases due to incomplete re-sequencing (Healy & Burton, 2020); this masking procedure  
221 between pairs of *T. californicus* populations generally affects less than 2% of coding  
222 sequences (Barreto et al., 2018). Genomic feature annotations (i.e., gene models) for the  
223 hybrid reference were prepared from previously published annotations for the reference  
224 and mitochondrial genomes (Barreto et al., 2018). Sequencing reads were aligned to the  
225 hybrid genome using *STAR* v2.7.8a (Dobin et al., 2013) allowing reads to map to a up to  
226 two locations in the hybrid genome (“--outFilterMultimapNmax 2” option) so that reads  
227 mapping to conserved regions between SD and SC would be included in expression  
228 estimates. Overall mapping rates were between 90.67% and 92.94% per sample

229 (Supplemental Table S3) with the majority of reads mapping uniquely ( $82.30 \pm 1.28\%$ ,  $\mu$   
230  $\pm \sigma$ ), which is consistent with relatively high levels of sequence divergence across the  
231 transcriptome between SD and SC *T. californicus* (Barreto et al., 2011; Barreto et al.,  
232 2015). Reads were counted with *featureCounts* (Liao et al., 2014) from the *Subread*  
233 package v2.0.3 using fractional counting (“-M” and “--fraction” options; i.e., reads that  
234 mapped to two genes in the hybrid genome were counted as 0.5), and reads for  
235 homologous SD and SC genes in the hybrid genome were summed to allow comparisons  
236 of total expression for each gene among our RNA samples from pooled F<sub>2</sub> hybrids.

237         Variation in transcriptome-wide gene expression patterns was assessed with a  
238 principal component analysis (PCA) using the *prcomp* function from the *R* package *stats*  
239 v3.6.2, and 95% confidence ellipses for groups of samples (by developmental rate or  
240 mitochondrial genotype) were determined with the *FactoMineR* package v2.4 (Lê et al.,  
241 2008). Gene-wise differential expression was assessed by fitting negative binomial  
242 models to the count data with the *edgeR* package v3.38.0 (Robinson et al., 2010) such  
243 that main effects of developmental rate and mitochondrial genotype, and interactive  
244 effects of these main factors could be tested as described in Lin et al. (2016). In brief,  
245 counts were normalized for library size using the relative log expression method (Anders  
246 & Huber, 2010; “RLE” option in *edgeR*), low expression genes were filtered with the  
247 *filterByExp* function, dispersions were estimated with the *estimateGLMRobustDisp*  
248 function (Zhou et al., 2014), and factor effects were tested by likelihood ratio tests using  
249 the *glmFit* and *glmLRT* functions. After filtering, the library sizes in *edgeR* ranged from  
250 14,261,581 to 25,846,327 counts (Supplemental Table S3), and differential expression  
251 was assessed for 13,994 genes with two analytical approaches. First, we analysed the

252 complete dataset for all eight of our hybrid lines. However, because we pooled the 100  
253 fastest or slowest developers in each line for RNA-seq, the ranges of developmental rate  
254 for fast or slow developers had the potential to vary among lines. Thus, we compared fast  
255 and slow developmental rates among lines using linear mixed-effects models (as  
256 described above for effects of mitochondrial genotype), and performed a second  
257 differential expression analysis using a subset of the lines that had similar developmental  
258 rates across the copepodid pools sampled for RNA-seq (see Results below).

259       Previously published gene ontology (GO) functional annotations of the gene  
260 models in the *T. californicus* genome were obtained from Barreto et al. (2018; 35,947  
261 annotations for 9,362 genes). We expanded these annotations by running the  
262 transcriptome through the *Trinotate* v3.2.2 pipeline (e.g., Bryant et al., 2017), and by  
263 manually annotating any remaining unannotated mitochondrial-encoded genes using  
264 information from other arthropods (*Aedes aegypti* and *Drosophila melanogaster*)  
265 available in the UniProt database ([www.uniprot.org](http://www.uniprot.org)). After combining annotations from  
266 all sources and removing duplicate annotations, our GO database contained 152,010  
267 annotations for 12,206 genes in the *T. californicus* genome. Functional enrichment  
268 analyses were conducted for the differentially expressed (DE) genes with the *goseq*  
269 package v1.48.0 (Young et al., 2010) in *R*. GO terms with less than 10 annotations in the  
270 *T. californicus* genome were removed from the database (leaving 2,644 GO terms with  
271 119,094 annotations for 12,160 genes) to provide robust tests for functional enrichments,  
272 and analyses were run for genes up-regulated in fast developers, genes up-regulated in  
273 slow developers, genes differentially expressed between mitochondrial genotypes, and

274 genes with a significant interaction between mitochondrial genotype and developmental  
275 rate.

276 False-discovery rate (FDR) corrections were made for all statistical results from  
277 the differential expression and functional enrichment analyses using the Benjamini-  
278 Hochberg method (Benjamini & Hochberg, 1995).

279

## 280 **Results**

### 281 *Developmental rate*

282 Across our hybrid lines metamorphosis was observed from 6 to 22 dph, and  
283 median time to metamorphosis ranged from 8 to 10 dph among lines (Supplemental  
284 Table S1). There was no significant effect of mitochondrial genotype on developmental  
285 rate overall ( $p = 0.20$ ; Figure 1), and mitochondrial genotype also did not affect the  
286 developmental rates of the 100 fastest or 100 slowest developing copepodids ( $p \leq 0.20$ ),  
287 which were each comprised of 10.9% to 21.4% of the total number of F<sub>2</sub> copepodids per  
288 line (Supplemental Table S1). However, despite the lack of effects of mitochondrial  
289 genotype, the observed ranges and distributions of developmental rate in “fast” or “slow”  
290 developers displayed variation among lines (Supplemental Table S2). In particular, for  
291 six lines the majority of fast developers metamorphosed by 7 dph (83, 100, 100, 60, 61  
292 and 100% for lines C-H, respectively), whereas for two lines only 4% or 3% of fast  
293 developers metamorphosed by 7 dph (lines A and B, respectively). Comparing these two  
294 groups of lines, developmental rates in lines A and B were significantly different from  
295 developmental rates in lines C-H both overall ( $p = 0.013$ ) and in fast developers ( $p = 1.4$   
296  $\times 10^{-3}$ ), but not in slow developers ( $p = 0.060$ ; Supplemental Figure S1). Consequently, as

297 discussed above (see Materials and methods), we assessed differential gene expression  
298 using all eight lines (hereafter the 8-line DE analysis), and using only lines C-H  
299 (hereafter the 6-line DE analysis).

### 300 *Transcriptome-wide expression patterns*

301 Gene expression patterns associated with developmental rate were a dominant  
302 source of variation across the transcriptome when examined by PCA. The first and  
303 second principal components (PC1 and PC2) explained 30.0% and 14.7% of the variation  
304 in expression among the RNA-seq samples, respectively, and the fast and slow  
305 developers tended to separate along these two axes, particularly along PC1 (slight overlap  
306 in 95% confidence ellipses with no overlap at a confidence level of ~93%; Figure 2a).  
307 Interestingly, SDxSC lines A and B were the only two lines displaying a positive  
308 trajectory from slow to fast developers on PC1 (Supplemental Table S4), which supports  
309 the 6-line DE analysis based on variation in developmental rate among the hybrid lines in  
310 our study. Consistent with this pattern, separation between the fast and slow developers  
311 along PC1 and PC2 became particularly evident if confidence ellipses were re-calculated  
312 for only the 6-line DE analysis RNA-seq samples (Supplemental Figure S2).

