

1 **Transgressive and parental dominant gene expression and cytosine methylation during**
2 **seed development in *Brassica napus* hybrids**

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16 **Keywords:**

17 **Gene expression, methylation, small RNA, seed development, parental dominance**

18 **Abstract:**

19 The enhanced performance of hybrids through heterosis remains a key aspect in plant breeding;
20 nonetheless, the transcriptomic and epigenomic mechanisms behind it are still not fully
21 elucidated. In the present study, gene expression, small RNA abundance and genome-wide
22 methylation patterns were evaluated in hybrids from two distant *Brassica napus* ecotypes
23 during seed and seedling developmental stages using next generation sequencing technologies.
24 A total of 71217, 773, 79518 and 31825 differentially expressed genes, microRNAs, small
25 interfering RNAs and differentially methylated regions were identified respectively.
26 Approximately 70% of the differential expression and methylation patterns observed could be
27 explained due to parental dominance levels. Reproductive, developmental, and meiotic gene
28 copies following transgressive and paternal dominance patterns were found through gene
29 ontology enrichment and microRNA-target association analyses. Interestingly, maternal
30 dominance was more prominent in hypermethylated and downregulated features during seed
31 formation which contrasts strikingly with the general maternal gamete demethylation occurring
32 during gametogenesis in most plant species. Linkages between methylation and gene
33 expression allowed the identification of putative genetic epialleles with diverse pivotal
34 biological functions. Furthermore, most differentially methylated regions, differentially
35 expressed siRNAs and transposable elements were found near gene flanking regions that had
36 no differential expression, hence, indicating their potential role in conserving essential genomic
37 and transcriptomic loci across the parents and offspring.

38 Introduction

39

40 Transcriptomic and epigenomic profiling in recent decades have developed higher yielding,
41 disease resistant and stress tolerant crops (Scossa et al., 2021; Yang et al., 2021) that have not
42 only expanded the genetic diversity in multiple crop species (Louwaars, 2018) but also
43 elucidated the role of regulatory and non-coding features in plants (Zanini et al., 2022).
44 Transcriptomic and epigenomic features have been widely used to determine molecular and
45 biological functions as well as to differentiate germplasm in plants. For instance, RNA
46 sequencing (RNA-Seq) data developed through microarrays and next generation sequencing
47 (NGS) has been used to build gene expression databases for such as Arabidopsis, rice, wheat
48 and oilseed rape which can in turn be exploited for comparative expression studies (Petryszak
49 et al., 2016; H. Chen et al., 2022). Small RNAs (sRNAs) derived from endogenous genomic
50 loci or exogenous sources are known to regulate various functions and responses in plant.
51 Among them, microRNAs (miRNAs) and small interfering RNAs (siRNAs) have been
52 classified and characterized into diverse databases, providing thus, a great start for further
53 transcriptomic research (Griffiths-Jones et al., 2006; Lunardon et al., 2020). Epigenomic
54 features, those resulting into phenotypical changes without alterations in DNA sequences,
55 include chromatin interaction, histone modification and DNA methylation (Fitz-James and
56 Cavalli, 2022). Genome-wide methylation analyses have found methylation level differences
57 across plant species and determined phenotypic consequences as a result of genomic
58 methylation (Bartels et al., 2018; Muyle et al., 2022).

59 *Brassica napus* (AACC, 2n=38), an allopolyploid oilseed crop derived from *B.rapa* (AA,
60 2n=20) and *B.oleracea* (CC, 2n=18), has been no exception to the advancements in the
61 transcriptomic and epigenomic fields. Differential gene expression in *B.napus* has revealed key
62 genes in flowering time, disease resistance and abiotic stress (Wu et al., 2016; P. Wang et al.,
63 2017; Jian et al., 2019). Small RNAs profiling has also identified microRNA and siRNA
64 sequences associated with pathogen response, abiotic stress and lipid metabolism in oilseed
65 rape (Z. Wang et al., 2017; Jian et al., 2018; Martinez Palacios et al., 2019; Regmi et al., 2021).
66 Genome-wide DNA methylation research has likewise detected methylated regions and
67 patterns that contribute to heat response, DNA repair and fertility in *B.napus* (Li et al., 2016;
68 Ran et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2018; Yin et al., 2021).

69 Recent studies have integrated multiple omics strategies to obtain a detailed scenario of
70 expression and methylation patterns in oilseed rape (Shen et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2018).
71 Interestingly, Shen et al. (2017) found specific expression and methylation patterns in a major
72 commercial *B. napus* hybrid that were linked to heterosis, a hybrid specific effect of high
73 interest for crop improvement. The enhanced performance observed due to heterosis has been
74 mostly evaluated at the genomic level and explained through allele interactions (Fujimoto et
75 al., 2018) and introgressions of genomic regions between genetically and genomically distant
76 parents (D. Hu et al., 2021; Quezada-Martinez et al., 2021). Nevertheless, the transcriptomic
77 and epigenomic networks involved in heterosis have not been fully elucidated; hence limiting
78 the potential of regulatory and non-coding features in plant breeding.

79 RNA-Seq and methylation-based studies have dissected putative heterotic loci in embryo and
80 seed developmental stages in hybrid plants (Meyer et al., 2012; Kawanabe et al., 2016; Alonso-
81 Peral et al., 2017; L. Chen et al., 2022). Early heterosis through increase of cell size and number,
82 seed yield and biomass has been reported in *A. thaliana* and maize (Jahnke et al., 2010; L. Wang

83 et al., 2017; Zhu et al., 2020; Groszmann et al., 2014). The latter authors found that the maternal
84 genotype was the major determinant of heterosis at early developmental stages in *A. thaliana*.
85 Seed development is also well characterized for enriched epigenomic mechanisms through
86 methylation and transcriptomic regulation with pollen cells being hypermethylated and ovule
87 cells demethylated in most plants (Batista and Köhler, 2020; Montgomery and Berger, 2021).
88 Such parental dominances are attributed to have a main role during seed formation through
89 diverging gamete methylation patterns (Weigel and Colot, 2012; Lauss et al., 2018). Moreover,
90 the merging of parental genomes during embryogenesis leads to a genomic shock that can
91 further alter the hybrid transcriptome (Bird et al., 2018).

92 Furthermore, diverse studies in parent-offspring trios have compared parental dominant and
93 transgressive gene expression patterns via expression level dominance (ELD) analyses in
94 polyploids including *B. napus* (Yoo et al., 2013; Wu et al., 2018; Li et al., 2020). To the best of
95 our knowledge, no previous study has evaluated dominance level patterns in expression and
96 methylation in *B.napus* hybrids directly derived from two *B.napus* parents. Therefore, the
97 present study analyses transcriptomic and epigenomic differences during seed and seedling
98 development in winter ecotype *B.napus* Express 617 (Lee et al., 2020) and semi-winter ecotype
99 *B.napus* G3D001 (Zou et al., 2018) and their respective hybrid. For this purpose, mRNA, small
100 RNA and whole-genome bisulfite sequencing were carried in all aforementioned genotypes.
101 Differential features were identified and classified by their respective expression or methylation
102 dominance levels to detect parental and hybrid-specific patterns associated with early
103 developmental stages. Gene ontology enrichment and integration of omics features were
104 performed to find putative interactions between found features and consequently evaluate their
105 epigenomic and transcriptomic impact in early heterosis.

106

107 **Material and Methods**

108

109 **Experimental design and growing conditions**

110 Seeds from winter-type oilseed rape Express 617 (maternal line), semi-winter semi-synthetic
111 oilseed rape G3D001 (paternal line) and their F1 offspring were planted at the same time at
112 Huazhong Agricultural University of Wuhan field station. The third youngest leaf from each
113 genotype were sampled from seedlings having six unfolded leaves (BBCH16) at 10 AM under
114 liquid nitrogen. Flower buds with similar sizes were selected on the fifth day after reaching full
115 flowering (BBCH65) to perform selfing in all genotypes and crosses between Express 617
116 (female recipient) and G3D001 (male donor). The newly generated F1 crosses were employed
117 to analyze the transcriptomic and epigenomic differences during seed formation between ovules
118 pollinated from selfed-F1 plants and those pollinated from outcrossing from Express 617 and
119 G3D001 which from here onwards are referred as F0. Pollinated ovules were taken out with
120 tweezers 15 and 30 days after pollination (DAP) at 10 AM and quickly placed in sampling tubes
121 under liquid nitrogen. Biological replicates consisted of pooled-sampling from the third
122 youngest leaf from seven individual plants for leaf samples, and from four pollinated ovules
123 from four different plants. The sampled tissue was aliquoted and used for all sequencing types
124 described in this study. Moreover, three biological replicates were used for messenger and small
125 RNA expression experiments. Two biological replicates were used for methylation studies
126 instead, due to low material availability for some samples.

