Additive and partially dominant effects from genomic variation contribute to rice heterosis

Zhiwu Dan[1†], Yunping Chen[1†], Wei Zhou[1], Yanghong Xu[1], Junran Huang[1], Yi Chen[1],

Jizhou Meng[1], Guoxin Yao[1], Wenchao Huang[1*]

[1]State Key Laboratory of Hybrid Rice, Key Laboratory for Research and Utilization of

Heterosis in Indica Rice, the Ministry of Agriculture, The Yangtze River Valley Hybrid

Rice Collaboration & Innovation Center, College of Life Sciences, Wuhan University,

Wuhan 430072, China.

[†] Zhiwu Dan and Yunping Chen contributed equally to this article.

*Correspondence: wenchaoh@whu.edu.cn

Abstract

Background: The molecular mechanisms of heterosis remain debated due to discrepancies in factors such as species, phenotypes, hybrid populations, developmental stages or growth environments.

Results: Here, we screened heterosis-associated genes and metabolites from molecular differences in rice inbred lines and found that the phenylpropanoid biosynthesis was involved in heterosis. The main inheritance patterns of the heterosis-associated molecules were additive and partially dominant effects, namely, at the mid-parent levels and between the parental and mid-parent levels. The additive and partially dominant effects contributed to heterosis of 17 agronomic traits in rice, including grain yield and plant height across developmental stages, and to heterosis of F_1 hybrids from different populations and growth environments in both rice and maize. Furthermore, the two inheritance patterns were associated with parental genomic variants, which were correlated with heterosis of agronomic traits.

Conclusions: Our study systematically integrates parental genetic variation and highlights the predominant effects of additive and partially dominant in rice heterosis.

Keywords: Heterosis, Genomic variants, Additive and partially dominant effects, Grain yield, Plant height, Rice

Background

Heterosis describes the universal phenomenon of heterozygous F_1 hybrids outperforming their parents [1-3]. The exploitation of heterosis to increase crop yield and alleviate food shortages has been treated as a landmark innovation in modern agriculture [4]. The dominance (pseudo-overdominance) [5-9], overdominance [10, 11], and epistasis models [12-14], which emphasize complementation, heterozygosity, and interactions of loci, respectively, have been proposed to interpret heterosis. However, the molecular mechanisms of crop heterosis are still under debate because the conclusions differ across species, phenotypes, hybrid populations, developmental stages or growth environments.

Four terms have been used to quantitatively describe the inheritance patterns of hybrid phenotypes or molecules [15, 16], including additive (mid-parent values, MPVs), dominant (parental values), partially dominant (between parental and MPVs), and overdominant (outside parental values) effects. The potential connection between additive effect and heterosis has been inferred in several studies. *SINGLE FLOWER TRUSS*, the expression level of which exhibits a near-additive effect, drives strong yield

heterosis in tomato [17]. The additive effect of transcripts, proteins, metabolites, and

component traits has been suggested to be the genetic basis of heterosis in maize, rice,

and tomato [18-25]. Moreover, partially dominant effect has also been supposed to

underlie heterosis [6, 14, 18, 26].

Through the systematic identification of heterosis-associated genes and

metabolites, the proportions and contributions of the four types of inheritance patterns

were analysed in this study. The finding of the main genetic effects of additive and

partially dominant on heterosis is reliable without considering discrepancies in

agronomic traits, hybrid populations, developmental stages, growth environments,

detection platforms of omics data, and even species.

Results

Heterosis-associated genes and metabolites from molecular differences in parents

The seedling length and weight of the rice cultivars Yuetai B (YB, *indica*), Balilla

(*japonica*), and their reciprocal F_1 hybrids were measured at 5, 10, and 15 days after

sowing (DAS) (Fig. 1A, Fig. S1A, and Table S1). Better-parent heterosis (BPH) for

seedling length was observed in both F_1 hybrids at 15 DAS (Fig. 1A). Moreover, the

variance in seedling length was almost completely explained by genotype, stage, and

their interaction (Fig. S1B).

Principal component analysis (PCA) of global gene expression levels showed that

the F_1 hybrids were located between both parents and closer to one parent, Balilla (Fig.

1B, Fig. S1C, Table S2, and Data S1). Differentially expressed genes (DEGs) were

identified for the two inbred lines (ILs) and F_1 hybrids, and the number of DEGs

increased along with development (Fig. S1D-E). Unlike the pooled non-DEGs (NDEGs)

(Fig. S1F), 66.6% of the sample variance in genotypes was explained by principal

component 1 (PC1), which was based on the DEGs (Fig. S1G). Furthermore, the F_1

hybrids deviated slightly from the mimicked "additive hybrids" (calculated as MPVs),

suggesting the contributions of additive and other genetic effects to hybrid

transcriptomics.

