

1 **Epigenetic divergence is sufficient to trigger heterosis in *Arabidopsis thaliana***

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23

## 24 **Abstract**

25 **Despite the importance and wide exploitation of heterosis in commercial crop breeding,**  
26 **the molecular mechanisms behind this phenomenon are not well understood.**  
27 **Interestingly, there is growing evidence that beside genetic also epigenetic factors**  
28 **contribute to heterosis. Here we used near-isogenic but epigenetically divergent parents**  
29 **to create epigenetic F1 hybrids (epiHybrids) in Arabidopsis, allowing us to quantify the**  
30 **contribution of epigenetics to heterosis. We measured traits such as leaf area (LA), growth**  
31 **rate (GR), flowering time (FT), main stem branching (MSB), rosette branching (RB) and**  
32 **final plant height (HT) and observed several strong positive and negative heterotic**  
33 **phenotypes among the epiHybrids. For LA and HT mainly positive heterosis was observed,**  
34 **while FT and MSB mostly displayed negative heterosis. Heterosis for FT, LA and HT could**  
35 **be associated with several heritable, differentially methylated regions (DMRs) in the**  
36 **parental genomes. These DMRs contain 35 (FT and LA) and 14 (HT) genes, which may**  
37 **underlie the heterotic phenotypes observed. In conclusion, our study indicates that**  
38 **epigenetic divergence can be sufficient to cause heterosis.**

39

## 40 **Author Summary**

41 Crossing two genetically distinct parents generates hybrid offspring. Sometimes hybrids are  
42 performing better than their parents in particular traits and this is referred to as heterosis.  
43 Hybridization and heterosis are naturally occurring processes and crop breeders  
44 intentionally cross genetically different parental lines in order to generate hybrids with  
45 maximized traits such as yield or stress tolerance. So far, the mechanisms behind heterosis  
46 are not well understood. In this study we focused on the effect of epigenetic variation onto  
47 heterosis in hybrids, and for this purpose we created epigenetic hybrids (epiHybrids) by  
48 crossing wildtype plants with a selection of genetically very similar but epigenetically

49 divergent lines. An extensive phenotypic analysis of the epiHybrids and their parental lines  
50 showed that epigenetic divergence between parental genomes can be a major determinant  
51 of heterosis. Importantly, multiple heterotic phenotypes could be associated with  
52 meiotically heritable differentially methylated regions (DMRs) in the parental genomes,  
53 allowing us to map epigenetic quantitative trait loci (QTLs) for heterosis. Our results indicate  
54 that epigenetic variation can contribute to heterosis and suggests that heritable epigenetic  
55 variation could be exploited for the improvement of crop traits.

56

## 57 **Introduction**

58 Heterosis describes an F1 hybrid phenotype that is superior compared to the phenotype of  
59 its parent varieties. The phenomenon has been exploited extensively in agricultural breeding  
60 for decades and has improved crop performance tremendously [1,2]. Despite its commercial  
61 impact, knowledge of the molecular basis underlying heterosis remains incomplete. Most  
62 studies mainly focused on finding genetic explanations, resulting in the classical dominance  
63 [1,3,4] and overdominance [4,5] models describing heterosis. In line with genetic  
64 explanations it has been observed that interspecies hybrids often show a higher degree of  
65 heterosis than intraspecies hybrids, indicating that genetic distance correlates with the  
66 extent of heterosis [2,6]. However, genetic explanations do often not sufficiently explain nor  
67 predict heterosis. There is growing evidence that also epigenetic divergence plays a role in  
68 heterosis [7–9]. It has, for example, been shown that altered epigenetic profiles at genes  
69 regulating circadian rhythm play an important role in heterotic *Arabidopsis* hybrids [10].  
70 Moreover, heterotic hybrids of *Arabidopsis*, maize and tomato are shown to differ in levels  
71 of small regulatory RNAs and/or DNA methylation (5mC) relative to their parental lines [11–  
72 14]. Processes such as the transfer of 5mC between alleles (trans chromosomal methylation,  
73 TCM), or a loss of 5mC at one of the alleles (trans chromosomal demethylation, TCdM) have  
74 been indicated to contribute to the observed remodeling of the epigenome [7,13,15].