313 Unlike gene expression associated with developmental rate, little variation  
314 associated with mitochondrial genotype was observed along PC1 and PC2 (Figure 2b).  
315 Instead, samples from the SDxSC and SCxSD reciprocal lines were separated along PC3  
316 and PC4, which explained 12.7% and 8.4% of the total variation in gene expression,  
317 respectively (Supplemental Figure S3). This indicates relatively modest effects of  
318 mitochondrial genotype on transcriptome-wide gene expression patterns, particularly in  
319 comparison to patterns associated with developmental rate.

320 *Differential expression associated with developmental rate*

321           Significant differences in gene expression between fast- and slow-developing *T.*  
322 *californicus* were detected for 1,668 genes in the 8-line DE analysis and 2,850 genes in  
323 the 6-line DE analysis (Figure 3; Supplemental Table S5). In both cases, these relatively  
324 high proportions of differential expression across the transcriptome (11.9% or 20.3%)  
325 were consistent with the patterns identified by PCA. In general, the 8-line and 6-line DE  
326 analyses were highly congruent as 1,593 of the 1,668 DE genes in the 8-line analysis  
327 (95.5%) were also detected as DE genes in the 6-line analysis, and there were no strong  
328 biases for up- or down-regulation of gene expression in fast or slow developers in either  
329 case (900:768 and 1,383:1,467 up-:down-regulated genes in fast developers in the 8-line  
330 and 6-line analyses, respectively). However, the distribution of *p*-values versus fold  
331 changes in expression was relatively symmetrical around a fold change of zero in the 6-  
332 line analysis, whereas this was not the case in the 8-line analysis (Figure 3a,b). In total,  
333 84 N-mt genes were detected as differentially expressed between fast- and slow-  
334 developing copepodids (32 common to both the 8-line and 6-line DE analyses, and 1 and  
335 51 unique to each analysis, respectively), whereas no protein-coding genes encoded in the  
336 mitochondrial genome demonstrated differential expression associated with  
337 developmental rate (FDR-adjusted  $p \geq 0.36$ ).

338           Functional enrichment analyses found 47 GO terms enriched in the genes up-  
339 regulated in fast developers (20 common, and 12 and 15 unique from the 8-line and 6-line  
340 DE analyses, respectively), and 92 GO terms enriched in the genes up-regulated in slow  
341 developers (38 common, and 1 and 53 unique from the 8-line and 6-line DE analyses,  
342 respectively; Supplemental Table S6). There was variation in the specific GO terms that

343 were enriched among DE genes from the 8-line or 6-line analyses, but the overall patterns  
344 regarding cellular functions indicated by the enrichments were similar regardless of  
345 which set of DE genes was considered. These results are summarized below using the  
346 enrichments for GO biological processes and cellular components (see Supplemental  
347 Table S6 for GO molecular function results).

348         Enrichments in up-regulated genes were detected for 23 and 46 GO biological  
349 process terms in fast- and slow-developing hybrids, respectively (Figure 4). The clearest  
350 pattern among these results was the complete lack of overlap in significantly enriched  
351 terms between the fast and slow developers. For genes up-regulated in fast-developing  
352 copepodids, enrichments were detected related to chitin metabolism (e.g., GO:0040003  
353 and GO:0006030), oxidation-reduction processes (GO:0055114), hydrogen peroxide  
354 metabolism (e.g., GO:0042744) and immune responses (e.g., GO:0045087). In contrast,  
355 enrichments related to DNA replication (e.g., GO:0006260 and GO:0006270), RNA  
356 processing (e.g., GO:0006364 and GO:0006402), cell division (e.g., GO:0051301 and  
357 GO:0007049) and DNA repair (e.g., GO:0006281 and GO:0036297) were detected for  
358 genes up-regulated in slow-developing copepodids. These major patterns were consistent  
359 across the DE genes from the 8-line and 6-line analyses, but additional enriched  
360 biological processes for carbohydrate and amino acid metabolism (e.g., GO:0006096 and  
361 GO:0006560) were only associated with up-regulation in fast developers using results  
362 from the 6-line DE analysis (see details in Figure 4).

363         Compared to biological processes, fewer GO cellular component terms were  
364 significantly enriched among DE genes associated with developmental rate. However, the  
365 7 cellular components enriched in genes up-regulated in fast developers, and the 20

366 cellular components enriched in genes up-regulated in slow developers (Figure 5)  
367 suggested similar overall results to those identified based on biological process  
368 enrichments. Genes up-regulated in fast developers demonstrated enrichments involving  
369 extracellular regions (e.g., GO:0005576 and GO:0005615), whereas genes up-regulated  
370 in slow developers were enriched for cellular components related to the nucleus (e.g.,  
371 GO:0005634 and GO:0005730), a ribosome assembly complex (GO:0032040) and the  
372 DNA polymerase complex (GO:0042575). Additionally, among genes significantly up-  
373 regulated in fast developers in the 6-line DE analysis, there was an enrichment for the  
374 mitochondrial respiratory chain complex I cellular component (GO:0005747). As a result,  
375 we specifically examined the DE N-mt genes encoding subunits of the electron transport  
376 system (ETS). Twelve nuclear-encoded subunits of the ETS were differentially expressed  
377 between fast- and slow-developing hybrid copepodids (FDR-adjusted  $p \leq 0.048$  and fold  
378 change in expression 1.21-1.37 for all), and nine of these were subunits of ETS complex I  
379 (Table 1).

#### 380 *Differential expression associated with mitochondrial genotype*

381 As in most metazoans, mitochondrial DNA is generally maternally inherited in *T.*  
382 *californicus*; however, Lee and Willett (2022) recently detected substantial paternal  
383 leakage of mitochondrial DNA in hybrids between some pairs of populations. In contrast,  
384 there was virtually no evidence of paternal leakage in our hybrid lines, with  $99.8 \pm 0.6\%$   
385 ( $\mu \pm \sigma$ ) of the read counts matching the maternal genotype across all samples, suggesting  
386 mitochondrial genotypes were maternally inherited in our F<sub>2</sub> hybrids between the SD and  
387 SC populations. In the 8-line DE analysis, 135 genes were significantly differentially  
388 expressed between hybrids with a SD mitochondrial genotype (SDxSC) and hybrids with

389 a SC mitochondrial genotype (SCxSD; Figure 6a,b; Supplemental Table S7), and 21  
390 genes demonstrated a significant interaction between mitochondrial genotype and  
391 developmental rate (Figure 6c; Supplemental Table S8). Differences in gene expression  
392 as a result of variation in mitochondrial genotype were not evaluated in the 6-line DE  
393 analysis, because there was a low sample size for SDxSC lines (2 lines) and an  
394 unbalanced design with respect to mitochondrial genotype (2 SDxSC lines [C and D] and  
395 4 SCxSD lines [E-H]).

396         There were no significant functional enrichments among the DE genes between  
397 the SD and SC mitochondrial genotype hybrids, but there was a clear bias in the direction  
398 of variation in expression as 107 genes were expressed at higher levels in SDxSC hybrids  
399 than in SCxSD hybrids, whereas only 28 genes displayed the opposite pattern (Figure  
400 6a,b). One N-mt gene, 3-hydroxyisobutyrate dehydrogenase (*hibadh*), had higher  
401 expression levels in hybrids carrying the SD mitochondrial genotype than in hybrids  
402 carrying the SC mitochondrial genotype, and this was the only N-mt gene demonstrating  
403 a significant effect of mitochondrial genotype on gene expression. In contrast, 8 protein-  
404 coding genes (*mt-nd1*, *mt-nd3*, *mt-nd4*, *mt-nd6*, *mt-cyb*, *mt-co1*, *mt-co3* and *mt-atp8*) and  
405 2 rRNA genes (*mt-rnr1* and *mt-rnr2*) encoded in the mitochondrial genome were  
406 differentially expressed between SDxSC and SCxSD hybrids (Table 2). Directions of  
407 expression differences among these mitochondrial-encoded genes did not reflect the  
408 overall bias of up-regulation of genes in SDxSC hybrids, as 6 DE genes were expressed  
409 at higher levels in hybrids with the SC mitochondrial genotype than in hybrids with the  
410 SD mitochondrial genotype and 4 DE genes displayed the opposite pattern. The  
411 mitochondrial-encoded protein-coding genes all produce subunits of the ETS complexes,

412 but differences in up- or down-regulation for these genes between the two mitochondrial  
413 genotypes also did not group consistently based on ETS complex membership (see Table  
414 2).