127

128 mRNA, small RNA and whole genome bisulfite sequencing

129 mRNA was extracted using TRIzol™ Reagent (Thermo Fisher). A total of 0.5 µg of total RNA
130 per biological replicate were used for preparing 150 bp paired-end (PE) read libraries using the
131 NEBNext® Ultra™ II RNA Library Prep Kit (New England Biolabs, Inc.). Small RNA was
132 extracted using a Plant miRNA kit (Omega Bio-tek Inc.). One microgram of total RNA per
133 biological replicate was employed for the construction of 50 bp single-end (SE) reads using
134 NEBNext® Multiplex Small RNA Library Prep Set for Illumina™ (New England Biolabs, Inc.).
135 Lastly, 2.5 µg of CTAB extracted-DNA per biological replicate were first treated with sodium-
136 bisulfite using the Zymo EZ DNA Methylation-Lightning™ Kit (Zymo Research Corp.) and
137 then built into 150 bp PE read libraries with the TruSeq Nano DNA LT Sample Prep Kit
138 (Illumina Inc.). All libraries were sequenced using an Illumina NovaSeq 6000 platform
139 (Illumina Inc.). Read quality was evaluated with FastQC v.0.11.9 (Andrew S., 2010) and
140 multiqc v.1.9 (Ewels et al., 2016) for all sequencing types.

141 mRNA and sRNA alignments

142 mRNA libraries were first filtered by selecting reads with an exact 150 bp length, minimum
143 base quality phred value of 5, no unqualified bases and less than 15% N bases using fastp
144 v.0.23.1 *-q 5 -u 0 -n 15 -l 150* settings (Chen et al., 2018). Splice sites in the Express 617
145 reference (Lee et al., 2020) were identified by first converting its gene annotation file format
146 (Express617_v1_gene.gff3; MD5: cf26ec54823f348a0e23f027dc386a16) from a general
147 feature format v.3 (GFF3) to a general transfer format (GTF) using the
148 *agat_convert_sp_gff2gtf.pl* script from AGAT v.0.5.0 (Dainat J., 2019). The output was then
149 employed to find splice sites with the *hisat2_extract_splice_sites.py* script from HISAT2 (Kim
150 et al., 2019). An index from the same Express 617 reference was built with *hisat2-build*
151 function, and libraries were then aligned with HISAT2 using the *sensitive* preset and the *known-*
152 *splicesite-infile* setting with the *hisat2_extract_splice_sites.py* previously generated file as
153 input. Alignments were sorted and converted to a binary alignment map (BAM) format with
154 samtools (Li et al., 2009) *view* and *sort* functions. The number of fragments in genes were
155 counted with featureCounts 2.0.1 (Liao et al., 2014) using the AGAT GTF annotation file and
156 the following settings *-p -B -C -Q 50 -t "exon" -g "gene_id"*, so that only read pairs having a
157 minimum mapping quality of 50 and had both reads aligned to the same strand and chromosome
158 were counted. Genes without any counts in all genotypes were removed. Small RNA libraries
159 were first filtered by removing reads shorter than 18 bp with seqtk v.1.3 (Li H., 2016). Then
160 sRNA libraries were aligned against the Express 617 reference (Lee et al., 2020) using
161 ShortStack v.3.8.5 (Johnson et al., 2016). Only sRNA in which at least 80% of the primary
162 reads had a length between 20-24 nucleotides, with less than 5 unpaired bases in secondary
163 structure, and which were contained in predicted hairpin structures (i.e., only small RNAs
164 clusters with *Y*, *NI5*, *NI4* or *NI3* flags.) were considered as miRNA candidates. Small RNA
165 sequences in which in which 80% of the primary reads had an exact length of 24 nucleotides
166 and without miRNAs selection flags were regarded as putative siRNAs. Both miRNAs and
167 siRNAs clusters without any coverage in all biological samples were discarded prior differential
168 expression analysis.

169 Expression level dominance analysis

170 The gene and sRNA differential expression patterns between the hybrid and parents were
171 assessed by comparing tissues within genotype trios in the five following stages: leaves at the
172 six-true opened leaves stage from parents and F1 (BBCH16); 15 days after pollination ovules
173 from selfed parents and F1 (OS15-F1) or F0 (OS15-F0); and from 30 days after pollination
174 ovules from selfed parents and F1 (OS30-F1) or F0 (OS30-F0). Differentially expressed genes
175 (DEGs), differentially expressed miRNAs (DE-miRNAs) and differentially expressed siRNAs

176 (DE-siRNAs) between genotypes for each stage were identified using DESEQ2 (Love et al.,
177 2014) with a padj value threshold < 0.05 . The DESEQ2 built-in *estimateSizeFactors* and *counts*
178 functions were used to extract the normalized counts which were then used for expression level
179 dominance analyses. Briefly, student's t-test ($p < 0.05$) from normalized counts of DEGs and
180 DE-miRNAs identified in DESEQ2 were run between all genotypes for each comparison stage
181 and gene. Tukey tests ($p < 0.05$) were then carried to rank each genotype by expression level.
182 Finally, the resulting patterns were divided based on Yoo et al. (2013) as additive, dominant or
183 transgressive. Gene expression heatmaps were generated with idep93 (Ge et al., 2018) using
184 correlation distances and average linkages, and differentially expressed genes or sRNA shared
185 between all stages were detected using the *Venn Diagrams* tool (VIB-UGent, 2021). In addition,
186 the percentages of upregulated and downregulated DEGs from all genes per subgenome,
187 genotype and stage were calculated to evaluate subgenomic expression bias.

188 **Gene ontology enrichment**

189 Gene models in the Express 617 reference assembly (Lee et al., 2020) were functionally
190 annotated through synteny comparison against the Darmor v.4.1 (Chalhoub et al., 2014) with
191 inparanoid v.4.2 (O'Brien et al., 2005) using bootstrap, a BLOSUM80 (BLOcks SUBstitution
192 Matrix) and an initial cut-off score of 60. Inparalogs with a similarity score equal or greater
193 than 70 were selected for each gene. Pairs with only one homolog and with the highest similarity
194 score were kept. The homologs were used for gene ontology enrichment of biological processes
195 based on expression level dominance for each stage, as well in comparisons between the F1 and
196 F0 genotypes, using ShinyGo v.0.76 (Ge et al., 2020) with a 0.05 false discovery rate (FDR)
197 cutoff. Only biological functions with more than one gene per biological pathway and with at
198 least two GO groups were selected.

199 **DE-miRNA target prediction and mRNA interaction**

200 Differentially expressed miRNAs sequences were extracted and used to predict their
201 corresponding targets in Express 617 gene models using psRNATarget (Dai et al., 2018) with
202 the version 2 scoring schema (Axtell, 2013). Maximum unpaired energy (UPE) of 25 and a
203 flank length between 13 to 17 nucleotides in up/downstream region were set as target
204 accessibility cutoffs. All possible targets for DE-miRNAs were reported since each miRNA can
205 have multiple mRNA targets due to isomiRs formation. The DE-miRNAs were classified into
206 putative miRNA families by blasting their sequences with BLAST (Altschul et al., 1990)
207 against the mature miRNAs from the Brassicaceae family available at the miRBase sequence
208 database release version 22.1 (Griffiths-Jones et al., 2006). Only the top five matches with the
209 highest alignment scores and lowest expect values for each DE-miRNA were kept. Stem-loop
210 sequences from the Brassicaceae family were used as BLAST targets when no mature miRNAs
211 matches were found. Alternatively, if no Brassicaceae matches were found, then mature
212 miRNAs and stem-loop sequences from the Viridiplantae clade were employed. The expression
213 patterns from miRNA targets that were DEGs were compared with their associated targeting
214 DE-miRNA expression to evaluate possible interactions between miRNA and mRNA target.
215 The DEGs target functions were estimated by blasting their coding sequences against the
216 Araport v.11 *Arabidopsis thaliana* coding sequences model (Cheng et al., 2017) with BLAST.
217 Only the hit with the lowest expect value and not greater than 1.0×10^{-4} , lowest identity
218 percentage equal or above 90% and without any opened gaps were selected.