The greatest number of DEGs existed between the two parents, and most of the

DEGs (83.5% to 97.1%, average 92.4%) between the F_1 hybrids and the parents were

parental DEGs (Fig. 1C and Fig. S1H-J). Moreover, the majority of the significantly

enriched Gene Ontology terms between the F_1 hybrids and the parents were among the

differentially expressed terms between Balilla and YB (Fig. S1K-P), showing that the

reconstruction of the hybrid transcriptomes was predominantly determined by parental

expression differences.

Next, 626 heterosis-associated genes (HAGs) related specifically to seedling length

were then identified (Fig. S2A-P), and these HAGs indicated that the F_1 hybrids were

closer to "additive hybrids" (Fig. 1D). A total of 37 HAGs were enriched in 12 terms,

and these terms formed a complete network with the bridge of heme binding (Fig. 1E-

F), indicating that the genes involved in heterosis for seedling length had tight

connections.

Moreover, the PCA score plot based on untargeted metabolite profiles revealed that

the F_1 hybrids were located between the corresponding parents and presented a closer

relationship with YB (Fig. 1G, Fig. S3A, and Data S2). Although the percentages were

lower than those of the transcriptomic data, most of the metabolomic differences

between F_1 hybrids and parents were due to differences in the parents (Fig. S3B-J,

average 84.0%). Meanwhile, most of the significantly enriched metabolic pathways

between the F_1 hybrids and the parents also differed between the two parents (Fig. 1H

and Fig. S3K-U). Thus, both the transcriptomic and metabolomic variation between F_1

hybrids and parents were determined mainly by the molecular differences in

corresponding parents.

When the differential metabolites (DMs) were further screened for heterosis-

associated metabolites (HAMs) related to seedling length (Fig. S4A-M), 645 HAMs

were identified and indicated that the F_1 hybrids were also closer to "additive hybrids"

(Fig. 1I). Eight HAMs annotated with the *mummichog* algorithm [27] were significantly

enriched in three pathways, and other chemically identified metabolites from these

pathways were correlated with seeding length (Fig. 1J and Fig. S5A). Furthermore,

three of six accurately annotated metabolites from the phenylpropanoid biosynthesis

were significantly correlated with the seedling length of F_1 hybrids (Fig. S4N-V).

After the 626 HAGs and the 645 HAMs were combined for joint pathway analysis,

five pathways were found to be significantly enriched, among which the

phenylpropanoid biosynthesis was most significant with eight metabolites and ten

genes matched (Fig. 1K). Among the ten genes, nine genes were peroxidases, and seven

genes were among the 37 HAGs (Fig. S5B), confirming the combined contributions of

113 genes and metabolites involved in phenylpropanoid biosynthesis to seedling length

114 heterosis.

115 **The explanation of variance in heterosis by differential molecules of parents**

116 Another nine pairs of rice reciprocal F_1 hybrids, which were divided into three

117 groups—high, low, and no BPH for seedling length—were used to validate the HAGs

118 and HAMs (Figs. 2A-B). The 626 HAGs failed to separate the three groups in both the

119 PCA and the partial least squares-discriminant analysis (PLS-DA) (Fig. S6A-D). The

120 645 HAMs did not classify the three groups according to PCA (Fig. S6E), but they

121 separated the high BPH group from the other two groups without overfitting according

122 to PLS-DA (Fig. S6F-H). Thus, the HAGs or HAMs for a single hybrid combination

123 manifested limited predictive power for heterosis of other F_1 hybrids.

124 The HAGs and HAMs were subsequently integrated into a network

125 (Network_51015), and the largest subnetwork (subnetwork_1) contained 2,138 edges

126 (Fig. 2C). In contrast to the decreasing trend in the parents, the coefficients of module

127 levels (average node levels) and seedling length remained greater than 0.95 in the F_1

128 hybrids (Fig. S7A-C). Unexpectedly, the F_1 hybrids were divided into distinct groups

in PLS-DA, and the predictabilities of the models varied, with that of Module_2 being

as high as 0.97 (Fig. S7D-I). Thus, the integration of HAGs and HAMs into network

modules increased the predictability of heterosis for seedling length.

A total of 967 DEGs and 990 DMs were subsequently identified for six ILs of the

ten pairs of reciprocal F_1 hybrids. The 967 DEGs displayed better separations in PLS-

DA than in PCA, and the predictability was comparable to that of the 990 DMs (Fig.

S8A-H). The combination of DEGs and DMs separated the three groups according to

PC1 and PC4, but the model was overfitted in PLS-DA (Fig. S8I-L). Next, another

network (Network_HLN) integrating the 967 DEGs and 990 DMs was constructed and

the largest subnetwork (subnetwork_1) contained 868 edges (Fig. 2D). Although the

top three modules of subnetwork_1 from Network_HLN had fewer nodes than those of

Network_51015 did (Fig. 2E), the predictabilities of the top three modules of

Network_HLN were comparable to those of Network_51015 (Fig. 2f and Fig. S9A-F).

And the variance explained by Component 1 were larger in Network_HLN (Fig. 2G).