75 Strikingly, some of these changes in 5mC levels have been shown to be stable over multiple  
76 generations [15,16].

77 In this study, we demonstrate that heterotic phenotypes occur in *A. thaliana* F1  
78 epigenetic hybrids (epiHybrids) that were generated from near-isogenic but epigenetically  
79 very divergent parental lines. Moreover, we found that some of those heterotic phenotypes  
80 could be associated with differentially methylated regions (DMRs) in their parental  
81 genomes, allowing us to map QTLs for heterosis.

82

## 83 **Results and Discussion**

### 84 **Construction of epigenetic Hybrids**

85 Hybrids are usually generated from parental lines that vary at both the genomic and  
86 epigenomic level and disentangling those two sources of variation is challenging. To  
87 overcome this limitation, we generated epigenetic *A. thaliana* F1 hybrids (epiHybrids) from  
88 near-isogenic but epigenetically divergent parental lines by crossing Col-0 wildtype (Col-wt)  
89 as maternal parent to 19 near-isogenic *ddm1-2*-derived epigenetic recombinant inbred lines  
90 (epiRILs) [17] as the paternal parents (Fig 1a).

91 *DDM1 (DECREASE IN DNA METHYLATION 1)* is a nucleosome remodeler and a *ddm1-*  
92 *2* deficiency leads to a severe loss of 5mC [18], primarily in long transposable elements and  
93 other repeat sequences [19]. EpiRILs carry chromosomes that are a mosaic of Col-wt and  
94 hypomethylated *ddm1-2*-derived genomic regions [17,20,21] (Fig 1a). Nineteen epiRIL  
95 parental lines were selected that sample a broad range of 5mC divergence from the Col-wt  
96 reference methylome (Fig 1b, S1 Table). Besides, lines were chosen that have a wildtype  
97 methylation profile at *FWA* (S1 Fig, S1 Table), as loss of DNA methylation at the *FWA*  
98 (*FLOWERING LOCUS WAGENINGEN*) locus is known to affect flowering time [22].  
99 Furthermore, we selected for a range of phenotypic variation in two traits that have  
100 previously been monitored in the epiRILs, flowering time and root length (S1 Table); outliers

101 were excluded [17]. With our experimental design we could demonstrate, as proof-of-  
102 principle, the extent to which divergence in 5mC profiles in parental lines can contribute to  
103 heterosis.

104

### 105 **Heterotic phenotypes occur in the epiHybrids**

106 The phenotypic performance of the 19 epiHybrids and their parental lines was assessed by  
107 monitoring about 1090 plants (~28 replicates per line) for a range of quantitative traits: LA,  
108 GR, FT, MSB, RB, HT and SY (S2-S7 Tables). The phenotypic observations for SY were  
109 inconsistent in a replication experiment, therefore those datasets were excluded from  
110 further analysis. The hybrids and parental lines were grown in parallel in a climate-controlled  
111 chamber with automated watering. The plants were randomized throughout the chamber to  
112 level out phenotypic effects caused by plant position. LA was measured up to 14 days after  
113 sowing (DAS), using an automated camera system (Fig 1f), and growth rate (GR) was  
114 determined based on this data (SI text). FT was scored manually as opening of the first  
115 flower. After all plants started flowering, the plants were transferred to the greenhouse and  
116 grown to maturity. MSB, RB and HT were scored manually after harvesting of the plants.