415 In general, genes with expression profiles that were significantly affected by an  
416 interaction between mitochondrial genotype and developmental rate demonstrated a  
417 consistent pattern when comparing SDxSC and SCxSD hybrids. For all 21 genes with  
418 significant interaction effects (Figure 6c), the fold change in expression associated with a  
419 difference in developmental rate was higher in hybrids with the SC mitochondrial  
420 genotype ( $7.6 \pm 3.5X$ , mean  $\pm$  SEM) than in hybrids with the SD mitochondrial genotype  
421 ( $2.7 \pm 1.1X$ ), but whether a gene was up- or down-regulated between fast and slow  
422 developers was the same regardless of mitochondrial genotype. Genes displaying  
423 interactive effects of mitochondrial genotype and developmental rate were significantly  
424 enriched for three GO terms: lipid transporter activity (GO:0005319; FDR-adjusted  $p =$   
425  $2.8 \times 10^{-5}$ ), extracellular region (GO:0005576; FDR-adjusted  $p = 0.014$ ) and lipid  
426 transport (GO:0006869; FDR-adjusted  $p = 0.032$ ); however, these enrichments should be  
427 interpreted with some caution given the low number of genes affected by these  
428 interactions. No N-mt genes or mitochondrial-encoded genes had differences in  
429 expression consistent with effects of mitochondrial genotype by developmental rate  
430 interactions.

431

## 432 **Discussion**

433 The expression of genetic incompatibilities in hybrid organisms can result in  
434 changes in gene expression through either direct effects of incompatible regulatory

435 interactions or indirect responses to functional consequences of incompatibilities (e.g.,  
436 Landry et al., 2007; Barreto et al., 2015). The current study reveals high levels of  
437 differential gene expression associated with variation in a fitness-related trait  
438 (developmental rate) among inter-population F<sub>2</sub> *T. californicus* hybrids, and recent work  
439 in this species has demonstrated that differences in mitonuclear compatibility has a play a  
440 major strong effect role underlying on variation in developmental rate fast- versus slow-  
441 developing phenotypes among in these F<sub>2</sub> hybrids (Healy & Burton, 2020; Han &  
442 Barreto, 2021). Additionally, the slowest developing *T. californicus* hybrids display  
443 extreme developmental rates that are outside the ranges of developmental rates observed  
444 for offspring from within-population crosses (Healy & Burton, 2020; Han & Barreto,  
445 2021), and consequently the differences in gene expression presented here provide  
446 potential insight into not only the wide range of mechanisms underlying mitonuclear  
447 interactions, but also the physiological consequences of these interactions that result in  
448 hybrid breakdown.

#### 449 *Variation in developmental rate among hybrid T. californicus*

450 The developmental rates of inter-population F<sub>2</sub> *T. californicus* hybrids typically  
451 display hybrid breakdown (Burton, 1990; Ellison & Burton, 2008b; Healy & Burton,  
452 2020; Han & Barreto, 2021), and as in previous studies (Ellison & Burton, 2008b; Healy  
453 & Burton, 2020), we found that the reciprocal SDxSC and SCxSD hybrids have, on  
454 average, similar developmental rates. Despite this, we detected variation in  
455 developmental rate among the 8 hybrid lines in the current study (line A and B versus  
456 lines C to H). Since only 30 families contributed to each line, the variation in  
457 developmental rate among lines may be the result of inheritance of different epigenetic

458 | modifications or genetic effects such as random sampling of recombination events or  
459 | intra-population allelic variants (e.g., Pereira et al., 2016). Alternatively, environmental  
460 | effects such as differences in algal growth or offspring density may have contributed to  
461 | the observed variation among lines. Environmental effects on developmental rate and  
462 | mitonuclear interactions are common in hybrid organisms in general (Hoekstra et al.,  
463 | 2013, 2018; Baris et al., 2016; Mossman et al., 2016a, 2017; Drummond et al., 2019;  
464 | Rand & Mossman, 2020; Rand et al., 2022); however, variation in algal growth among  
465 | lines was minimized manually in the current study, and effects of density dependence on  
466 | developmental rate are typically minor under our experimental conditions (Healy et al., *in*  
467 | *prep.*). Regardless of the cause of variation among lines, strong effects of mitonuclear  
468 | incompatibilities within lines of hybrid *T. californicus* are expected to result in high  
469 | degrees of mitonuclear compatibility in fast-developing (high-fitness) hybrids (Healy &  
470 | Burton, 2020; Han & Barreto, 2021).

#### 471 | *Gene expression differences between high- and low-fitness hybrids*

472 | ~~Although~~ Approximately 1,500 nuclear gene products are potentially imported  
473 | into mitochondria, and 599 N-mt genes have been annotated in the *T. californicus*  
474 | genome (Barreto et al., 2018). Although not all effects of mitonuclear incompatibilities  
475 | will necessarily result in changes in gene expression, ~~and~~ 84 of these N-mt genes were  
476 | differentially expressed between fast- and slow-developing F<sub>2</sub> *T. californicus* hybrids.  
477 | The majority of these (51 genes) were detected only in the 6-line DE analysis, but this is  
478 | not surprising, because strong signatures of coevolution are only observed in fast-  
479 | developing hybrids (Healy & Burton, 2020), and developmental rates for the fast  
480 | developers in the 6-line analysis (lines C-H) were clearly faster than those from the other

481 two lines (lines A and B; Supplemental Figure S1 and Table S2). Among N-mt genes,  
482 there are four groups that most likely involve interactions between mitochondrial- and  
483 nuclear-encoded genes: mitochondrial DNA and RNA polymerases, mitochondrial  
484 aminoacyl-tRNA synthetases, mitochondrial ribosomal proteins and ETS complex  
485 subunits (Burton & Barreto, 2012; Hill, 2015, 2017; Hill et al., 2019). Of the DE N-mt  
486 genes in the current study, the clearest association with these groups was the 12 DE genes  
487 encoding subunits of the ETS complexes. All of these subunits were expressed at higher  
488 levels in fast developers than in slow developers (Table 2), which is consistent with  
489 previous studies positively associating ATP synthesis capacity with high fitness in *T.*  
490 *californicus* hybrids (Ellison & Burton, 2006, 2008b; Healy & Burton, 2020; Han &  
491 Barreto, 2021). In addition, six other N-mt genes either directly involved in the  
492 tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle (*idh3b* and *aco2*) or involved in pathways delivering  
493 substrates to the TCA cycle (*acss1*, *pc*, *mut* and *T05H10.6*) were also all up-regulated in  
494 fast developers compared to slow developers.