The combination of Module_1 and Module_2 further increased the predictability to

0.94, whereas the addition of Module_3 did not (Fig. S9G-J). Thus, the integration of

parental transcriptomic and metabolomic differences into network modules explained

the variance in heterosis for seedling length.

Heterosis-associated molecules with additive and partially dominant effects

Heterosis-associated molecules specific to seedling length were further screened

from Module_1 and Module_2 of Network_HLN, and the 68 molecules (29 metabolites

and 39 genes) with the greatest contribution separated the three groups with high

predictability (Fig. 2H-I, Q^2 = 0.90). The contributions of the molecules were

determined (Fig. 2J and Fig. S9K), but the 68 molecules did not exhibit continuously

changing patterns at the molecular level across groups. Moreover, F_1 hybrids from the

same group formed distinct clusters (Fig. 2K), displaying heterogeneity at the

molecular level. In addition, the hybrid profiles were intermediate between the levels

of the parents or close to those of one parent in the heatmap. And the F_1 hybrids were

located near the middle regions of corresponding parents on the PCA score plot (Fig.

2L). These results highlighted the quantitative connections of heterosis-associated

molecules between parents and F_1 hybrids.

Additive, partially dominant, dominant, and overdominant effects were detected

by comparing the molecular levels of heterosis-associated molecules (Fig. 2M and Fig.

S9L). Additive and partially dominant effects accounted for more than 70% of the

molecular levels in most of the F_1 hybrids (Fig. 2N and Fig. S9M-O). The predictability

of the additive effect for heterosis of seedling length was 0.63 (Fig. 2O, $P < 5 \times 10^{-4}$).

Two types of partially dominant (PD) effects, namely, PD_0.3 and PD_0.7, were

identified, and their predictabilities were 0.37 ($P < 5 \times 10^{-4}$) and 0.29 ($P < 5 \times 10^{-4}$),

respectively (Fig. 2P). The predictabilities of the dominant effects of the female and

male parents were 0.14 ($P = 0.40$) and 0.07 ($P = 0.015$), respectively (Fig. 2Q).

Importantly, the predictability of the additive effect was not significantly different from

those of hybrid profiles, and the addition of additive, partially dominant, or dominant

effects to the hybrid profiles did not improve the predictability (Fig. 2Q). Furthermore,

the sum percentages of additive and partially dominant effects had a significant positive

correlation with seedling length heterosis (Fig. 2R). The above results demonstrated the

predominant roles of additive and partially dominant effects on seedling length

heterosis.

Contributions of additive and partially dominant effects to heterosis

To investigate contributions of the predominant genetic effects to heterosis of field

agronomic traits, we then first measured plant height for the above rice F_1 hybrids at

four developmental stages and detected significant positive correlations between

seedling length heterosis and plant height heterosis (Fig. S10A-B). Meanwhile, a hybrid

population with a complete diallel cross design was constructed for 17 representative

rice ILs (Figs. 3A-B, Fig. S10C-D, and Data S3). Seventeen agronomic traits were

measured (Fig. S10E-H), and the average BPH values for only four traits were less than

zero (Figs. 3C-D), indicating increased fitness of the F_1 hybrids to ILs.

After metabolite profiles of the 17 ILs were obtained (Fig. S11A and Data S4), five

chemically identified metabolites, including the previously reported 4-

hydroxycinnamic acid [22], from the phenylpropanoid biosynthesis displayed

significant correlations with heterosis for plant height (Fig. 3E and Fig. S11B-G).

Importantly, additive and partially dominant effects were more strongly correlated with

plant height heterosis than the dominant effects (Fig. S11H), even after the inclusion of

another 13 traits (Fig. 3F).

Next, the 1,306 differential metabolites of the 17 ILs were used to predict heterosis

for each trait by PLS. We found that the additive effect had higher R^2 (adjusted) values

than the dominant and partially dominant effects (Fig. 3G and Fig. S11I-X). Meanwhile,

the greatest R^2 values of the regression models for the 17 traits with additive effect were

significantly greater than those with dominant effects but comparable to those with

partially dominant effects (Fig. 3H). Moreover, eight traits of the 17 ILs and 36 F_1

hybrids were recollected, and significant differences between environments were

observed for most of the traits (Fig. S12A-B). The greatest R^2 values of the eight traits

with additive effect were greater than those with dominant effects, and were close to

those with partially dominant effects (Fig. 3I and Fig. S13A-H). Therefore, the additive

and partially dominant effects were the main inheritance patterns for heterosis of 17

agronomic traits.

A test cross population was then designed with a male sterile line and 211

recombinant inbred lines (RILs) (Fig. S14A). The F_1 hybrids exhibited negative BPH

only for heading date of the four traits (Fig. S14B-F). The metabolite profiles of 107

representative RILs and Yuetai A were collected (Fig. S14G-H), and the R^2 values were

greater than 0.85 with five latent factors (Fig. 3J). Thus, the differential metabolites of

representative rice ILs were robust biomarkers for the heterosis of F_1 hybrids from

recombinant inbred lines.