117         The extent of heterosis was evaluated by comparing the hybrid performance with its  
118 parental lines. We distinguished five effects (Fig 1c-e): additivity, positive mid-parent  
119 heterosis (positive MPH), negative mid-parent heterosis (negative MPH), high-parent  
120 heterosis (HPH) and low-parent heterosis (LPH). An additive effect describes a hybrid  
121 performance that is equal or close to the average performance of the two parents (the mid-  
122 parent value, MPV). MPH refers to deviations in percent from the MPV in positive or  
123 negative direction. Hybrids displaying MPH are further tested for HPH and LPH, which  
124 describe hybrid performance exceeding the high parent, or falling below the lowest parent,  
125 respectively. In crop breeding, the focus is usually on obtaining HPH and LPH as these  
126 present novel phenotypes that are outside the parental range. Depending on the trait

127 monitored and commercial application, either HPH or LPH can be considered superior. For  
128 instance, early flowering may be preferable over late flowering; in such cases maximizing  
129 LPH may be desirable. For other traits, such as yield or biomass, it is more important to  
130 maximize HPH. However, in order to obtain a comprehensive view of hybrid performance it  
131 is informative to also track MPH in addition to LPH and HPH, because many mature traits  
132 may be affected by other traits that do not display fully penetrant heterotic effects.

133 We observed a remarkably wide range of heterotic phenotypes among the  
134 epiHybrids (Fig 1g, S2-19 Tables). The magnitude of these phenotypic effects was substantial  
135 (Fig 1h-j, S2 Fig, S8-19 Tables) and similar to that typically seen in hybrids of Arabidopsis  
136 natural accessions[23,24]. Many epiHybrids (16/19) exhibited significant MPH in at least one  
137 of the six monitored traits (FDR = 0.05, Fig 1g). Across all hybrids and traits, we observed 30  
138 cases of positive MPH and negative MPH. Among those, four cases show LPH and nine cases  
139 show HPH (Fig 1g). Interestingly, in 11 out of the 17 cases of MPH the phenotypic means of  
140 the epiHybrids were in the direction of the phenotypic means of the epiRIL parent rather  
141 than in the direction of the Col-wt parent (S2-7 Tables, F1 trend). Also all four LPH and two  
142 of the HPH cases were in the direction of the epiRIL parent (Fig 1i-j, S2 Fig). This observation  
143 illustrates that *ddm1-2*-derived hypomethylated epialleles are often (partially) dominant  
144 over wild-type epialleles, which contrasts the situation seen in EMS screens where novel  
145 mutations typically act recessively.

146 We observed cases of HPH for LA, HT and MSB, and cases of LPH for FT and MSB.  
147 HPH for LA occurred in epiHybrids 232H, 195H and 193H (3/19 epiHybrids). Those epiHybrids  
148 significantly exceeded their best parent (Col-wt) by 17%, 18% and 15%, respectively (Fig 1h,  
149 S19 Table). Interestingly, although growth rate (GR) is developmentally related to LA, hybrid  
150 effects in GR were only moderately, albeit positively, correlated with LA ( $\rho = 0.57$ ,  $P =$   
151  $0.02$ ), which implies that LA heterosis is determined by other traits besides GR.

152 For HT we detected five cases of significant HPH with up to 6% increases in HT (Fig  
153 1i, S14 Table). One may expect LA HPH to strongly correlate with HT HPH, as the rosette is  
154 providing nutrients for the developing shoot[25]. However, HPH for both LA and HT occurred  
155 only in one epiHybrid (193H; Fig 1g).

156 For MSB, we detected one case of HPH (64H; Fig 1g and S2 Fig).

157 Besides positive heterosis, our phenotypic screen revealed strong negative heterotic  
158 effects for FT (earlier flowering) and MSB (less main stem branching). Significant LPH  
159 occurred in the epiHybrids 232H, 208H and 344H (FT) and 438H (MSB) (Fig 1j, S2 Fig, S15 and  
160 S17 Tables). In the most prominent case for FT (232H), FT was about 10% earlier than that of  
161 the earliest flowering parent. 208H and 244H flowered 3% and 4% earlier than their lowest  
162 parent (epiRIL 208 and epiRIL 344), respectively. 438H showed 14% less MSB than the lowest  
163 parent (S2 Fig).