495         Changes in the proportions of even a small number of interacting mitochondrial  
496 proteins can have substantial functional consequences (e.g., Herrmann et al., 2003; Chae  
497 et al., 2013), and consequently our results highlight not only specific ETS subunits  
498 potentially involved in incompatibilities, but also the key role that dysfunction at  
499 complex I may play in hybrid breakdown. Nine of the 12 DE ETS genes encoded  
500 subunits of complex I, and the GO cellular component mitochondrial respiratory chain  
501 complex I (GO:0005747) was enriched among genes that were up-regulated in fast  
502 developers in the 6-line DE analysis. Compared to the other ETS complexes, complex I  
503 has the highest number of nuclear-encoded and mitochondrial-encoded subunits (38 and

504 7 subunits in mammals, respectively; Zhu et al., 2016), and thus is a particularly likely  
505 target for the formation of mitonuclear incompatibilities (e.g., Pichaud et al., 2019;  
506 Moran et al., 2021). Furthermore, although negative effects of mitonuclear  
507 incompatibilities have been demonstrated for complexes I, III and IV in *T. californicus*  
508 hybrids (Edmands & Burton, 1999; Willett & Burton, 2001, 2003; Rawson & Burton,  
509 2002; Harrison & Burton, 2006; Ellison & Burton, 2006, 2008b), signatures of divergent  
510 selection (i.e., elevated dN/dS) among populations of *T. californicus* are modestly, but  
511 significantly, higher for complex I than the other ETS complexes (Barreto et al., 2018).

512         Potential effects of mitonuclear interactions on mitochondrial transcription  
513 (Ellison & Burton, 2008a) and translation (i.e., mitochondrial ribosomal proteins; Barreto  
514 & Burton, 2012) have also been detected in *T. californicus*, but relatively few N-mt genes  
515 that were differentially expressed between high- and low-fitness hybrids were involved in  
516 these functions in the current study. Two mitochondrial ribosomal proteins were  
517 differentially expressed between the fast- and slow-developing copepodids with *mrpl19*  
518 up-regulated in slow developers and *mrps18c* up-regulated in fast developers, but note  
519 neither of these genes were annotated as N-mt genes in Barreto et al. (2018). One  
520 mitochondrial aminoacyl-tRNA synthetase (*kars*) and the mitochondrial poly(A)  
521 polymerase, *mtpap*, were expressed at higher levels in slow developers than in fast  
522 developers, as were N-mt genes involved in mitochondrial DNA replication (*twink* and  
523 *polg*) and translation regulation (*ptcd1* and *guf1*). Additionally, five N-mt genes involved  
524 in protein and RNA import into the mitochondria were also all up-regulated in slow  
525 developers (*hsp60*, *tim14*, *roe1*, *timm23* and *pnpt1*). Although changes in mRNA levels  
526 for individual genes are not necessarily directly related to functional differences at the

527 protein-level (e.g., Hack, 2004), consistent patterns of expression across genes from  
528 similar pathways or genes with similar functions are more likely to be indicative of  
529 functional effects in the cell. Beyond the differences in gene expression between fast and  
530 slow developers discussed above, allele-specific expression patterns may also contribute  
531 to the effects of mitonuclear interactions in F<sub>2</sub> hybrids. The pooled sequencing approach  
532 utilized in the current study produces the potential to confound genetic variation with  
533 allele-specific expression, which precludes informative allele-specific analyses. However,  
534 at least in F<sub>1</sub> hybrids between the SD and SC *T. californicus* populations,  
535 Tangwacharoen et al. (2020) observed limited evidence for allele-specific expression  
536 patterns, suggesting biased expression of population-specific alleles at heterozygous loci  
537 is unlikely to play a major role underlying the effects of mitonuclear interactions in these  
538 crosses.

539 Mitonuclear incompatibilities and mitochondrial dysfunctions in hybrids have  
540 been linked to increased production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) from the ETS (Du  
541 et al., 2017; Pichaud et al., 2019), and hybrid lines of *T. californicus* have elevated levels  
542 of oxidative damage compared to within-population lines (Barreto & Burton, 2013). The  
543 ETS produces ROS as a byproduct of oxidative metabolism, particularly at complex I and  
544 III (Brand, 2010; Andreyev et al., 2015), and although ROS can have important functions  
545 in cellular signaling, including ‘crosstalk’ between the mitochondria and nucleus (Yun &  
546 Finkel, 2014; Shadel & Horvath, 2015), excessive ROS production leads to oxidative  
547 stress that is harmful for macromolecules such as DNA (e.g., Temple et al., 2005). In the  
548 current study, GO terms associated with antioxidant defense processes such as hydrogen  
549 peroxide catabolic process and peroxidase reaction were enriched among genes up-

550 regulated in fast developers, whereas GO terms associated with DNA damage and repair  
551 including, for example, DNA repair, cellular response to DNA damage stimulus and  
552 interstrand cross-link repair were enriched among genes up-regulated in slow developers.  
553 These differences suggest there may be variation in oxidative stress mitigation and  
554 damage between the fast and slow developers, potentially indicating additional  
555 consequences of mitonuclear incompatibilities associated with the ETS. Consistent with  
556 this possibility, hallmark antioxidant enzymes (e.g., Yoo et al., 2020) such as superoxide  
557 dismutase (*sod1*) and glutathione *S*-transferase (*mgst1*) were up-regulated in fast-  
558 developing copepodids in the current study, and high-fitness *T. californicus* hybrids tend  
559 to have lower oxidative damage and higher mitonuclear compatibility than low-fitness  
560 hybrids (Barreto & Burton, 2013; Healy & Burton, 2020).

561         Other functional enrichments among the DE genes in the current study were less  
562 clearly connected to potential effects of mitonuclear incompatibilities. For example,  
563 enriched up-regulation of cuticle proteins in fast developers could be plausibly connected  
564 to the chitin-based exoskeleton in *T. californicus* and the five moults required to reach  
565 adulthood from the C1 stage, but connections between chitin metabolic processes and  
566 mitonuclear interactions are not readily apparent, despite transgressive expression levels  
567 of these proteins generally in *T. californicus* hybrids (Barreto et al., 2015). Cytosolic  
568 ribosomal proteins also display transgressive expression patterns in *T. californicus*  
569 (Barreto et al., 2015), but no cytosolic ribosomal proteins were differentially expressed  
570 between fast and slow developers in the current study. This is at least somewhat  
571 | surprisingly given the substantial impacts of rates of protein synthesis and variation in  
572 ribosomal protein expression on rapid growth during development in Pacific oyster

573 (*Crassostrea gigas*; Hedgecock et al., 2007; Meyer & Manahan, 2010; Pan et al., 2018),  
574 and the key role of ribosome abundance in high growth rates in *Saccharomyces sp.*  
575 (Warner, 1999; Regenberg et al., 2006; Airoidi et al., 2009).

576 Taken together, the genes differentially expressed between fast- and slow-  
577 developing F<sub>2</sub> *T. californicus* hybrids suggest a consistent hypothesis for the mechanisms  
578 underlying ~~strong~~ effects of mitonuclear incompatibilities in this species. Oxidative  
579 phosphorylation functions efficiently at high rates in high-fitness hybrids, whereas  
580 incompatible mitonuclear genotypes in low-fitness hybrids cause ETS dysfunction that is  
581 associated with increased signals of oxidative damage and potentially signals of  
582 compensatory increases in mitochondrial translation and protein import. Although clearly  
583 this is largely speculative based on the results of the current study alone, physiological  
584 studies in *T. californicus* generally support various aspects of this hypothesis (e.g.,  
585 Ellison & Burton, 2006, 2008b; Barreto & Burton, 2013; Healy & Burton, 2020),  
586 suggesting that further functional work to test these ideas, particularly in the context of  
587 variation in developmental rate, is warranted.