To further investigate the contributions of additive and partially dominant effects

to maize heterosis, the field fresh weight of two hybrid populations[28], which

significantly differed under distinct growth environments (Fig. S15A-B), and

metabolite profiles of the roots and leaves of 24 Dent lines, 25 Flint lines, and 326 F_1

hybrids (Dent × Flint) were used to perform PLS analysis (Fig. S15C-J). For the greatest

R^2 values, additive and partially dominant effects were comparable to those of the

hybrid profiles and were greater than the dominant effects (Fig. 3K). Unexpectedly,

additive and partially dominant effects also had similar R^2 values to those of the hybrid

profiles and had higher values than did the dominant effects for grain dry matter yield

and grain dry matter content [29] (Fig. 3L and Fig. S15K-N). Moreover, the grain yield

of another hybrid population [30], which exhibited strong yield heterosis, and the

expression levels of 84 DEGs of 12 maize ILs were obtained (Fig. S15O-Q). The R^2

values of the additive and partially dominant effects were greater than those of the

dominant effects (Figs. 3M-N and Fig. S15R-S). These results showed the predominant

roles of additive and partially dominant effects in maize heterosis. In addition,

phenotypic and transcriptomic data of two tissues at successive developmental stages

were obtained from Col-0, Per-1, and their F_1 hybrids in *Arabidopsis* [31]. The F_1

hybrids exhibited robust heterosis for both cotyledon biomass and first true leaf size.

And showed tight associations with additive and partially dominant effects based on

the screened heterosis-associated genes (Fig. S16A-T).

The association between genomic variants and the main inheritance patterns

Genomic sequencing was performed on seedlings of the 17 rice ILs, and these ILs were

classified into two groups based on genomic variants, including single-nucleotide

polymorphisms (SNPs), insertions and deletions (InDels), copy number variations

(CNVs), and structural variations (SVs) (Figs. 4A-F, Fig. S17-19, and Table S3).

The genomic variants of each two ILs were divided into common and unique types, and

the number of these genomic variants had significant correlations with trait heterosis

(Fig. 5A and Fig. S20A-B). The parental unique variants had more correlations with

heterosis than the common ones did (Fig. 5B). Meanwhile, unique SNPs and InDels

exhibited more correlations with heterosis than the unique CNVs and SVs did (Fig. 5C).

The parental unique SNPs and InDels were significantly correlated with heterosis for

grain yield, but CNVs and SVs were not. With more parental unique SNPs or InDels,

the heterosis for grain number increased, but that for the seed setting rate decreased

(Fig. 5D and Fig. S20C-E), revealing the barrier of reproductive isolation in the

utilization of yield heterosis between *indica* and *japonica* varieties [32]. Finally, the

inverse relationship between heterosis for grain number and the seed setting rate caused

the heterosis for grain yield to form a parabola (Fig. 5E and Fig. S20F-H).

The heterosis-associated metabolites of each trait were screened to top 50 and used

to perform correlation analysis with heterosis and the number of parental unique

variants. Unexpectedly, the additive and partially dominant effects exhibited more

correlations with both heterosis and parental unique variants (Fig. 5F-I and Fig. S20I).

Finally, a model integrating parental genetic variation in genomics, transcriptomics, and

metabolomics was proposed to show the contribution of additive effect to positive

better-parent heterosis of a complex trait in rice (Fig. 6).

Discussion

The genetic mechanisms underlying heterosis have been debated for more than a

century, and no consensus has been reached. The mysterious molecular mechanisms of

heterosis may be due to the large number of heterosis-associated molecules, including

genes [1, 3, 15, 33]. Heterosis-associated genes with strong functions are rarely reported

[17], and the regulation of gene expression levels for one pathway or network module

is worthy of further study.

Models of heterosis based solely on gene interactions may hinder the interpretation

of heterosis for complex traits because interactions among component traits occur at

the phenotypic level [18]. The heterosis of complex traits, e.g., grain yield, is a product

of several component traits, which are always negatively correlated. The component

traits also include component traits. It is therefore necessary to decompose the

components of a complex trait, and the investigation of heterosis for component traits

may be fruitful.

Additive and partially dominant effects are the main inheritance patterns in our

analyses, irrespective of changes in agronomic traits, hybrid populations,

developmental stages, growth environments, types of omics data, and even species. The

additive effect, namely, the mid-parent values, has no significant difference in

predictability from that of hybrid profiles, and the additive effect has been used to

predict multiple agronomic traits of F_1 hybrids [22-25], all of which contribute to the

precise pairing of male and female parents in hybrid breeding. To build robust

prediction models for crop heterosis, a collection of genetically divergent accessions

whose genetic diversity can be assessed by untargeted metabolite profiles should first

be implemented. For heterosis of traits with low predictability, e.g., tiller number,

obtaining metabolite profiles from corresponding tissues or mixed tissues [21], other

types of omics data [34-37], and phenotypic data from distinct environments [38] may

explain more of the variance.