164 The reproducibility of our findings was tested by performing replicate experiments,  
165 using seeds from newly performed crosses and the same climate controlled growth chamber  
166 as before. We focused on epiHybrids that exhibited relatively strong positive or negative  
167 heterotic phenotypes in the initial screen (193H, 150H, 232H; Fig 1g), and measured LA, FT  
168 and HT. We found that the direction of the heterotic effects in LA, FT and HT was  
169 reproducible in all cases tested (Fig 2a and b). Importantly, the LA and HT HPH observed for  
170 193H, and the strong FT LPH for 232H were perfectly reproducible, while LA HPH observed  
171 for 232H became positive MPH (Fig 2a). Taken together, these results show that the  
172 heterotic effects observed in the epiHybrids are relatively stable for LA, HT and FT, even  
173 across fresh parental seed batches and independently performed crosses, which is not  
174 always the case for Arabidopsis phenotypes [26].

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## 178 **Heterotic phenotypes are associated with QTLs**

179 To understand the sources of the LA, HT and FT heterotic effects observed among the ~530  
180 epiHybrid plants, we calculated the phenotypic divergence of each epiHybrid plant from its  
181 respective mid-parent value. Using variance component analysis we estimated that 17%,  
182 28% and 51% of the total variation in mid-parent divergence for FT, LA and HT, respectively,  
183 can be attributed to (epi)genomic differences between the Col-wt and epiRILs used for the  
184 crosses (Fig 2c, S20 Table , SI text). Global 5mC divergence between the Col-wt and the  
185 epiRILs parental lines could not account for this variation (S3 Fig). We therefore reasoned  
186 that heterotic phenotypes are due to (partial) dominance effects caused by specific regions  
187 being epi-heterozygous for an epiRIL-inherited hypomethylated epiallele (*U*) and a Col-wt-  
188 inherited methylated epiallele (*M*). To test this possibility, we used the methylomes of Col-  
189 wt and the epiRIL parents[20] to predict epi-homozygous (*MM*) and epi-heterozygous (*MU*)  
190 regions in the genomes of the epiHybrids (Fig 3a, SI text), and assessed whether heritable  
191 epigenetic differences at specific loci could explain the variation in MPH among crosses (S4  
192 Fig). The analysis revealed two QTLs on chromosome (chr) 3 contributing to the between-  
193 cross variation in MPH in FT (QTL 1: LOD=3.12, 37.62 cM; QTL 2: LOD=3.33, 101.44 cM, Fig  
194 3b; S21 Table). EpiHybrids epi-heterozygous (*MU*) at these loci showed significant negative  
195 MPH compared to their epi-homozygous (*MM*) counterparts (Fig 3c). While not significant at  
196 the genome-wide scale (Fig 3b), the same two QTLs had substantial suggestive effects on LA  
197 heterosis in the opposite direction than FT (Fig 3b and c), indicating that both QTLs act  
198 pleiotropically.

199 We also detected a single QTL locus on chr 4 (LOD=3.33, 56.00 cM) that contributes  
200 to the between-cross variation in MPH for HT (Fig 3b, S21 Table). In this case, *MU* epiHybrids  
201 showed significant positive MPH compared to *MM* epiHybrids (Fig 3c). Interestingly, the HT  
202 QTL overlaps with a previously identified QTL<sup>epi</sup> for root length in the epiRILs[21]. The same



203 study identified QTLs<sup>epi</sup> associated with FT [21] that we did not detect here (Fig 3b), implying  
204 that different regions may play a role in FT trait variation than in FT heterosis.