#### 588 *Effects of mitochondrial genotype on the transcriptome*

589 Relatively few genes were differentially expressed between hybrids carrying a SD  
590 or SC mitochondrial genotype, which is unlike the substantial variation in nuclear gene  
591 expression associated with mitochondrial substitutions in *Drosophila sp.* (Mossman et al.,  
592 2016b, 2017, 2019) or differences in mitochondrial genotype in horseshoe bats  
593 (*Rhinolophus affinis*; Ding et al., 2021). However, modest effects of mitochondrial  
594 genotype on the transcriptome are observed in Atlantic killifish (*Fundulus heteroclitus*)  
595 from natural populations with genetic admixture between two subspecies (Flight et al.,

596 2011; Healy et al., 2017), and only small numbers of genes are differentially expressed  
597 between *T. californicus* from the SD and SC populations (Barreto et al., 2015).  
598 Interestingly, mitochondrial-encoded genes also display similar expression levels  
599 between the SD and SC populations (differences only for *mt-col* and *mt-cyb* which were  
600 more highly expressed in SC than in SD; Barreto et al., 2015), whereas in the current  
601 study the clearest group of DE genes between SDxSC and SCxSD hybrids were 10  
602 mitochondrial-encoded genes. Given this difference, it is possible that nuclear genetic  
603 background alters mitochondrial transcription in *T. californicus*, as in other species (e.g.,  
604 Mossman et al., 2016b), which may include direct effects of incompatible mitonuclear  
605 regulatory interactions similar to those detected by Ellison & Burton (2008a).

#### 606 *Mechanisms underlying mitonuclear interactions*

607         Several studies have investigated genetic mechanisms underlying mitonuclear  
608 interactions by assessing variation in nuclear allele frequencies in reciprocal *T.*  
609 *californicus* hybrids (Pritchard et al., 2011; Foley et al., 2013; Lima & Willett, 2018;  
610 Lima et al., 2019; Healy & Burton, 2020; Han & Barreto, 2020; Pereira et al., 2021). In  
611 general, allele frequency deviations away from neutral expectations (i.e., 0.5) reveal  
612 consequences of both nuclear-nuclear and mitonuclear interactions with a bias towards  
613 the latter, especially in recent studies that focus on variation between reciprocal high-  
614 fitness hybrids (Healy & Burton, 2020; Han & Barreto, 2021; Pereira et al., 2021). In  
615 particular, fitness differences among hybrids between SD and SC, scored by  
616 developmental rate, highlight strong effects of mitonuclear interactions involving loci on  
617 chromosomes 1 to 5 (Healy & Burton, 2020). There are 249 annotated N-mt genes ~~are~~  
618 located on chromosomes 1 to 5 in *T. californicus* (47, 71, 42, 46 and 43 in order for

619 chromosomes 1 to 5), and 42 were differentially expressed between fast and slow  
620 developers in the results presented here (14, 5, 4, 9 and 10 in order for chromosomes 1 to  
621 5). Differences in allele frequencies among the pools of copepods in the current study  
622 were not assessed to avoid both the potential confound between genetic variation and  
623 allele-specific gene expression, and the inaccuracy of allele frequency estimation from  
624 pooled sequencing at the relatively low sequencing depths required to estimate gene  
625 expression. However, given the major association between mitonuclear compatibility on  
626 chromosomes 1 to 5 with variation in F<sub>2</sub>-hybrid developmental rate detected by Healy  
627 and Burton (2020), it is likely that differentially expressed N-mt genes on these  
628 chromosomes may reflect direct or indirect consequences of mitonuclear  
629 incompatibilities. Additionally, †The main findings of the current study ~~indicate~~ suggest  
630 that mitonuclear incompatibilities in the ETS complexes likely play key roles underlying  
631 variation in developmental rate among F<sub>2</sub> hybrids between SD and SC, and 22 N-mt ETS  
632 subunits are encoded on chromosomes 1 to 5 of which 7 were differentially expressed  
633 between the fast and slow developers. Although they are unlikely to be the only nuclear  
634 genes involved in mitonuclear interactions, the 6 of these genes that are not subunits of  
635 complex II, which has no mitochondrial-encoded subunits (e.g., Saraste, 1999), are  
636 currently ~~the strongest~~ excellent candidate genes to underlie mitonuclear incompatibilities  
637 in *T. californicus* (complex I: *ndufa6*, *ndufv2*, *ndufa8*, *ndufa5* and *ndufb3*, and complex  
638 III: *uqcrq*; Table 1). The relatively large number of genes encoding subunits of complex I  
639 among these results further highlight the potential key impacts of incompatibilities in this  
640 ETS complex. Therefore, it is possible that interacting subunits of complex I, including

641 the specific subunits identified here, may be potential candidates underlying mitonuclear  
642 interactions in eukaryotic organisms more generally as well.

643

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1116 **Data Accessibility and Benefit-Sharing**

1117 RNA-seq reads will be uploaded to the National Center for Biotechnology  
1118 Information Sequence Read Archive prior to publication of the manuscript. All datasets,  
1119 the full RNA-seq and enrichment statistical outputs, our annotated hybrid reference for  
1120 SD and SC, our *T. californicus* GO database, and the genomic locations of the annotated  
1121 N-mt genes in *T. californicus* have been uploaded to the Dryad Digital Repository and  
1122 will be made available once the manuscript has been assigned an identifier.

1123 Benefits Generated: Benefits from this research accrue from the sharing of our  
1124 data and results on public databases as described above.

1125

1126 **Author Contributions**

1127 TMH and RSB conceived and designed the experiments; TMH conducted all  
1128 experiments and analyses; RSB supervised the study; TMH prepared the figures, and  
1129 TMH and RSB wrote the manuscript.

1130 **Tables and Figures**

1131 **Table 1.** Differences in gene expression between fast- and slow-developing copepodids  
 1132 for the 12 differentially expressed nuclear genes encoding subunits of electron transport  
 1133 system complexes.

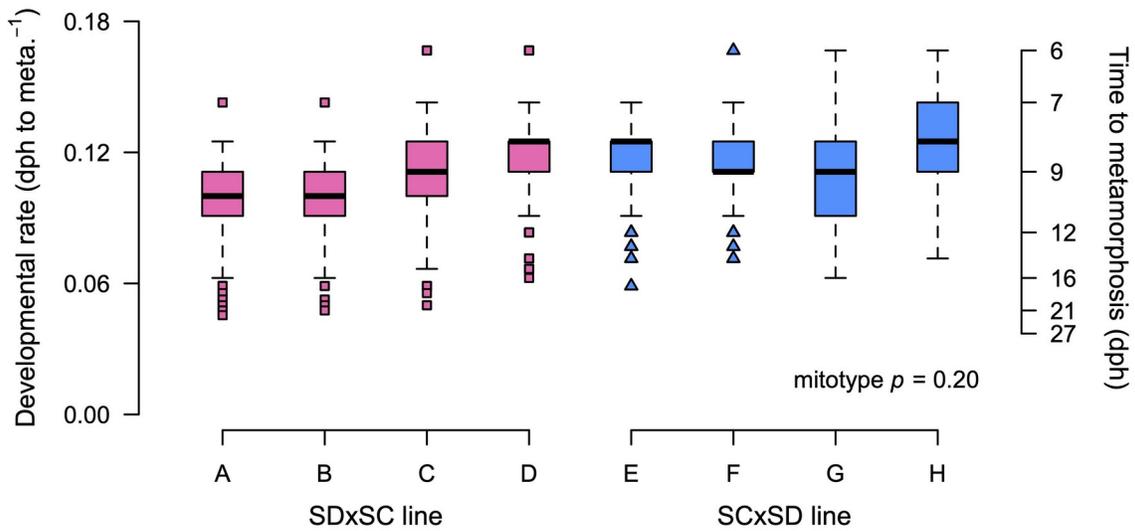
Gene	ETS complex	Chromosome	Counts per million ( $\mu \pm \text{SEM}$ )		FDR- adjusted <i>p</i> value <sup>†</sup>
			Slow developers	Fast developers	
<i>ndufs8</i>	I	10	66.2 $\pm$ 1.3	81.0 $\pm$ 2.9	2.0 x 10 <sup>-2</sup>
<i>sdhd</i>	II	5	47.8 $\pm$ 1.4	59.4 $\pm$ 2.7	2.1 x 10 <sup>-2</sup>
<i>ndufv2</i>	I	2	77.2 $\pm$ 2.0	95.8 $\pm$ 4.7	2.4 x 10 <sup>-2</sup>
<i>ndufa10</i>	I	6	169.3 $\pm$ 5.0	213.9 $\pm$ 10.0	2.6 x 10 <sup>-2</sup>
<i>atpsyno</i>	V	10	200.1 $\pm$ 6.1	257.8 $\pm$ 15.0	2.6 x 10 <sup>-2</sup>
<i>ndufa5</i>	I	5	41.8 $\pm$ 1.1	50.4 $\pm$ 1.8	2.7 x 10 <sup>-2</sup>
<i>uqcrq</i>	III	3	91.0 $\pm$ 2.4	115.7 $\pm$ 7.1	3.0 x 10 <sup>-2</sup>
<i>ndufs7</i>	I	10	127.1 $\pm$ 2.9	159.2 $\pm$ 8.7	3.3 x 10 <sup>-2</sup>
<i>ndufb3</i>	I	5	53.1 $\pm$ 2.1	64.8 $\pm$ 2.7	3.4 x 10 <sup>-2</sup>
<i>ndufa8</i>	I	3	79.9 $\pm$ 2.3	109.3 $\pm$ 13.6	3.8 x 10 <sup>-2</sup>
<i>ndufa6</i>	I	1	55.3 $\pm$ 1.3	69.2 $\pm$ 4.6	4.2 x 10 <sup>-2</sup>
<i>ndufb11</i>	I	10	72.1 $\pm$ 2.4	87.5 $\pm$ 4.0	4.8 x 10 <sup>-2</sup>