Methods

Plant materials and field growth conditions

According to the *indica–japonica* indices of 223 inbred lines (ILs) evaluated by 33 pairs

of InDel markers [39, 40], 17 ILs, ranging from *indica* to intermediate types to *japonica*,

were selected as parents of a hybrid population using a complete diallel cross design

[25]. Moreover, 211 recombinant inbred lines (RILs, F_5 followings) derived from F_1

individuals of the 223 ILs were crossed with the Honglian-type male sterile line Yuetai

A. Plants of the diallel and test cross populations were planted at the Hybrid Rice

Experimental Base of Wuhan University in Ezhou (Hubei Province, China) in 2012 and

2015, respectively.

For the diallel cross population (245 F_1 hybrids), ten experimental plants were

planted with 16.5 cm between plants and 26.4 cm between rows, and two plants of the

sterile line, namely Yuetai A, were planted on two sides of each row. To obtain F_1

hybrids, the young panicles of the female parents that would flower in the next few

days were immersed in warm water at 44 °C (for *indica* or near-*indica* ILs) or 46 °C

(for *japonica* or near-*japonica* ILs) for 5 min to sterilize the pollen. For the hand-

pollination procedure, three to four panicles were combined in a paper bag, and one to

two bags from each female parent without pollination were used as controls. For female

parents with a high self-fertilization rate, such as R465 and Qianlijing, the pistils in

each spikelet were manually removed and pollinated by hand. Three biological

replicates of each genotype were randomly distributed in the field. The middle plants

of each row, ranging from three to ten plants, were selected for the collection of

phenotypic data for 17 agronomic traits. Plant height, measured from the base of the

plant to the highest part of the plant using meter rulers, was recorded from the seedling

to mature stages. The four time points included 28 days after transplanting (8 July,

2012), 42 days after transplanting (22 July, 2012), the time of flowering, and the time

of maturation, which were defined as the seedling stage plant height, elongation stage

plant height, flowering stage plant height, and maturation stage plant height,

respectively. The tiller number per plant was also counted together with the plant height

at four different stages, which were defined as the seedling stage tiller number,

elongation stage tiller number, flowering stage tiller number, and maturation stage tiller

number. The heading date was the number of days between the heading time when a

plant from a biological replicate started flowering and the date of sowing (13 May,

2012). At maturity, all panicles from each plant were harvested and dried in the sunshine

for approximately one week and then dried in ovens at 42 °C for two days before yield

and yield-related traits were measured. Panicle length was measured from the panicle

neck to the top for all panicles from each plant. The primary branch number and

secondary branch number per panicle were counted manually for all panicles. Panicles

from each plant were counted and treated as the tiller number per plant. After manually

removing seeds (with or without grains) from panicles for each individual plant, empty

seeds and seeds with grains were mechanically separated and counted using seed

counters (PME-1, Shanke Equipment, Shanghai). The grain number per panicle was

calculated by dividing the total seed number (sum of empty seeds and seeds with grains)

of a plant by the tiller number per plant. The seed setting rate was calculated as the ratio

of the number of seeds with grains to the total number of seeds. The weight of 1,000

grains from a plant was defined as the thousand-grain weight, and the weight of the

seeds with grains per plant was defined as the grain yield per plant.

For the test cross population (211 F_1 hybrids), each biological replicate contained

ten plants (per row) spaced at 16.5 cm × 16.5 cm apart. Three biological replicates of

each genotype were placed in three consecutive rows and randomly planted in the field.

The phenotypic data of four agronomic traits, namely, heading date, thousand-grain

weight, maturation stage plant height, and yield per plant were collected. The heading

date was recorded for one biological replicate. The middle five plants per row were

selected for measurement of plant height at the maturation stage. Panicles from the five

plants were bagged and used to collect data on grain yield per plant and thousand-grain

weight. Moreover, eight agronomic traits, namely, heading date, thousand grain weight,

panicle length, seed setting rate, grain number per panicle, maturation stage plant height,

grain yield per plant, and tiller number per plant, of the 17 ILs and 36 F_1 hybrids from

the diallel cross population were recollected along with the test crosses. Parts of trait

values of the diallel and test cross populations have been reported in previous studies

[19, 22-25, 32], and the complete datasets for all investigated traits are provided in

source data.

To evaluate the degree of heterosis for each trait, better-parent heterosis was

calculated using the equation: BPH_trait = $(F_1 - P_{high})/P_{high}$, where P_{high} represents the

high trait value of both parents. In the calculation of better-parent heterosis for heading

date (BPH_HD), parents with earlier heading dates were selected as P_{high}. The

calculated values were multiplied by -1 to represent the heterosis for heading date.

Planting of rice seedlings for metabolomics analysis

Two batches of rice seedlings were planted for untargeted metabolite profiling analysis.