### 205 **Heterotic phenotypes are associated with DMRs in the parental genomes**

206 The detection of heterosis QTLs for FT, LA and HT provided a rationale to search for causal  
207 variants in the QTL confidence intervals. TE-associated structural variants (TEASVs) are  
208 known to occur at low frequency in a *ddm1-2*-derived DNA hypomethylated background  
209 [17,21,27,28], hence we re-analyzed whole-genome sequencing data from the epiRIL  
210 parents [21] for TEASVs but did not detect any that could account for the QTL effects,  
211 suggesting that the QTLs most likely have an epigenetic basis (SI text). Indeed, a thorough  
212 analysis of the methylomes of the parental epiRILs, using the available MeDIP tiling array  
213 data [20], identified 55 and 18 potentially causal differentially methylated regions (DMRs) in  
214 the FT, LA and HT QTL regions, mapping to 35 and 14 unique genes, respectively (Fig 3d, S5–  
215 S9 Figs, S22-S26 Tables, SI text). Potentially interesting genes in the candidate regions of the  
216 FT/LA QTLs (S25 Table) include for example RPL5A, which was shown to affect development  
217 through regulating auxin and influencing leaf shape and patterning [29,30], and AT3G26480,  
218 a protein that shows partial homology to GTS1, which has been implemented in biomass  
219 accumulation [31]. Another potentially interesting candidate is Chup1, which is crucial for  
220 chloroplast movement in leaves in response to light [32]. These candidate genes provide  
221 excellent targets for follow-up studies.

222

### 223 **Conclusions**

224 In a recently published study, heterosis for rosette area was reported in an epigenetic F1  
225 hybrid generated by crossing a *met1*-derived epiRIL with Col-wt [33]. *DNA-*  
226 *METHYLTRANSFERASE1* (*MET1*) is involved in maintenance of DNA methylation at cytosines  
227 in CG sequence context and a mutation in this gene causes a severe loss of DNA methylation  
228 in the CG and CHH context [34]. Heterosis was observed in a parent-of origin manner; the

229 reciprocal cross did not result in heterosis [33]. This suggests that the heterosis detected  
230 may be due to an effect of the maternal cytoplasm rather than differences in epigenetic  
231 marks in the parental genomes. Here, we used Col-wt as maternal parent in all crosses to  
232 specifically monitor phenotypic effects associated with the epiRIL methylomes. We observed  
233 a wide range of heterotic effects, and our proof-of-principle QTL mapping approach  
234 indicated that these phenotypic effects are very likely attributable to methylation  
235 differences between Col-wt and the epiRILs. Moreover, our results, together with those of  
236 Dapp et al. [9], indicate that heterosis in F1 hybrids generated from epigenetically divergent  
237 lines may be a more general phenomenon. A more recent study described widespread DNA  
238 methylation changes in an epiHybrid derived from Col-wt and a *met1*-mutant [34].  
239 Remarkably, the formation of spontaneous non-parental epialleles was observed in the  
240 epiHybrid, mostly at pericentromeric transposon sequences, but also at genic loci [34]. This  
241 demonstrates that novel epigenetic variation, which is not readily predictable from the  
242 parental methylomes, can be created during hybridization. Future research needs to address  
243 if and how these methylome changes relate to phenotypic variation. This study also stresses  
244 that for a refined understanding of the effect of epigenetic QTLs as described in this study,  
245 methylation changes should be thoroughly analyzed.

246

## 247 **Material and Methods**

### 248 **Plant Material**

249 The epigenetic recombinant inbred lines (epiRILs) in our study were generated by Johannes  
250 et al [17]. The epiRILs were constructed as follows: An *Arabidopsis thaliana* Col-0 line  
251 deficient for *ddm1-2* (*DECREASE IN DNA METHYLATION 1*) was crossed to an isogenic Col-0  
252 wildtype line (Col-wt) and the resulting F1 was backcrossed as female parent to Col-wt.  
253 Subsequently about 500 progeny plants with a wildtype *DDM1* allele were selected and  
254 propagated through six more rounds of selfing, generating a population of 500 different

255 epiRILs. We selected 19 different epiRILs as paternal plants for generating epiHybrids (Line  
256 IDs: 14, 232, 92, 208, 438, 195, 350, 500, 150, 118, 432, 202, 344, 64, 193, 508, 260, 579,  
257 371). Our selection criteria were as follows: 1) Wide range of DNA methylation divergence  
258 from Col-wt and among the selected lines; 2) Wildtype DNA methylation state at the FWA  
259 locus in order to avoid that differences in DNA methylation at this locus give rise to  
260 differences in flowering time [22] in the hybrids; 3) Wide range of phenotypic variation in  
261 flowering time and root length among the selected lines. The epiRIL lines were purchased  
262 from the Arabidopsis Stock center of INRA Versailles (<http://publiclines.versailles.inra.fr/>).