1134 <sup>†</sup> from the 6-line DE analysis

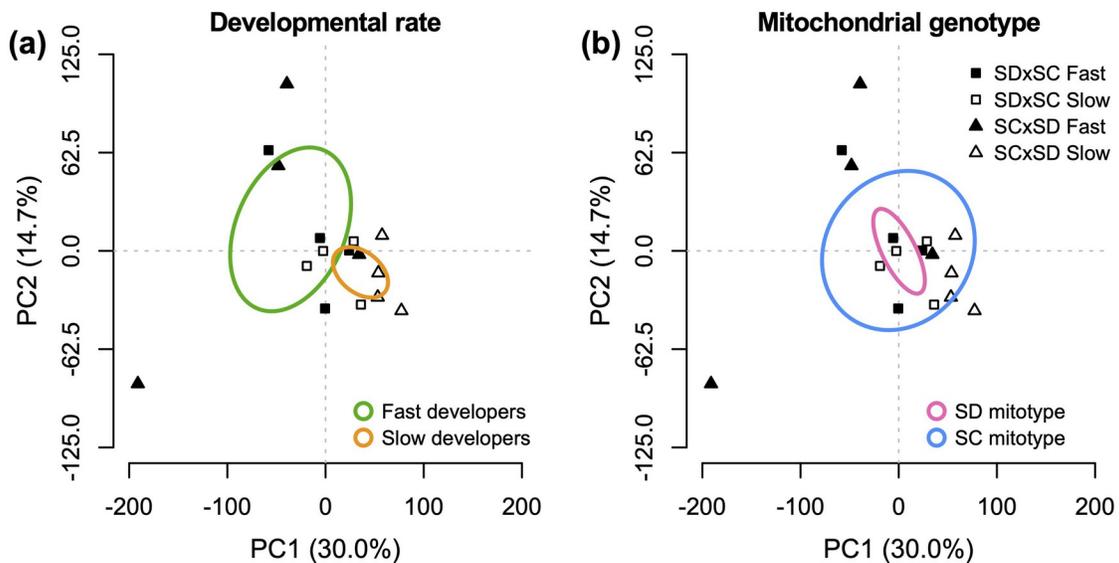
1135 **Table 2.** Expression levels of mitochondrial-encoded protein- and rRNA-coding genes in  
 1136 SDxSC and SCxSD F<sub>2</sub> hybrid *T. californicus*.

Gene <sup>†</sup>	Reads per kilobase per million reads ( $\mu \pm$ SEM)				Mitotype FDR- adjusted <i>p</i> value
	SDxSC slow developers	SDxSC fast developers	SCxSD slow developers	SCxSD fast developers	
<i>mt-nd1</i>	4567 $\pm$ 308	5001 $\pm$ 109	2680 $\pm$ 124	2690 $\pm$ 256	2.5 x 10 <sup>-10</sup>
<i>mt-nd2</i>	5483 $\pm$ 378	5604 $\pm$ 204	5725 $\pm$ 210	5699 $\pm$ 362	0.93
<i>mt-nd3</i>	2068 $\pm$ 157	2180 $\pm$ 93	2958 $\pm$ 150	2980 $\pm$ 444	3.7 x 10 <sup>-2</sup>
<i>mt-nd4</i>	2235 $\pm$ 161	2336 $\pm$ 18	4356 $\pm$ 325	3698 $\pm$ 276	2.5 x 10 <sup>-9</sup>
<i>mt-nd4l</i>	3763 $\pm$ 338	4045 $\pm$ 116	4818 $\pm$ 203	4565 $\pm$ 411	0.29
<i>mt-nd5</i>	2621 $\pm$ 169	2773 $\pm$ 44	3451 $\pm$ 169	3127 $\pm$ 288	0.22
<i>mt-nd6</i>	3913 $\pm$ 298	4248 $\pm$ 131	5769 $\pm$ 308	5122 $\pm$ 457	3.0 x 10 <sup>-2</sup>
<i>mt-cyb</i>	3798 $\pm$ 236	3777 $\pm$ 112	6519 $\pm$ 280	6888 $\pm$ 406	1.3 x 10 <sup>-11</sup>
<i>mt-co1</i>	8320 $\pm$ 445	8792 $\pm$ 249	6071 $\pm$ 199	6669 $\pm$ 542	8.5 x 10 <sup>-3</sup>
<i>mt-co2</i>	6670 $\pm$ 468	6787 $\pm$ 286	7493 $\pm$ 422	7587 $\pm$ 505	0.64
<i>mt-co3</i>	4098 $\pm$ 355	4507 $\pm$ 238	8113 $\pm$ 331	7370 $\pm$ 437	4.1 x 10 <sup>-10</sup>
<i>mt-atp6</i>	10245 $\pm$ 773	10884 $\pm$ 503	11840 $\pm$ 865	11874 $\pm$ 1410	0.70
<i>mt-atp8</i>	65 $\pm$ 9	92 $\pm$ 14	247 $\pm$ 33	152 $\pm$ 28	1.1 x 10 <sup>-8</sup>
<i>mt-rnr1</i>	219 $\pm$ 21	240 $\pm$ 18	105 $\pm$ 11	219 $\pm$ 58	4.6 x 10 <sup>-4</sup>
<i>mt-rnr2</i>	206370 $\pm$ 13569	223208 $\pm$ 5510	109165 $\pm$ 4133	130732 $\pm$ 17155	2.3 x 10 <sup>-11</sup>