The first batch in 2016 (Batch_2016) included 17 ILs, 107 RILs selected from the 211

RILs, and the male sterile line Yuetai A. As previously described [23], the germinated

seeds were sown in soil with a spacing of 2 × 2 cm. The seedlings were grown at 30 °C

under a 16 h light/8 h dark photoperiod in a light incubator. Two biological replicates

were established for each genotype. On the 15th day, the aboveground parts, excluding

approximately 0.5 cm of tissue close to the soil, of approximately ten plants were

harvested and washed with ddH_2O three times. Two biological replicates of the 17 ILs

were harvested as two experimental samples for each genotype. Two biological

replicates of the 107 RILs and Yuetai A were pooled as one experimental sample for

each genotype. The seedlings were first placed in 5 mL tubes (Eppendorf #0030119460)

and snap frozen in liquid nitrogen.

The second batch in 2018 (Batch_2018) consisted of ten pairs of hybrid

combinations. Seeds of 6 ILs and ten corresponding reciprocal F_1 hybrids were first

dehulled and sterilized with 75% ethanol (1 min) and 0.15% $HgCl_2$ (10 min). The seeds

were then transferred to sterilized half-strength Murashige and Skoog rooting medium

(pH = 5.8) supplemented with phytogel. Ten seeds were sown on the surface of 30 mL

of medium per glass tube (diameter: 3 cm and height: 20 cm). Three to six biological

replicates were set up for each genotype or the same genotype at different time points.

Seedlings were grown at 28 °C under 24-hour light in an artificial climate chamber

(Zhu Laboratory at the College of Life Sciences, Wuhan University). The seedling

length and weight of a pair of hybrid combination containing two ILs (Balilla and

Yuetai B) and the corresponding reciprocal F_1 hybrids were recorded on 5, 10, and 15

days after sowing. Five seedlings from each glass tube were removed from the medium

and photographed for subsequent measurement of seedling length using ImageJ

(version 1.5.3). After excluding the roots, the seedling bases were washed three times

with ddH_2O and the water on the surface was removed with absorbent paper before

weighing. The five seedlings were snap frozen in liquid nitrogen, and photographs and

weights were taken and used for subsequent experiments. The remaining nine pairs of

hybrid combinations were harvested for seedling length measurements after 15 days of

growth. The sealing films on the glass tubes were removed on day 11 and 5 mL of

ddH_2O was added to each tube for normal growth. All the experimental samples were

stored at -80 °C.

RNA sequencing

Seedlings from each biological replicate were ground into fine powder using mortar

and pestle with liquid nitrogen. After total RNA was extracted with TRIzol (Invitrogen),

the RNA was first assessed by electrophoresis in 1% agarose gels to check for

degradation and contamination states. The concentrations (Qubit2.0 Fluorometer) and

integrity (Agilent 2100 bioanalyzer) of each RNA sample were analyzed. DNA library

preparation (NEBNext Ultra RNA Library Prep Kit, NEB) with index codes and

sequencing experiments were performed on the sequencing platform of Novogene Co.,

Ltd (Beijing, China). Briefly, mRNA was first purified from 3 μg of total RNA using

magnetic beads attached to poly(T) oligo. The mRNA with poly(A) tails was randomly

fragmented (NEBNext First Strand Synthesis Reaction Buffer) and used to synthesize

the first strand of cDNA with the addition of hexamer primers and M-MuLV reverse

transcriptase. After the RNA was degraded with RNase H, the second strand of cDNA

was synthesized using DNA polymerase I with dNTPs. The strands were then converted

to blunt ends using the activities of T4 DNA polymerase and DNA polymerase I. The

products were subjected to adenylation, and NEBNext adaptors were added to the

products. Approximately 200 bp of cDNA was purified using AMPure XP beads

(Beckman Coulter) and treated with 3 μL of USER Enzyme (NEB) at 37 °C for 15

minutes and 95 °C for 5 minutes. PCR was then performed using Phusion High-Fidelity

DNA polymerase with universal and index primers. The reaction products were

repurified with AMPure XP beads, and the quality of the library was assessed using an

Agilent Bioanalyzer 2100. After clustering of the index-coded samples using the cBot

Cluster Generation System (TruSeq PE Cluster Kit v3-cBot-HS, Illumina), the libraries

were sequenced on the Illumina Hiseq PE150 platform, and 150 bp paired-end reads

were acquired with more than 6 G per sample.

The raw reads were first processed by removing adapters, poly N and low-quality

reads. The Q20, Q30, and GC contents were calculated for the clean reads. The clean

reads were then aligned to the Nipponbare reference genome

(Oryza_sativa_Ensembl_43) using Hisat2 (v2.0.5)[41] and the numbers of gene reads

were counted using featureCounts (v1.5.0-p3) [42].