219 **Bisulfite sequencing alignment and methylation level dominance**

220 Reads with a minimum base quality phred value of 5, unqualified base percent limit of 50 and
221 less than 15% N bases were selected from WGBS libraries using fastp v.0.23.1 *-q 5 -u 50 -n 15*
222 settings (Chen et al., 2018). TrimGalore (Krueger et al., 2021) was then employed for trimming

223 8 basepairs from both 5' and 3' ends for each library as recommended for TruSeq libraries in
224 the Bismark documentation. The Express 617 reference genome (Lee et al., 2020) was bisulfite
225 converted and indexed with Bismark v.0.23 (Krueger and Andrews, 2011)
226 *bismark_genome_preparation* tool. Filtered reads were aligned to the bisulfite converted
227 genome using *bismark* under default settings. Duplicates were afterwards removed with
228 *deduplicate_bismark* and methylated cytosines (mC's) were extracted using
229 *bismark_methylation_extractor* while ignoring the first 2 basepairs from both 5' and 3' ends for
230 both reads of a pair. Methylated C's in either the CpG, CHG or CHH methylation context were
231 selected and converted to a browser extensible data (BED) format with *bismark2bedGraph*
232 using the *--cutoff 3 --CX* and *--scaffolds* settings to select all nucleotides in which the
233 methylation state was reported at least thrice.

234 The coverage for each mC's in every methylation context was calculated with the
235 *coverage2cytosine* from the Bismark package. The coverage of mC's in assigned chromosomes
236 was then used as input for DMRCaller v. 1.22.0 (Catoni et al., 2018) to detect differentially
237 methylated regions (DMRs). Each genotype within a trio was compared to each other using the
238 *computeDMRs* function in 1000 bp bins with the *bins* method and the following settings: score
239 test, a 0.01 p value threshold, and minimum cytosine count, methylation proportion difference
240 and gap between bins of 4, 0.4 and 0 accordingly. The DMRs methylation levels (i.e. the
241 number of reads supporting methylation) were extracted from DMR output files and student's
242 t-test ($p < 0.05$) were run between all genotypes for each stage and DMR. Tukey tests ($p < 0.05$)
243 were then used to rank the methylation within DMRs between genotypes and classified them
244 by methylation level dominance following the same categorization employed for ELD by Yoo
245 et al. (2013). Shared and unique DMR across all stages were found with the *Venn Diagrams*
246 tools (VIB-UGent, 2021).

247 **Cytosine methylation statistics and identification of methylated features**

248 The number of methylated cytosines and the cytosine methylation level per 1 kbp bin (i.e.
249 numbers of reads supporting cytosine methylation per bin) in each methylation context,
250 genotype and stage were determined based on Bismark's *coverage2cytosine* generated files
251 using bedtools *makewindows* and *intersect* functions (Quinlan and Hall, 2010). In addition,
252 DMRs were intersected with exons, introns, repeats and 1 kbp upstream promoter regions from
253 Express 617 using bedtools *intersect* function. GO enrichment was carried for differentially
254 expressed genes having DMRs for all stages and genotypes. If no enrichment was detected,
255 then the most frequent biological functions found in Ensembl Biomart (Cunningham et al.,
256 2022) *B. napus* reference (Chalhoub et al., 2014) were reported. Detected differentially
257 expressed genes having an additive or dominant expression level dominance pattern which loci
258 coincided with correspondingly additively or dominantly methylated DMRs were defined as
259 putative genetic epialleles.

260 Heatmaps comparing the gene methylation and expression in transgressive DEGs were made
261 with Heatmapper (Babicki et al., 2016) using Euclidean distances and average linkages to
262 analyze the interaction between expression and methylation. Moreover, repeats in the Express
263 617 assembly were assigned to repeat families using RepeatModeler (Smit, A. F. A. and
264 Hubley, R., 2008) and CpG islands were identified with *cpgplot* from the EMBOSS v.6.6.0
265 package (Rice et al., 2000). CpG islands were called if the GC% was equal or greater than 50%,
266 length greater than 200 bp and a minimum 0.6 observed to expected CpG dinucleotides ratio as
267 described by Gardiner-Garden and Frommer (1987). Additionally, plots showing DEGs and
268 methylation levels for each chromosome and stage, centromere loci and repeat density were
269 made using the *circlize* package (Gu et al., 2014). Repeat density for each 1 kbp bin within each
270 chromosome was calculated using bedtools while predicted Express 617 centromere loci were
271 added based on Orantes-Bonilla et al. (2022).

272 Lastly, DMRs were intersected with DE-siRNAs, CpG islands and transposable elements (TEs)
273 in 5 kbp upstream and downstream gene and DEG flanking regions in assigned chromosomes
274 using bedtools to evaluate putative interactions between differentially methylated features and
275 gene expression during seed development. The threshold was selected based on previous work
276 on transposable elements and genomic imprinting in *B.napus* by Rong et al. (2021) and the fact
277 that the average distance between genes in assigned chromosomes of the Express 617 reference
278 is approximately 7.5 kbp. Chi-square tests followed with an FDR post-hoc adjustment ($p <$
279 0.05) were carried to find significant associations between differentially methylated and non-
280 methylated features and distance to genes or DEGs across all stages.

281 Segmental expression assessment

282 Clustering of DEGs across chromosomal segments observed on *circIize* generated plots were
283 further investigated. In order to assess the presence of expression clusters, segments that had
284 more than 20 DEGs over a 500 kbp window were considered as putative differentially expressed
285 segments. The threshold was selected on the basis that the Express 617 assembly has an average
286 of 200 genes per 500 kbp and hence 20 genes would correspond to 10% of genes in the segment.
287 The ratio of upregulated to downregulated DEGs per genotype and stage in each segment was
288 calculated and normalized to Z-scores. Only segments showing clear differential patterns
289 between genotypes based on Z-score heatmap clustering were kept. Such segments could either
290 be a result of parental expression bias or due to commonly observed genomic rearrangements
291 in allopolyploid *B. napus*. To investigate both possibilities, available short read genomic data
292 from a G3D001 biological replicate was used for calling Copy Number Variation (CNV) and
293 investigating putative linkages between structural rearrangements and expression patterns. For
294 this purpose, genomic DNA from a G3D001 ovule biological replicate taken 30 days after
295 pollination was extracted using a CTAB protocol (Doyle and Doyle, 1987). Paired-end libraries
296 were built with KAPA HyperPlus Kit (KAPA Biosystems) and sequenced with an Illumina
297 NovaSeq 6000 platform (Illumina Inc.). Reads quality was evaluated with FastQC v.0.11.9 and
298 libraries were afterwards aligned with minimap2 (Li, 2018) against the Express 617 genomic
299 reference (Lee et al., 2020). Alignments with both forward and reverse reads properly mapped
300 (flags 99,163,147 and 83) were selected with samtools *view* and used to calculate coverage
301 across chromosomes using the *bamtobed* and *genomecov* functions from bedtools. The
302 coverage was used as input in a modified deletion-duplication pipeline previously described
303 (Stein et al., 2017) with the exception that outliers were removed if the depth was above 100
304 and that deletions and duplications were defined as 25 kbp length segments that are one standard
305 deviation above or below the mean coverage. Deletion and duplication were saved in tab-
306 separated files and intersected with differentially expressed segments using bedtools *intersect*
307 function.

308

309 Results

310

311 Increased maternal dominant expression and methylation during seed development

312 Expression and methylation patterns from Express 617, G3D001 and their F1 were compared
313 during seed and seedling developmental stages. The parents were crossed during the experiment
314 to evaluate developmental differences between selfed-F1 plants and Express 617 x G3D001
315 pollinated ovules that will develop into F1 plants, which from here onwards are referred as F0
316 as displayed in Fig. 1. Next generation sequencing yielded abundant coverage for each

317 biological replicate as reported in Tables S1-S3. Approximately 6.8 Gbp of mRNA sequences
318 per biological replicate were aligned against the Express 617 assembly (Lee et al., 2020) using
319 HISAT2 v. 2.2.1 splice site aware aligner (Kim et al., 2019) consequently producing mean
320 alignment rates of 98.2% (Table S1). In addition, an average of 31 million sRNA reads per
321 biological replicate were used to find putative miRNA and siRNA sequences with ShortStack
322 v.3.8.5 (Johnson et al., 2016). Overall, each sRNA cluster had an average coverage depth of
323 186 (Table S2). Moreover, whole-genome bisulfite treated reads having a 31x genome coverage
324 per biological replicate were aligned and processed with Bismark v.0.23 (Krueger and
325 Andrews, 2011) as reported on Table S3.