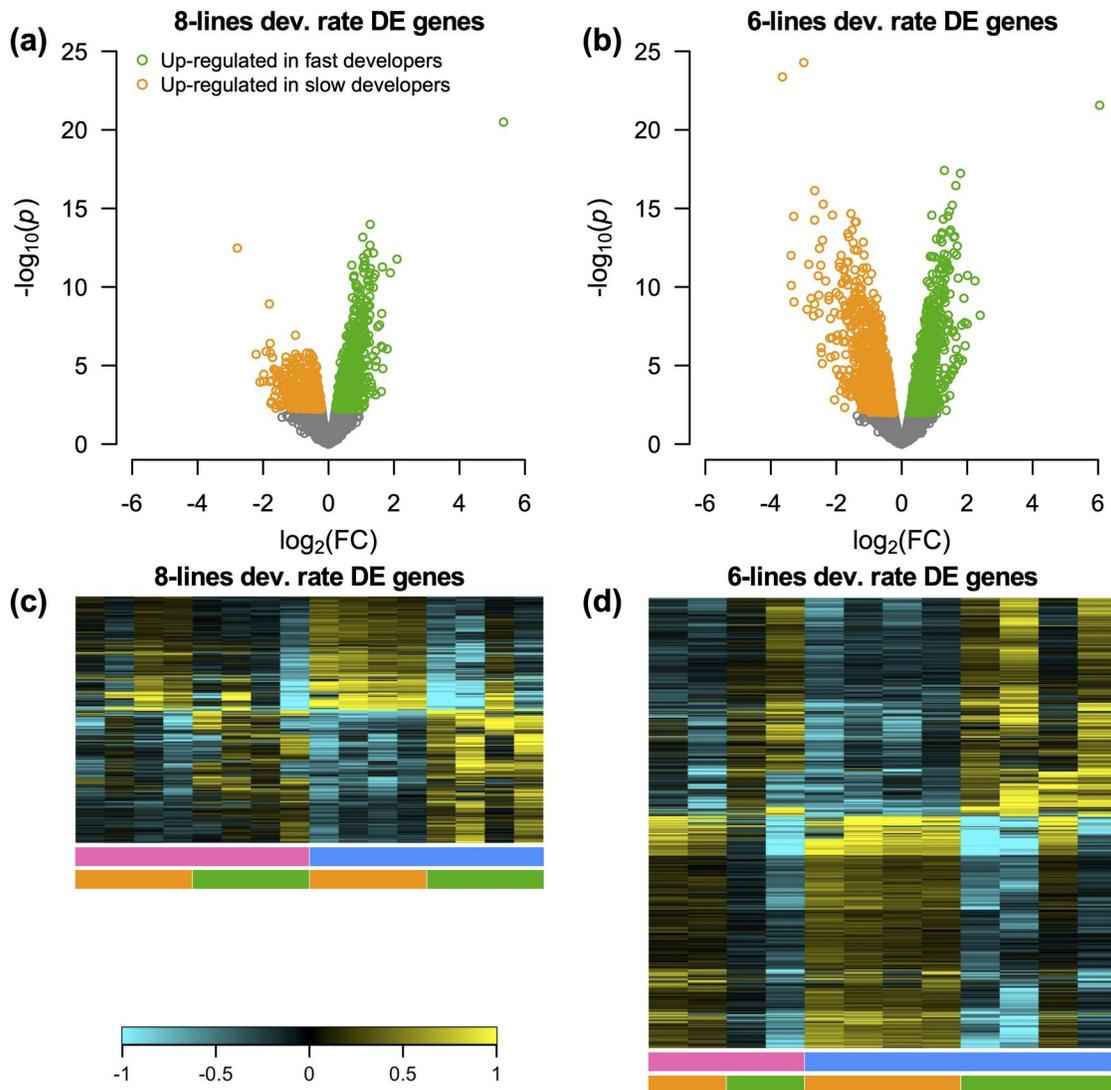
1137 <sup>†</sup> *nd* – complex I subunit, *cyb* – complex III subunit, *co* – complex IV subunit, *atp* –  
 1138 complex V subunit, and *rnr* – rRNA



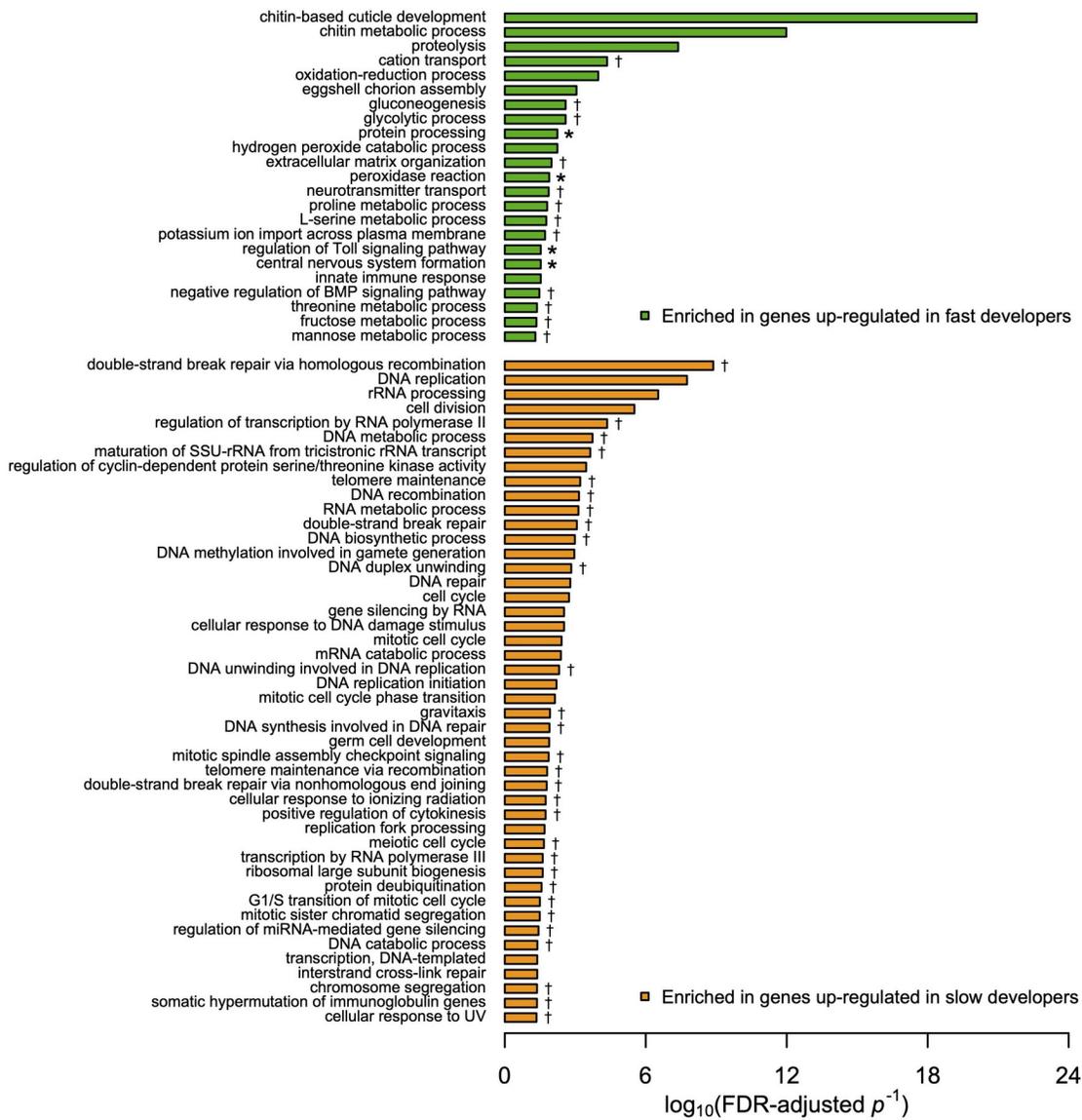
1139 **Figure 1.** Developmental rate box plots for eight reciprocal F<sub>2</sub> hybrid lines from crosses  
 1140 between San Diego (SD) and Santa Cruz (SC), USA of *Tigriopus californicus* (lines A-  
 1141 D: SDxSC, pink, squares; lines E-H: SCxSD, blue, triangles). Developmental rate is  
 1142 shown both as a rate (left axis) and as the days post hatch (dph) to stage 1 copepodid  
 1143 metamorphosis (right axis).  
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 1145  
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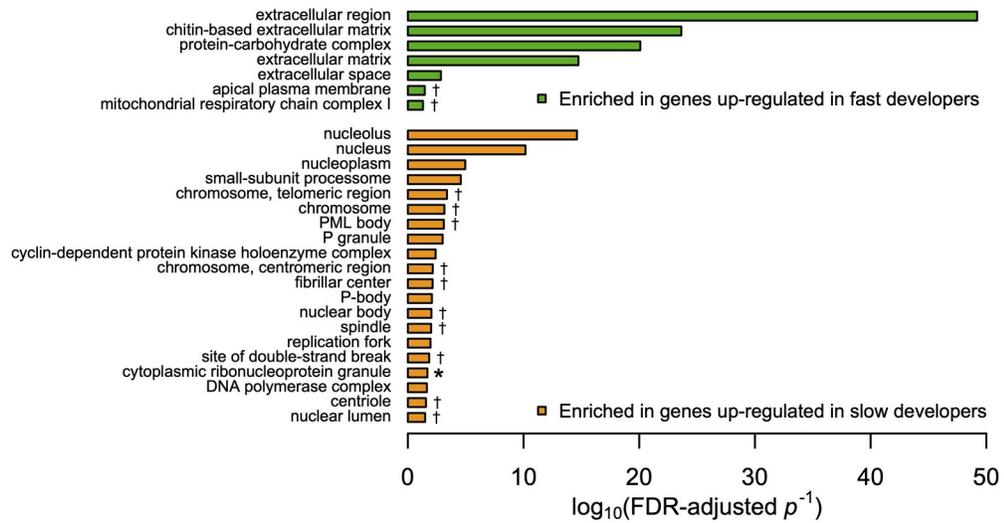
1147 **Figure 2.** Results from a principal component analysis of transcriptome-wide gene  
 1148 expression for principal components one (PC1) and two (PC2) scores (SDxSC: squares;  
 1149 SCxSD: triangles; fast-developing copepodids: filled symbols; slow-developing  
 1150 copepodids: open symbols). 95% confidence ellipses are shown for developmental rate  
 1151 groups (a – fast developers: green; slow developers: orange) and mitochondrial genotypes  
 1152 (b – SD mitochondrial genotype: pink; SC mitochondrial genotype: blue).