263

## 264 **Crosses**

265 To generate F1 hybrids from the selected epiRIL lines and Col-wt, all parental plants were  
266 grown in parallel in soil (Jongkind 7 from Jongkind BV, <http://www.jongkind.com/>) in pots  
267 (Danish size 40 cell, Desch Plantpak, <http://www.desch-plantpak.com/en/Home.aspx>). The  
268 plants were grown at 20°C, 60% humidity, in long day conditions (16h light, 8h dark), and  
269 were watered 3 times per week. All crosses were performed in parallel in a time frame of  
270 two weeks to avoid phenotypic effects in the F1 progeny due to differences in growing  
271 conditions. To exclude that differences in maternal cytoplasm affect the phenotypes of the  
272 F1 plants, Col-wt plants were used as a maternal parent and the epiRILs as paternal parents.  
273 In parallel, all parental lines, Col-wt and epiRILs, were propagated by manual selfing. This to  
274 1) ensure that parental and F1 hybrid seeds were generated under the same growing  
275 conditions and 2) exclude potential phenotypic effects derived from hand pollination[35].

276

## 277 **Phenotypic Screen**

278 The seeds were stratified at 4°C for 3 days on petri-dishes containing filter paper and water  
279 before transferring them onto Rockwool/Grodan blocks (soaked in Hyponex NPK: 6.5 – 6.19  
280 medium) in a climate controlled chamber (20°C, 70% humidity, long day conditions (16h

281 light, 8h dark)). The transfer of the seeds onto the Rockwool blocks is defined as time point 0  
282 days after sowing (DAS). Seeds from each parental and hybrid line were sown in 28  
283 replicates and their positions were randomized throughout the growth chamber to level out  
284 phenotypic effects caused by plant position. The plants were watered two or three times per  
285 week depending on their size. After the plants started flowering, they were transferred to  
286 the greenhouse (20°C, 60% humidity, long day conditions (16h light, 8h dark)). In the  
287 greenhouse, the plants were watered 3 times per week and stabilized by binding them to  
288 wooden sticks at later developmental stages. The plants were harvested once the siliques of  
289 the main inflorescence and its side branches were ripe.

290 Rosette Leaf Area (LA): LA was monitored by an automated camera system (Open  
291 Pheno System, WUR) from 4 days after sowing (DAS). The system consists of 14 fixed  
292 cameras that can take pictures of up to 2145 plants daily, every two hours. We monitored LA  
293 until 14 DAS since at later time points leaves start overlapping hampering the correct  
294 detection of LA. Leaf area in mm<sup>2</sup> was calculated by an ImageJ based measurement setup  
295 (<http://edepot.wur.nl/169770>).

296 Flowering time (FT): FT was defined as the DAS at which the first flower opened. FT  
297 was scored manually each day before 12am.

298 Height (HT): HT was scored manually in cm on dried plants. The measurement was  
299 taken at the main inflorescence, from the rosette to the highest flowerhead.

300 Branching: Branching was scored on the dried plants by counting the branches  
301 emerging from the rosette (RB) and from the main stem (MSB).

302 Total Seed Yield (SY): Seeds were harvested from the dried plants, cleaned by  
303 filtering and seed yield was subsequently determined by weighing (resulting in mg seeds per  
304 plant).

305

306 **Data analysis**

307 For the data analysis see the Supplementary Information.

308

### 309 **Replication experiment with selected hybrids**

310 Freshly ordered seeds of epiRILs (Line IDs: 92, 150, 193, 232) from the Arabidopsis Stock  
311 center Versailles were used for the replication experiment with the hybrids selected. The  
312 crosses with the epiRILs and the phenotypic screen were performed as described above with  
313 the exception that more replicates were monitored for each parental and hybrid line: 60  
314 replicates for LA and 30 replicates for the traits FT and HT. Furthermore, branching was not  
315 examined in the replication experiment.