Normalization and differential analysis of transcriptomics data

Normalization and differential analysis of the transcriptomics data (42,341 genes) for

the hybrid combination of Balilla and YB at 5, 10, and 15 DAS were performed using

NetworkAnalyst 3.0 [43] with the following parameters: specify organism, not

specified; data type, bulk RNA-seq data (counts); ID type, not specified; gene-level

summarization, sum; variance filter, 30; low abundance, 30; filter unannotated genes,

yes; normalization, Log2-counts per million; statistical method, DESeq2; Log2 fold

change, 2; and adjusted p-value, 0.0001. As the numbers of differentially expressed

genes between reciprocal F_1 hybrids of Balilla and YB at 5, 10, and 15 DAS were only

1, 13, and 29, respectively, the differences between reciprocal F_1 hybrids were not

included in the analysis. To analyse the differentially expressed genes of the six ILs,

the data matrix containing 42,341 genes was separately normalized (sum, none, and

autoscaling) with MetaboAnalyst 4.0 [44] and analysed with ANOVA (adjusted p-value

= 0.05, post-hoc analysis = Fisher's LSD). Principal component analysis (PCA) of the

transcriptomic and metabolomic data, which were normalized data from

NetworkAnalyst 3.0 [43], was performed at ClustVis (https://biit.cs.ut.ee/clustvis) [45].

Two-way ANOVA of the 5,844 DEGs was performed using the "Time Series

Analysis" (time series and one factor) module of MetaboAnalyst 4.0 [44] with the

following parameters: ANOVA type, type I; interaction, yes; adjusted p-value cut-off,

0.05; and correction for multiple testing, false discovery rate.

Pathway enrichment analysis of the differentially expressed genes

The ClueGO (version 2.5.8) [46] and CluePedia (version 1.5.8) [47] plugins of

Cytoscape (version 3.9.0) [48] were used for pathway enrichment analysis of the

differentially expressed genes. Functional analysis was selected as the analysis mode.

The up- and downregulated genes were represented by diamonds (shape 1) and triangles

(shape 2), respectively. The GO (ellipse), KEGG (hexagon), and WikiPathways (V)

were selected as ontologies/pathways. The GO term fusion was selected and only

pathways with $pV \leq 0.01$ were shown. The GO tree interval was between 3 (minimum

level) and 5 (maximum level). The minimum number and percentage of genes were set

to 3 and 4%, respectively, for both clusters. The genes accounting for more than 60%

of a cluster were defined as cluster-specific genes. The kappa score of network

connectivity was set to 0.4, and enrichment/depletion (two-sided hypergeometric test)

with Benjamini–Hochberg pV correction was set as the statistical option. GO term

grouping was selected in the group options, and the leading term was based on the

highest significance with fixed colours. The kappa score was selected for term grouping.

The initial group size, percentage of genes for group merging and percentage of terms

for group merging were set to 1, 50% and 50%, respectively.

Untargeted metabolite profiling

For the seedling samples in Batch_2016, liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry

(LC–MS) analysis procedures have been previously described [23, 49]. In brief, all

tissues in each EP tube were first ground into homogenized powder by mortar and pestle

with the addition of liquid nitrogen. Eighty milligrams of powder was then transferred

to 2 mL EP tubes and the tubes were vortexed for 1 min after the addition of 1 mL of

precooled extraction solution (methanol/acetonitrile/water, 2/2/1). A quality control

sample was prepared by mixing 10 µL of each experimental sample. The experimental

and quality control samples were then subjected to two rounds of ultrasonic treatments

(30 min each) and kept at -20 °C for 60 min. The samples were then centrifuged at

14,000 g for 15 min at 4 °C and the supernatants were transferred to clean tubes. After

drying the supernatants in a vacuum concentrator, 100 µL of acetonitrile

(acetonitrile/water, 1/1) was added to the tubes. The tubes were vortexed and

centrifuged at 14,000 g for 15 minutes at 4 °C. The supernatants were transferred to

sample tubes for LC–MS analysis on the platform of Shanghai Applied Protein

Technology Co., Ltd.

The experimental and quality control samples were separated on an Agilent 1290

Infinity LC system (Agilent Technologies) equipped with a reverse-phase T3 column

(ACQUITY UPLC HSS T3, 1.8 μm, 2.1 mm × 100 mm, Waters). The injection volume

was 2 μL per sample. The flow rate was 0.3 mL/min and the column temperature was

25 °C. Regents A and B in positive ion mode were 0.1% formic acid (in water) and 0.1%

formic acid (in acetonitrile), respectively. In addition, 0.5 mM ammonium fluoride

(Sigma–Aldrich) and acetonitrile (Merck) were used in negative ion mode. The gradient

elution steps were as follows: 0-1 min, 1% B; 1-8 min, linearly increased to 100% B;

8-10 min, held at 100% B; 10-10.1 min, reduced to 1% B; and 10.1-12 min, held at 1%