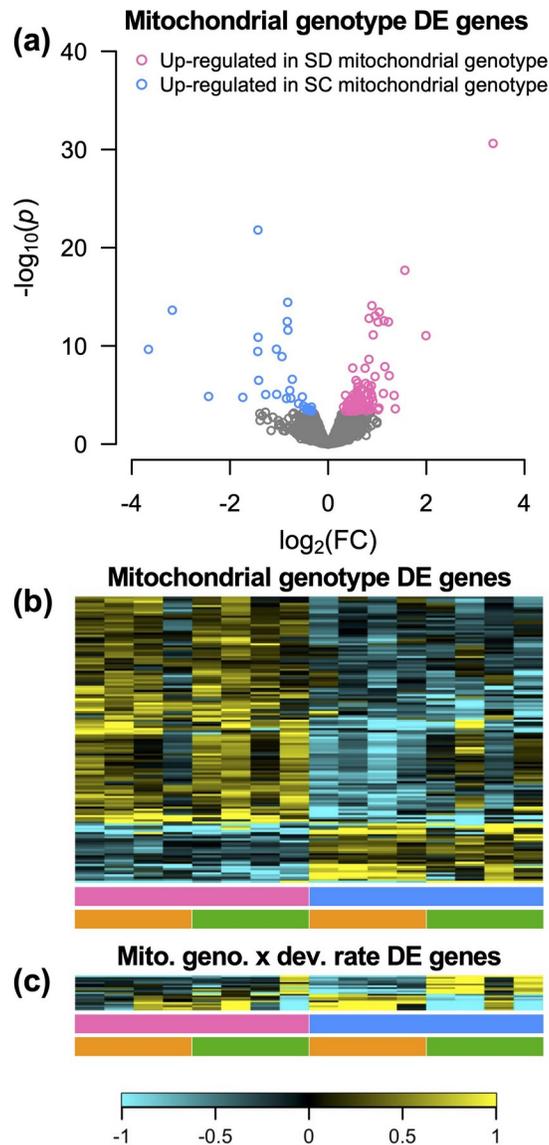
1153 **Figure 3.** Differences in gene expression between fast- and slow-developing F<sub>2</sub> hybrid *T.*  
 1154 *californicus*. Volcano plots (a – 8-line DE analysis; b – 6-line DE analysis) display the  
 1155 negative logarithm of the *p*-value versus the fold change in expression for each gene  
 1156 (green – up-regulated in fast-developing copepodids; orange – up-regulated in slow-  
 1157 developing copepodids; grey – not differentially expressed). Heat maps (c – 8-line DE  
 1158 analysis; d – 6-line DE analysis) display relative variation in expression (higher: yellow;  
 1159 lower: turquoise) among samples (columns) for each differentially expressed gene (rows).  
 1160 Developmental rates and mitochondrial genotypes for each sample are indicated by the  
 1161 horizontal bars below each heat map (developmental rate – fast: green, slow: orange;  
 1162 mitochondrial genotype – SD: pink, SC: blue).



1163 **Figure 4.** Significantly enriched gene ontology biological process terms among genes up-  
 1164 regulated in fast-developing (green) and slow-developing (orange) copepodids. Bar  
 1165 length indicates the negative logarithm of the FDR-adjusted  $p$ -value for the enrichment  
 1166 (asterisk – significant for the 8-line DE analysis genes; dagger – significant for the 6-line  
 1167 DE analysis genes; no symbol – significant in genes from both DE analyses; for terms  
 1168 detected in both analyses  $p$ -values shown are from the 8-line DE analysis).



1169 **Figure 5.** Significantly enriched gene ontology cellular component terms among genes  
 1170 up-regulated in fast-developing (green) and slow-developing (orange) copepodids. Bar  
 1171 length indicates the negative logarithm of the FDR-adjusted  $p$ -value for the enrichment  
 1172 (asterisk – significant for the 8-line DE analysis genes; dagger – significant for the 6-line  
 1173 DE analysis genes; no symbol – significant in genes from both DE analyses; for terms  
 1174 detected in both analyses  $p$ -values shown are from the 8-line DE analysis).



1175 **Figure 6.** Mitochondrial genotype and interaction effects on gene expression in F<sub>2</sub> hybrid  
 1176 *T. californicus*. The volcano plot (a) displays the negative logarithm of the *p*-value versus  
 1177 the fold change in expression for each gene differentially expressed between hybrids with  
 1178 SD or SC mitochondrial genotypes (pink – up-regulated in SD mitochondrial genotype;  
 1179 blue – up-regulated SD mitochondrial genotype; grey – not differentially expressed). Heat  
 1180 maps display relative variation in expression (higher: yellow; lower: turquoise) among  
 1181 samples (columns) for each gene (rows) with expression patterns affected by  
 1182 mitochondrial genotype (b) or by a mitochondrial genotype x developmental rate  
 1183 interaction (c). Mitochondrial genotypes and developmental rates for each sample are  
 1184 indicated by the horizontal bars below each heat map (mitochondrial genotype – SD:  
 1185 pink, SC: blue; developmental rate – fast: green, slow: orange).