326 All alignments were then employed to find features that were differentially expressed or
327 differentially methylated between genotypes across all stages. In summary, a total of 71217
328 DEGs, 773 DE-miRNAs, 79518 DE-siRNAs and 31825 DMRs in both CpG and CHG
329 methylation contexts were identified across all possible parents and hybrid comparisons per
330 stage (Tables S4-S8) which were overall evenly distributed across all chromosomes (Tables
331 S9-S13). Differential features were further classified by their expression level dominance and
332 methylation level dominance (MLD) as specified in Materials and Methods and reported in
333 Figure 2. More than 90% of the differentially expressed and methylated features belong to the
334 parental dominant and additivity models. Moreover, maternal dominance accounted for
335 approximately 89%, 85%, 83% and 60% from all detected DEGs, DE-miRNAs, DE-siRNAs
336 and DMRs in the F0 respectively, whereas in the F1-selfed offspring the paternal dominance
337 was more prevalent (Table S14). Furthermore, most maternal dominant DMRs in the F0 were
338 hypermethylated, whereas DEGs were downregulated which is contrasting to the expected
339 female gamete demethylation observed in seed formation in other plants (Batista and Köhler,
340 2020).

341 Transgressive upregulated features, in which the hybrid has a higher expression than the
342 parents, were more frequent in seeds from selfed-F1 plants compared to those from the recently
343 formed F0. Maternal dominance from Express 617 accounts for most of the DEG and DE-
344 siRNAs patterns observed, hence indicating the maternal relevance in seed development.
345 Interestingly no gene expression bias was found between the A and C subgenomes (Table S15,
346 Figure S1-S5); nevertheless, more upregulation was observed in the paternal line while the
347 maternal one displayed more downregulation during seed development. This contrasts with the
348 expected gene silencing in the maternal genome that can be attributed to maternal
349 demethylation during seed formation. Moreover, a slightly higher number of differentially
350 expressed features following maternal expression patterns were found in the F0 than in the
351 selfed-F1; however, this might be due to the allele segregation in the selfed-F1 plants that would
352 lead to the maternal parent being heterozygote and putatively reducing the number of features
353 with maternal dominant expression.

354 The number of detected DEGs, DE-miRNAs, DE-siRNAs and DMRs in CpG and CHG
355 contexts shared between all stages were 1565, 12, 1111, 896 and 650 accordingly (Tables S16).
356 Altogether, differential features shared across all stages and genotypes corresponded to 3%
357 from all found features, whereas features unique to each stage compromised approximately 2%
358 (Table S16). Moreover, differential features that had the same dominance level patterns across
359 sampling stages are presented in Fig. 3. Interestingly, features that had more constant
360 dominance patterns in a higher number of stages were in the maternal dominance group. These
361 features were mostly shared between early and late pollinated ovule stages in the F1 and F0
362 (Table S17-S20), indicating the relevance of the maternal genotype during seed formation for
363 both genotypes.

364

365 **DEGs and miRNAs regulate seed development**

366 Gene ontology (GO) enrichment for biological processes was carried for all stages based on
367 their expression level dominance. Significant enrichment for pivotal biological functions such
368 as amino acid and carbohydrate synthesis, photosynthesis, protein transport and DNA repair
369 and replication were found in 15 and 30 days after pollination ovules (Table S21). No
370 significant enrichment was identified in leaves during the seedling stage. Interestingly, only
371 transgressively upregulated genes in F1 ovules after 15 days of pollination displayed terms
372 associated with reproduction and meiosis as shown in Figure 4, Table S22 and Figures S6-S10.
373 Differential gene expression and gene ontology between the F1 and F0 15 days after pollination
374 showed that the F1 engages more in photosynthesis-related functions, whereas the F0 has an
375 increased accumulation of energy reserve compounds and cell mobilization (Table S21).

376 Additionally, 51 putative mRNA targets from all DE-miRNAs were detected across all stages
377 (Table S23). Interactions between DE-miRNAs and their mRNA targets were analyzed for
378 targets which were DEGs as reported in Table 1 and Table S24. Most DE-miRNAs associated
379 with DEG targets had downregulated expression in the parents and F1 (ELD IX) and were more
380 abundant during the late seed developmental stage. Expression from ortholog copies from
381 *PHABULOSA*, *REVOLUTA* and *TOE2* (*TARGET OF EARLY ACTIVATION TAGGED 2*),
382 which are involved in plant growth and development, was not increased despite the miRNAs
383 targeting them being lowly expressed. Likewise, positive proportional expression interactions
384 were observed in the *EMB2204* gene copy (Figure 5), whereas an inversely proportional relation
385 between the miRNA and mRNA target was found for the *EMB2016* ortholog copy. Both copies
386 are linked to embryo development yet are differently regulated, hence further research is
387 required to elucidate their role in seed formation. *PHABULOSA*, and possibly *PHAVOLUTA*,
388 are positive regulators of the (*LEAFY COTYLEDON 2*) gene which is a regulator of seed
389 maturation (Tang et al., 2012). A BLAST search from the *A. thaliana* Araport 11 assembly
390 (Cheng et al., 2017) *LEC2* coding sequence (*ATIG28300.1*) revealed a single hit that passed
391 the filtering criteria specified for miRNA targets in Materials and Methods. The ortholog
392 corresponded to the *C05p022870.1_BnaEXP* gene model in the Express 617 assembly (Lee et
393 al., 2020) and it was found to be differentially expressed likewise in late seed development
394 (Table S17 and S24) which highlights the putative broader and indirect impact from miRNAs
395 through gene network interactions.

396 **Methylated features in early seed formation**

397 Methylation levels were higher in the CpG contexts with an average of 80% in all stages and
398 genotypes as illustrated in Fig. 6, while CHH context showed the lowest methylation levels
399 ranging from 20% to 27% despite having the highest number of methylated cytosines (Table
400 S25, Fig S11-S14). No methylation bias per chromosome was observed (Table S25).
401 Approximately 12%, 14% and 10% of DMRs were in promoters, exons and introns
402 respectively, whereas a high percentage of DMRs (43%) were inside repeat motifs (Table S26).
403 Repetitive sequences account for 37.5% of the Express 617 genome (Lee et al. 2020), and
404 although 66% of repeats were methylated with an average 41% methylation level, less than 1%
405 were differentially methylated (Table S27). Most differentially methylated transposable
406 element (TE) families and superfamilies coincided with those that are more present in the
407 Express 617 reference such as LTR (long terminal repeat) Copia and Gypsy families and
408 approximately 70% of them were in 5 kbp gene flanking regions (Table S28-S29). Chi-square
409 tests followed by FDR adjusted post-hoc testing at $p > 0.05$ showed that there is a significant
410 association between the analyzed genomic features and distance to genes and DEGs (Table
411 S30). The analyzed features included DMRs as well as differentially methylated and non-
412 methylated DE-siRNAs and TEs. Interestingly, around 70% of features were in 5 kbp gene
413 flanking regions; nevertheless, only 20% of them were found in 5kbp DEGs flanking regions

414 (Table S30). This finding, along with only 1% of all genes being differentially methylated
415 (Table S31), points out to a putative conservative gene regulation across genotypes.

416 Moreover, 392 genes that were both differentially expressed and differentially methylated were
417 regarded as putative epialleles and are listed on Table S32. Although no gene ontology
418 enrichment was found on putative epialleles, they covered diverse biological functions such as
419 DNA transcription, carbohydrate and lipids metabolic processes and photosynthesis (Table
420 S33). Interestingly, both the gene body and its promoter were methylated in most putative
421 genetic epialleles (Table S34). Most DMRs were less than 5 kbp away from a gene, hence
422 revealing a potential regulatory role (Fig.6 and Fig. S11-S14). Both proportional and inversely
423 proportional relationships were detected between gene methylation and gene expression in most
424 stage comparisons (Fig. S15-S17), nevertheless, more proportional interactions in which
425 hypomethylated genes were generally upregulated were observed during early seed
426 development in the hybrid as shown in Figure 7.

427 In addition, 112635 CpG islands were detected in all assigned chromosomes in the Express 617
428 reference (Lee et al., 2020) with a 363 bp average length and varying concentrations in
429 centromeric regions (Table S35). While 86% from all found CpG islands were methylated and
430 had an average 62% methylation level, only 1.35% from them were differentially methylated
431 (Table S36) hence displaying a putative conservatory role.