316

### 317 **Figure Legends**

318 **Fig 1. Heterosis occurs in epiHybrids.** (a) Experimental setup. Lines are depicted  
319 schematically as one chromosome with the numbers indicating the epiRIL ID (e.g. 371 & 492)  
320 and the respective epiHybrid (e.g. 371H & 492H). (b) Genome-wide 5mC levels (y-axis) of the  
321 Col-wt line in green and the epiRIL parental lines in salmon. Numbers indicate the epiRIL IDs.  
322 The 5mC levels were calculated as the proportion of methylated MeDIP probes with respect  
323 to the total amount of probes. (c-e) Three classes of phenotypic effects monitored in the  
324 epiHybrids. The black dashed line indicates the mid-parent value. The green and salmon  
325 dashed lines indicate the mean performance of the parental lines. The white dashed lines  
326 indicate the mean performance of the epiHybrids. (f) Col-wt, epiHybrid 232H and epiRIL 232  
327 at 13 days after sowing as an example for high-parent heterosis. (g) Phenotypic effects in six  
328 traits monitored across the 19 epiHybrids. The right panel summarizes positive and negative  
329 heterotic effects per trait. (h-j) Examples of epiHybrids exhibiting high-parent heterosis in  
330 leaf area and height (LA and HT; h and i), and low-parent heterosis in flowering time (FT; j)  
331 Error bars,  $\pm 1$  SEM. Deviation from high parent or low parent is shown in percent.

332

333 **Fig 2. Confirmation of mid-parent (MP) divergence in the initial screen and replicate**  
334 **experiment for epiHybrids 150H, 193H and 232H. (a)** Results for cases of HPH and LPH for  
335 LA, HT and FT in initial experiment. **(b)** Results for traits showing less eminent phenotypic  
336 effects for LA, HT and FT. The mid-parent value (MPV) is shown as a dashed horizontal line  
337 and the MP divergence is shown as change from MPV in percent. To illustrate the F1  
338 epiHybrid distribution for each trait, the individual replicate plants are depicted as dots. **(c)**  
339 F1 MP divergence for LA, HT and FT for all epiHybrids. The MPV is shown as a horizontal  
340 dashed line and MP divergence is shown as change from MPV in percent. The epiHybrids are  
341 ordered from highest (left) to lowest (right) F1 MP divergence. To illustrate the F1 epiHybrid  
342 distribution for each trait, the individual replicate plants are depicted as dots. Variance  
343 component analysis was used to estimate how much of the total variation in MP divergence  
344 can be explained by between-cross variation. The F-statistic from this analysis is shown in  
345 the boxes.

346

347 **Fig 3. Interval mapping approach detects significant QTLs for mid-parent divergence. (a)**  
348 Genome-wide patterns of Col-wt and *ddm1-2* inherited epi-haplotypes in the (epi)genomes  
349 of the parental epiRILs used in this study. **(b)** QTL profiles for FT, HT and LA. Published  
350 QTLs<sup>epi</sup> for root length and flowering time are shown. **(c)** Effect direction of the QTLs. Error  
351 bars,  $\pm 1$  SE of the Estimate (SEE). **(d)** Zoom in of one of the QTL intervals of FT. The top  
352 panel shows the annotations along the genome. The bottom panel shows the locations of  
353 candidate DMRs and the average methylation level along the genome for epiRIL parents that  
354 are either methylated (*MM*) or unmethylated (*UU*) at the peak marker.

355

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### 363 **Author Contributions**

364 K.L., M.S. and F.J. designed the study, interpreted the data and wrote the manuscript with  
365 contributions from J.J.B.K. and R.W. K.L. and M.H.A.v.H. planned and performed the  
366 phenotypic screen. F.J. and R.W. performed the data analysis. V.G. analyzed sequencing data  
367 of the epiRIL parents.

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