432 **Segmental and subgenome expression bias in hybrids**

433 Differential gene expression in genomic segments was preliminary observed through circos
434 plots displaying expression patterns for each chromosome, genotype and stage. The presence
435 of putative expression clusters was assessed more precisely through a 500 kbp genome-wide
436 binning approach were consistent DEGs patterns per segment, chromosome, genotype and stage
437 were grouped as described in Materials and Method. Consequently, a 144 differentially
438 expressed segments across genotypes and stages were determined (Table S37). More
439 differentially expressed segments were found in the A subgenome and most segments found in
440 F0 comparisons followed the same expression patterns from the maternal parent Express 617
441 as shown in Table S37 and in the example on chrA03 in Fig. 7. Available genomics reads from
442 G3D001 pollinated ovules were employed to discard that the observed patterns were due to
443 genomic rearrangements (Table S38). Large scale deletions were found only in chromosome
444 C01 in G3D001 which accounts for the low expression found on the deleted segments in that
445 chromosome locus (Fig. S19-S20, Table S37). However, no large-scale rearrangements were
446 found in chromosome A03 in G3D001 (Fig. S21) as to explain the observed low expression as
447 part of a large deletion effect in both early (15 days) and late (30 days) seed development stages
448 (Fig. 8 and Fig. S22). Moreover, no duplication seems to be present in Express 617 as to account
449 for its high expression, since neither the F1 nor the F0 showed a high expression pattern that
450 could have been inherited from a large-scale duplication from the Express 617 genotype
451 (Fig.S23-24). No specific relations were found in terms of methylation level, repeat density or
452 relative position to centromere. This altogether leads us to hypothesize that such segment
453 follows the maternal expression patterns more than other chromosomal loci. The mechanisms
454 of such phenomenon could be associated to parental roles during embryo development,
455 genomic imprinting or chromatin activity and/or genome accessibility for transcription;
456 however, it requires further research to be elucidated.

457

458

459

460 Discussion

461 In the present study, features with differential expression and methylation patterns in hybrids
462 were detected during seed development and seedling stages. Most DEGs in the hybrids showed
463 maternal and paternal dominances regardless of the tissue and stage (Table 1). Similar parental
464 gene expression dominance has been reported in oilseed rape and cotton (Yoo et al., 2013; Wu
465 et al., 2018; Wei et al., 2021). Furthermore, Li et al. (2020) demonstrated that EDL can vary
466 based on the sampled tissue, where stems and leaves showed more additive gene expression in
467 *B. napus* when compared to the expression from its phylogenetic ancestors *B.rapa* and
468 *B.oleracea*. Gene expression additivity was also reported by L. Zhang et al. (2021) as a main
469 expression dominance level pattern factor in excised pod sections in crosses from *Raphanus*
470 *sativus* (RR, 2n =18) and *B. oleracea*, whereas the rest of seed and pod dissected regions
471 displayed more paternal dominances. The diversity of sampled tissues, species and genotypes
472 in the previous studies and ours could account for the contrasting EDL observed. Differential
473 gene expression was also observed in large segments; and was not necessarily related to
474 genomic rearrangements (Table S37, Fig. 8). Chromatin rearrangement and transcription
475 accessibility could be one reason explaining the large-scale differentially expressed segments
476 observed. Unfortunately, not enough tissue material was available in all stages to discard
477 expression bias because of genomic rearrangements since all sequencing types were carried
478 from the same tissue. One recent alternative to overcome this issues is proposed through new
479 structural variant callers that work directly on RNA-Seq data to call copy number variation
480 (CNVs) without the need of genomic data (Serin Harmanci et al., 2020).

481 Additionally, pollinated ovules that would become F1 plants, F0 genotype, showed a higher
482 similarity to the maternal genotype Express 617 in terms of gene expression, small RNA
483 expression and methylation which might be due to the triploid nature of the endosperm having
484 two maternal copies and one paternal copy through double-fertilization as discussed in Jahnke
485 et al. (2010). Seeds are composed by a seed coat, an embryo and an endosperm, with the latter
486 generally accounting for the largest volume in the seed. Although the separation from all seed
487 components was out of the scope in our study; recent transcriptomic profiling of the
488 aforementioned tissues through laser microdissection has been employed to characterize the
489 transcriptomic profiles during seed formation in *A.thaliana* and *B.napus* (Kirkbride et al., 2019;
490 Ziegler et al., 2019; Khan et al., 2022).

491 Subgenomic expression bias has been reported earlier in Brassica species (Bird et al., 2018;
492 Bird et al., 2021a; Q. Zhang et al., 2021); therefore, expression bias of differentially expressed
493 up- and downregulated genes was investigated in each genotype and stage per subgenome.
494 Despite no subgenome bias in gene expression being detected, more genes were differentially
495 upregulated in G3D001 than in Express 617 (Table S15, Figures S1-S5). The observed
496 genotype-specific bias can be a result of the following genomic, transcriptomic and epigenomic
497 factors. Firstly, genomic rearrangements such as structural variations and gene copy number
498 variations are known to affect various traits in polyploid plants (Schiessl et al., 2017; Vollrath
499 et al., 2021; Makhoul et al., 2022) and could have led to potential biases in expression patterns.
500 Transcriptomic aspects such as gene isoforms, gene network interactions and allele expression
501 bias might also be involved in favoring the up or down regulation from a certain genotype or
502 haplotype (Fan et al., 2020; Schiessl et al., 2020; Golicz et al., 2021). Lastly, epigenomic factors
503 like parental gamete methylation mechanisms, genomic imprinting as well as difference
504 between the parents *cis-trans* regulating factors, miRNA isoforms (isomiRs) and TE families
505 and densities could all result into potential genotype or haplotype biased expression (Jain et al.,
506 2018; Go and Civetta, 2020; Gill et al., 2021).

507 Approximately 12-18% of features shared in at least 2-3 stages followed maternal dominant
508 patterns as shown in Fig. 3, hence, highlighting the relevance of maternal genotype in

509 transcriptomic and epigenomic scenarios. Furthermore, less than 3% from all expression and
510 methylation features had the same expression and methylation patterns across all stages (Table
511 S16), indicating that the role of those features might be more essential throughout seed and
512 early seedling development. Complete lists of all features are provided in Table S17-S20 to
513 allow further feature assessment in the context of seed development in hybrids. In addition,
514 gene ontology enrichment showed enrichment for key biological functions involved in growth
515 and development (Fig. 4, Table S21). Furthermore, DEGs involved in reproduction and meiotic
516 functions were detected as having a transgressive upregulated expression in 15 days after
517 pollination ovules in seeds from selfed-F1 plants. The list of all DEGs with GO enrichment
518 have a potential for seed development in hybrids and are available on Supplementary Tables
519 S21-S22.

520 Differentially expressed miRNAs analysis in early and late seed development showed miRNA
521 families normally involved in plant growth and development (Plotnikova et al., 2019; Dong et
522 al., 2022; Verma et al., 2022). miR172 regulates not only the flowering time pathway, but also
523 embryo development through controlling of *AP2* (*APETALA 2*) and *AP2-like* genes such as
524 *TOE2* as reported in previous studies (Boutillier et al., 2002; Shivaraj et al., 2018; Nowak et al.,
525 2022). miR165/166 families control leaf adaxial/abaxial development and embryogenesis by
526 targeting the class III homeodomain leucine zipper (HD-ZIP III) transcription factor gene
527 family which includes the *REVOLUTA*, *PHAVOLUTA* and *PHABULOSA* genes as discussed
528 in Wang et al. (2007) and Tang et al. (2012). Both *PHABULOSA* and *PHAVOLUTA* have been
529 described to indirectly regulate *LEC2*, a gene that promotes embryo formation in Arabidopsis
530 and seed size and seed lipid biosynthesis in *B. napus* (Braybrook et al., 2006; Tang et al., 2012;
531 Wójcik et al., 2017; Miller et al., 2019). miR169 targets *CBF* (*C-REPEAT BINDING*
532 *FACTORS*) and *NF-YA* (*NUCLEAR FACTOR YA*) genes as described in Dong et al. (2022);
533 however, in our study, miR160 targeted an *EMB2016* (*EMBRYO DEFECTIVE 2016*) gene copy
534 during late seed development. *EMB2016* is a member of the EMB family which are critical for
535 embryo development (Tzafrir et al., 2004; Růžička et al., 2017; Meinke, 2020). *EMB2204*
536 (*EMBRYO DEFECTIVE 2204*), is another EMB family member, which was targeted by
537 miR3629 in the present study. miR3629 was first reported in *Vitis vinifera* cv. Pinot Noir by
538 Pantaleo et al. (2010) and has been reported in *Camellia azalea*, in chilling response in *Prunus*
539 *persica* as well as in disease susceptibility in *V. vinifera* cv. Bosco and *V. vinifera* cv.
540 Chardonnay (Barakat et al., 2012; Pantaleo et al., 2016; Yin et al., 2016; Snyman et al., 2017).
541 miR9410 has been detected in *B. oleracea* and *B. rapa* (Lukasik et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2018),
542 yet no clear function information for miR9410 exists for Brassica species. In our study, miR9410
543 targeted a *filamentation temperature sensitive protein H 1* (*FtsH7*) gene copy encoding a
544 protease that in turns degrades D1 protein in photosystem II. *FtsH* genes have been reported in
545 tomato, sorghum, Arabidopsis and *B.napus* (Xu et al., 2021; Yi et al., 2022).

546 Differential expression from targets of the aforementioned miRNA families was observed in
547 our studies during seed development, and further target validation through degradome
548 sequencing (German et al., 2008), precise isomiRs classification (Morin et al., 2008; Sablok et
549 al., 2015; Yang et al., 2019), target knock-out experiments (Jain et al., 2018; Wei et al., 2018;
550 Li et al., 2021) as well as gene co-expression networks (Schiessl et al., 2020) can prove
551 beneficial for identifying their role in seed and embryo formation in *B.napus*. A list of
552 differential miRNA sequences and their putative targets are found in Tables S23-S24 for further
553 validation.

554 The number of methylated cytosines in the CHH context was overall higher in all genotypes
555 compared to other contexts; nonetheless, while methylation levels were higher in CpG and CHG
556 contexts as also observed in multiple plants species (Niederhuth et al., 2016; Bartels et al.,
557 2018). Methylation is generally associated with gene downregulation through transcription

558 inhibition as shown in Fig.7. Nevertheless, hypermethylation and hypomethylation were also
559 linked with up- and downregulation respectively (Fig. S15-S17). Proportional gene
560 hypermethylation and gene upregulation was observed in mice and human cells (Arechederra
561 et al., 2018; Rauluseviciute et al., 2020); however, no mechanisms explaining gene activation
562 through hypermethylation are fully known so far; hence, further research in this topic would
563 elucidate the interactions between methylation and gene regulation.

564 Moreover, methylation was evaluated during seed development in our study since parental
565 asymmetric methylation and genomic imprinting occurs mostly at that stage in flowering plants
566 (Batista and Köhler, 2020). DNA hypomethylation of the female gamete and paternal gamete
567 hypermethylation has been reported in most flowering plants like Arabidopsis, rice and maize
568 endosperm (Gehring et al., 2009; Zemach et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2014). Contrastingly, we
569 observed more maternal hypermethylation and paternal hypomethylation in the F0. Similar
570 parental methylation trends were also observed in the F1 despite allele segregation. Such
571 patterns were also reported by Liu et al. (2018) in *B.napus* and by Grover et al. (2020) in
572 *B.rapa*. One possible explanation for this was proposed by the latter authors, where siRNAs in
573 endosperm (siren siRNAs) were highly expressed in the seed coat and could trigger a maternal
574 DNA methylation control in seed development through the movement of maternally expressed
575 siRNAs from the seed coat or maternal-specific expression in the endosperm.

576 The molecular mechanisms and effects of genomic imprinting, where an allele follows a
577 parental expression pattern due to inherited epigenomic modifications, is restricted mostly to
578 the endosperm rather to the embryo in flowering plants, and has been extensively discussed in
579 Weigel and Colot (2012), and Batista and Köhler (2020). The role of imprinted genes has been
580 linked to chromatin modification, hormone biosynthesis, nutrient transfer, endosperm
581 proliferation and seed size regulation as reviewed by Jiang and Köhler (2012) and Batista and
582 Köhler (2020). Furthermore, Rong et al. (2021) reported the enrichment of transposable
583 elements in imprinted genes in *B. napus* located in 5 kbp flanking regions. Cao et al. (2022)
584 analyzed imprinted genes in six backcrossing generations of maize as well as in three selfing
585 generations derived from the 6th backcross. It was proposed that the divergence between TEs
586 derived from 24-nt siRNAs in the parental maize genomes might have led to transgenerational
587 inheritance of imprinted genes. Putative imprinted genes were found in the seedling and seed
588 development stages in our study (Table S32) for future confirmation through genomic
589 sequencing and phenotypic data.

590 Most frequently differentially methylated transposable elements corresponded to those more
591 abundant in the Express 617 reference (Lee et al., 2020) like the Copia and Gypsy families.
592 Transposable elements are considered not only as key factors in speciation and subgenome
593 expression patterns (Bird et al., 2018; Bottani et al., 2018; Bird et al., 2021b) but also as
594 genomic features with high variability across plant species (Novák et al., 2020; Mhiri et al.,
595 2022). In addition, comparison of transposable element densities and compositions between
596 Express 617 and G3D001 through genome assembly of the latter would provide more insights
597 into how TEs diverge during seed development and between cultivars.

598 siRNAs are known to mediate silencing of transposable elements via the RNA-directed DNA
599 methylation (RdDM) pathway. At the same time, TEs are a source of sRNAs, including
600 siRNAs, that could potentially silence TEs through a post-transcriptional gene silencing
601 (PTGS) process as discussed in Matzke and Mosher (2014) and Gill et al. (2021). Similarly to
602 Rong et al. (2021) most differentially methylated TEs were found in 5 kbp gene flanking
603 regions, as expected since 78% of TEs are in such loci in the employed Express 617 reference
604 (Lee et al., 2020). Our results also outline that most TEs, DMRs and DE-siRNAs converged in

605 5 kbp gene flanking regions rather than in 5 kbp DEG flanking regions (Tables S30); thus,
606 highlighting a putative conservation of most genetic functions by reducing the number of
607 DMRs, DE-siRNAs and differentially methylated TEs in the proximity of DEGs. Additionally,
608 most CpG islands were not differentially methylated between genotypes hence indicating a
609 potential epigenomic and transcriptomic conservative role (Table S35). CpG islands are known
610 to have diverse functions in plants (Ashikawa, 2001) and have also been analyzed in recent
611 studies with Brassica species (Perumal et al., 2020; Park et al., 2021).

612 Expression and methylation dominance levels are a fast way of interpreting -omics data, and
613 to our knowledge, the present study is the first one to analyze expression and methylation
614 dominance level patterns in hybrids derived from two *Brassica napus* parents. Recent advances
615 in allele specific expression (Fan et al., 2020; Sands et al., 2021), isoform expression (Vitting-
616 Seerup and Sandelin, 2019; Yao et al., 2020; Golicz et al., 2021), gene fusion and dosage
617 (Mahmoud et al., 2019; Serin Harmanaci et al., 2020; Bird et al., 2021b) as well as non-germline
618 -omics variations among F1 plants and populations (Higgins et al., 2018; Cortijo et al., 2019;
619 Orantes-Bonilla et al., 2022; Quezada-Martinez et al., 2022) would prove useful in improving
620 the resolution of ELD and MLD analyses. Furthermore, multi-omics features have been
621 employed in genomic selection in plants; hence, defining the role from each -omic feature per
622 stage could be used to enhance expression and phenotype prediction modelling in *B.napus*
623 (Seifert et al., 2018; Zrimec et al., 2020; Cheng et al., 2021; H. Hu et al., 2021; Knoch et al.,
624 2021). Altogether our findings highlight the transcriptomics and epigenomic differences
625 between early developmental stages in F1 and F0, and a similarity of the latter to Express 617
626 in terms of methylation level as well as in gene and small RNA expression. Differentially
627 expressed and methylated features detected during seed development were identified and are
628 provided in the present study for further research. Future developments in sequencing and
629 bioinformatics will aid in elucidating the role and interactions of each transcriptomic and
630 epigenomic feature at a higher resolution.

631

632 **Data availability and statement**

633

634 mRNA, sRNA and WGBS libraries and fragment count datasets generated in this study are
635 found in the GEO data repository under accession GSE202610. G3D001 genomic reads from
636 self-pollinated ovules are found in NCBI Bioproject PRJNA850551.

637 **Author contributions**

638

639 RS and JZ conceived and supervised the study. MOB drafted the manuscript and designed the
640 bioinformatic analyses. HW conducted bioinformatic studies, generated crosses, extracted and
641 sampled pollinated ovules for sequencing and contributed to data analysis. DH carried and
642 supervised the field experiment. WL contributed to experimental trials and HTL carried genome
643 syntheny analyses and contributed to whole-genome bisulfite and mRNA analyses. AAG
644 contributed in transcriptomic and epigenomic features analyses. All authors read and approved
645 the manuscript.

646

647

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649

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653 **Conflict of interest**

654

655 The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or
656 financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

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658

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662 was created with BioRender.com.

663 **Supplementary Information**

664

665 Supplementary Figures 1–24

666 Supplementary Tables 1–38

667

668 **Figure legends**

669

670 **Figure 1. Transcriptomic and epigenomic experimental design.** Leaves samples were
671 taken at the six-leaves stages (BBCH16). Express 617, G3D001 and their respective F1 were
672 selfed. Likewise, the parents were crossed during the experiment to develop pollinated ovules
673 (F0). Pollinated ovules were sampled and sequenced 15 (OS15) and 30 (OS30) days after
674 pollination.

675

676 **Figure 2. Percentages of differentially expressed genes (DEGs), differentially expressed**
677 **miRNAs (DE-miRNAs) differentially expressed siRNAs (DE-siRNAs), and differentially**
678 **methylated regions (DMRs) in CpG and CHG methylation contexts by expression level**
679 **dominance (ELD) and methylation level dominance (MLD) patterns per stage.** Increase
680 and decrease in expression and methylation per pattern are displayed in dot-ended lines where
681 the dot and E, G and F abbreviations represent the Express 617, G3D001 and F1/F0 genotypes
682 respectively. Percentages are displayed with colored backgrounds to represent high (red) or low
683 (blue) abundance.

684

685 **Figure 3. Percentage of shared differential features between stages based on dominance**
686 **level patterns displaying differential expressed genes (DEGs), differentially expressed**
687 **miRNAs (DE-miRNAs), differentially expressed siRNAs (DE-siRNAs) and differentially**
688 **methylated regions (DMRs) in CpG and CHG contexts.**

689

690 **Figure 4. Gene expression heatmap (a) and gene ontology (GO) enrichment of biological**
691 **processes (b) from 15 days after pollination ovules with transgressive upregulation**
692 **patterns in the F1.**

693

694 **Figure 5. Selected normalized expression from differential expressed miRNA (DE-**
695 **miRNA) and their differential expressed target gene (DEG) in 30 days after pollination**
696 **ovules in the F1 and parental genotypes. a, Inversely proportional miRNA-mRNA target**
697 **expression. b, Proportional miRNA-mRNA target expression.**

698

699 **Figure 6. Methylation patterns in 15 days after pollination ovules from F0 and parents. a,**
700 **Methylation level per genotype and DNA methylation context. b, Count of methylated**
701 **cytosines in million (M) scale per genotype and DNA methylation context. c, Distribution of**
702 **differentially methylated regions (DMRs) across introns, exons, repeats and promoters (1 kbp**
703 **upstream from gene start). d, Distribution of methylated differential expressed genes (DEGs)**
704 **and their promoters. e, Kernel density estimation (KED)-based distribution of DMRs distance**
705 **to closest gene. A dotted line is used to delimit DMRs located 5 kbp from a gene.**

706

707 **Figure 7. Gene expression and gene methylation in CpG and CHG contexts from 15 days**
708 **after pollination ovules displaying transgressive patterns in the F0 and its parents. Genes**
709 **are sorted in the same order in both heatmaps.**

710 **Figure 8. Differentially expressed genes (DEGs) and methylation levels from 15 days after**
711 **pollination ovules from F0 and parents in chromosome A03.** Outer to inner tracks
712 correspond to: **a**, predicted centromere loci in black; **b**, repeat density per 1 kbp bin; **c-e**,
713 Express 617, F0 and G3D001 DEGs regulation; **f-h**, Express 617, F0 and G3D001 methylation
714 levels per 1 kbp bin. Differential expression segment starting at approximately 11 Mbp to 18.8
715 Mbp is highlighted in orange

716

717 **Table 1. Predicted mRNA target from differentially expressed miRNAs (DE-miRNAs) in 15 and 30 days after pollination ovules in F1 and**
 718 **parents by expression level dominance (ELD).**

719

Stage	Predicted DE miRNA family	DE miRNA-ELD	miRNA-Target	miRNA-target-ELD	<i>A. thaliana</i> homolog ID	<i>A. thaliana</i> homolog name
OS15-F1	miRNA 165/166 A	IX	C04p041520.1_BnaEXP	IX	AT2G34710	PHABULOSA
	miRNA 165/166 B					
	miRNA 165/166 C					
OS30-F1	miRNA 3629 A	VIII	A02p005120.1_BnaEXP	VIII	AT1G22090	EMB2204
	miRNA 166 A	IX	C04p041520.1_BnaEXP	IX	AT2G34710	PHABULOSA
	miRNA 165/166 B					
	miRNA 166 B					
	miRNA 166 C					
	miRNA 166 A	IX	C05p024820.1_BnaEXP	XII	AT1G30490	PHAVOLUTA
	miRNA 165/166 B					
	miRNA 166 B					
miRNA 166 C	IX	A06p017700.1_BnaEXP	VII	AT3G47060	FTSH PROTEASE 7	
miRNA 9410/9411 A						
miRNA 9410 A						
miRNA 165/166 B						
miRNA 169 A						
miRNA 172 A	IX	C09p033660.1_BnaEXP	IX	AT5G60120	TOE2	

720

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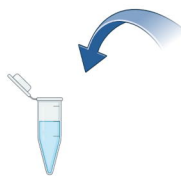
Sampling

Express 617

G3D001

F1

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Selfing

Selfing

Selfing

Express 617

G3D001



x



Cross-pollination



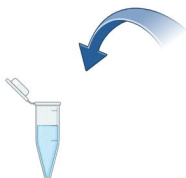
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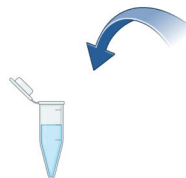
F1













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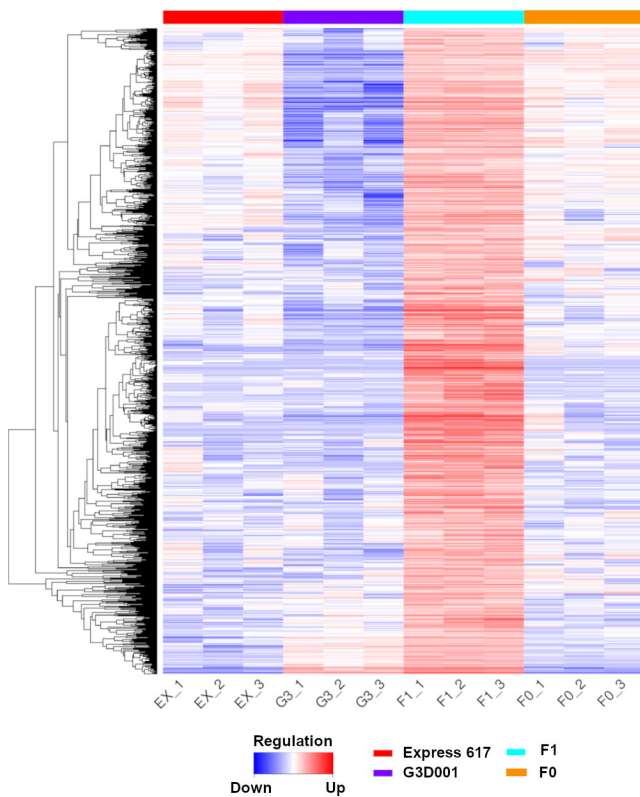


OS30

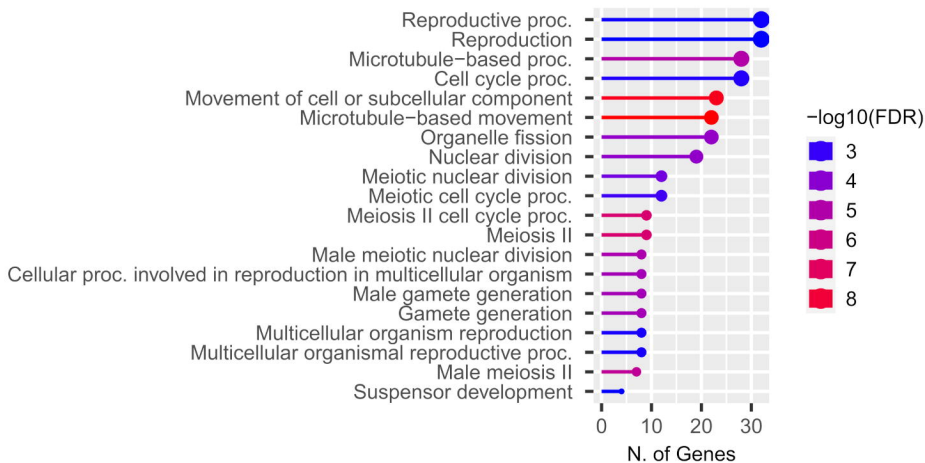


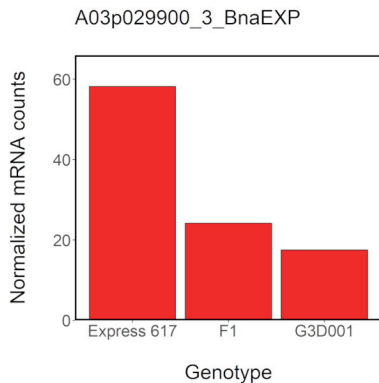
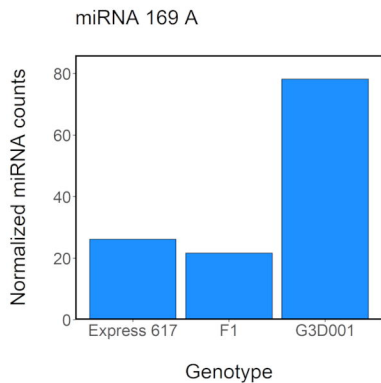
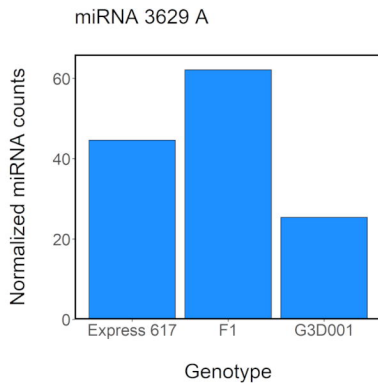
Feature	Stage	Additivity		G3D001 dominance		Express 617 dominance		Transgressive-down regulation/hypomethylation			Transgressive up regulation/hypermethylation		
		I	XII	II	XI	IV	IX	III	VII	X	V	VI	VIII
													
		E-F-G	E-F-G	E-F-G	E-F-G	E-F-G	E-F-G	E-F-G	E-F-G	E-F-G	E-F-G	E-F-G	E-F-G
DEG	BBCH16	25.19	8.68	9.01	20.34	15.05	18.75	0.08	0.77	0.19	0.13	0.18	1.62
	OS15-F1	9.79	6.44	9.59	18.16	13.20	24.58	0.89	3.64	0.26	0.49	1.53	11.43
	OS15-F0	0.55	0.08	0.09	1.04	46.34	50.77	0.09	0.13	0.00	0.00	0.50	0.40
	OS30-F1	8.75	5.44	5.49	11.71	20.68	37.93	0.81	1.73	0.06	0.28	2.32	4.81
	OS30-F0	7.37	2.18	1.93	3.21	32.68	48.52	0.34	0.53	0.01	0.05	1.38	1.81
DE-miRNA	BBCH16	13.85	9.23	9.23	27.69	9.23	20.00	0.00	9.23	0.00	1.54	0.00	0.00
	OS15-F1	5.38	5.38	8.60	23.66	18.28	23.66	0.00	0.00	0.00	3.23	0.00	11.83
	OS15-F0	1.96	0.00	0.00	2.94	42.16	50.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.96	0.98
	OS30-F1	14.74	1.99	2.39	8.37	23.90	45.02	0.40	0.40	0.00	0.00	0.40	2.39
	OS30-F0	14.12	1.15	0.76	3.44	33.21	45.04	0.38	0.38	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.53
DE-siRNA	BBCH16	16.30	7.54	8.83	30.81	15.39	19.82	0.05	0.56	0.12	0.02	0.12	0.44
	OS15-F1	6.69	8.67	16.20	25.78	11.78	17.36	0.03	0.26	0.01	2.50	2.46	8.25
	OS15-F0	1.06	0.16	0.09	1.30	44.77	49.02	0.10	0.11	0.00	0.00	2.16	1.23
	OS30-F1	12.58	2.58	3.58	13.20	23.07	40.56	0.27	0.76	0.05	0.16	0.60	2.60
	OS30-F0	12.91	1.46	2.12	7.73	28.63	44.42	0.19	0.50	0.04	0.08	0.48	1.46
DMR	BBCH16	42.94	26.46	5.51	13.31	11.11	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.03	0.06	0.39	0.19
	OS15-F1	49.10	9.16	13.21	9.33	17.74	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.03	0.49	0.55	0.39
	OS15-F0	5.08	2.29	0.00	0.15	46.47	15.04	0.03	0.00	0.00	0.03	29.37	1.55
	OS30-F1	39.17	14.23	15.77	8.24	21.13	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.49	0.52	0.44
	OS30-F0	21.99	14.88	2.21	0.69	49.12	8.99	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.03	2.03	0.06

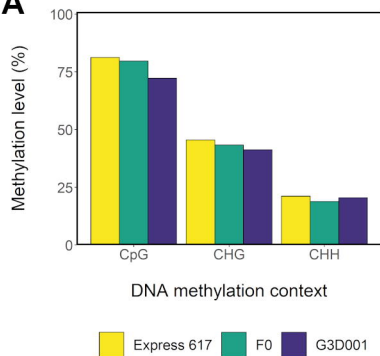
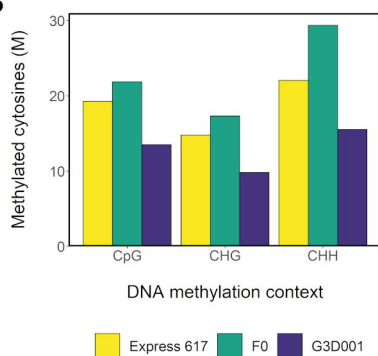
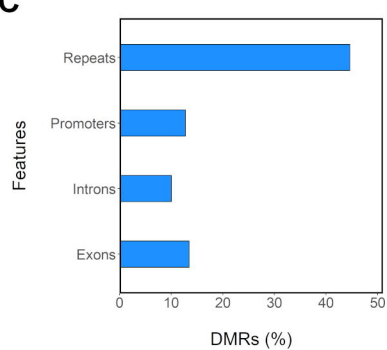
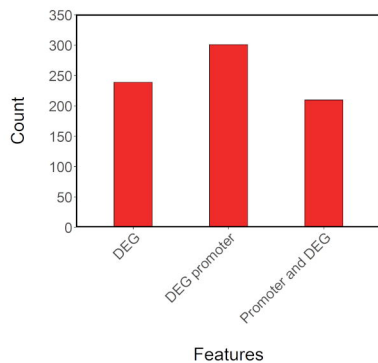
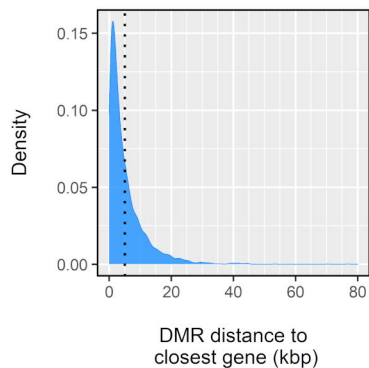
A



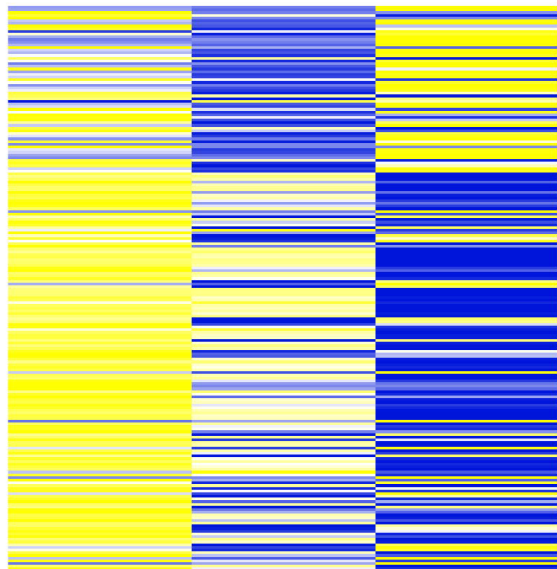
B



A**B**

A**B****C****D****E**

Gene methylation



EX

F0

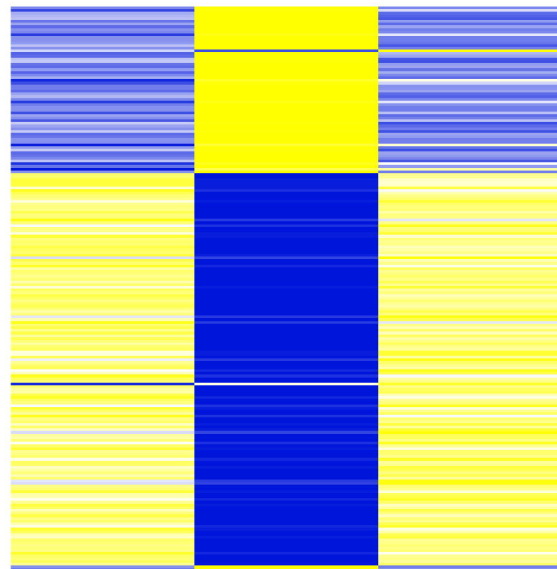
G3

Methylation



Low High

Gene expression



EX

F0

G3

Regulation



Down Up