B. Experimental samples were analysed in a random order, and the quality control

sample was injected every nine experimental samples. To obtain MS profiles in both

positive and negative electron spray ion modes, the LC system was coupled to an

Agilent 6550 iFunnel QTOF mass spectrometer (Agilent Technologies). The MS data

were collected from 60 to 1,200 Da. The acquisition rate was four spectra per second,

and the cycle time was 250 microseconds. The temperatures of the drying gas and the

sheath gas were 250 °C and 400 °C, respectively. The flow rates of the drying gas and

the sheath gas were 16 L/min and 12 L/min, respectively. The nebulizer pressure was

set at 20 pounds per square inch (psi). The capillary, nozzle, and fragment voltages were

3,000, 0, and 175 V, respectively. Tandem mass spectrometry data were then acquired

on the quality control sample using a TripleTOF 6600 mass spectrometer (AB SCIEX).

The mass range was between 60 and 1,200 Da. To increase the data acquisition rate of

the quality control sample, the sample was injected twice and the mass range was

further divided into four sequential windows: 60-200, 190-400, 390-600, 590-1,200

(full range, 60-1,200) Da (for chemical standard library) and 200-600, 590-750, 740-

900, 890-1,200 (full range, 200-1,200) Da (for lipid MS/MS library). The mass

spectrometry accumulation time was 200 ms per spectrum, and the tandem mass spectra

were obtained in an information-dependent manner with high sensitivity. Ion source

gas 1, ion source gas 2, and the curtain gas were set at 40, 80, and 30 psi, respectively.

The source temperature was 650 °C. The ion spray voltage floating were +5,000 V and

-4,500 V, respectively. The declustering potential and collision energy were ± 60 V and

35 ± 15 eV, respectively. The number of candidate ions for monitoring per cycle was

ten and the isotope isolation width was 4 Da. The MS/MS accumulation time was set

to 50 ms.

The raw MS files (.d) of the experimental and quality control samples were

converted to mzXML format using ProteoWizard (version 3.0.6150) [50], and the

transformed files were uploaded to XCMS (version 1.46.0) [51] for feature detection,

retention time (RT) correction and feature alignment with previously reported

parameters [52]. The 17 ILs formed one group, and the 107 RILs plus Yuetai A formed

another group. The features with more than 50% nonzero values in at least one group

were retained for further analysis. The error thresholds for m/z and RT were set at 15

ppm and 20 s for the alignment of MS and MS/MS data, respectively. The MS/MS data

of the quality control sample were matched against both the local chemical standard

library [53] and the lipid MS/MS library [54], and metabolites were annotated with a

mass accuracy of less than 25 ppm. For the seedling samples in Batch_2018, the

metabolomics analyses were the same as those in Batch_2016, except that the four

sequential windows of the quality control sample were changed to three sequential

windows: 60-300, 290-600, and 590-1,200 (full range, 60-1,200) Da. The Metlin library

[55] was also used for feature annotation.

Normalization and differential analyses of metabolomics data

The normalization of the metabolomics data for the hybrid combination of Balilla and

YB at 5, 10, and 15 DAS followed the same parameters as those used for the

transcriptomics data. ANOVA was used to analyse differential metabolites for the six

ILs with a data matrix of 15,083 analytes. For ease of interpretation, the word

"metabolite" was used in this manuscript to represent analytes with or without

annotations. The "statistical analysis (metadata table)" module of MetaboAnalyst 5.0

[56] was used to perform two-way ANOVA on the 2,331 differential metabolites with

genotype and stage as metadata. One of the three biological replicates of each genotype

at each stage was used as a subject. Multiple factors were chosen for the study design.

Further data filtering, sample normalization, data transformation, and data scaling were

not performed. Type I ANOVA was used for two-way independent ANOVA, and two-

way repeated ANOVA was used to calculate interactions. The false discovery rate was

used to correct for multiple testing, and the adjusted P value cut-off was set at 0.05.

To normalize the metabolomics data of the 17 ILs, Yuetai A, and 107 RILs, the

intensities of the two biological replicates of the 17 ILs were first averaged and then

normalized using MetaboAnalyst 5.0 [56] (sum, none, and autoscaling for sample

normalization, data transformation, and data scaling). Metabolites with RSD greater

than 25% in the QC samples were removed and the interquantile range was selected to

filter the features (40%). For the differential metabolite analysis of the 17 ILs, the

feature intensities of two biological replicates for each IL were used and ANOVA was

performed after filtering 40% of the features and data normalization (sum, none, and

autoscaling) using MetaboAnalyst 5.0 [56].

Determination of inheritance patterns for heterosis-associated molecules

To   determine   the   inheritance   patterns   for   heterosis-associated   molecules,

transcriptomic   and   metabolic   levels   were   compared   among F_1 hybrids,   the

corresponding parents, and the average levels of the corresponding parents via ANOVA

using MetaboAnalyst 4.0 [44]. Three biological replicates of reciprocal F_1 hybrids from

two ILs were combined into a hybrid genotype. An additive effect was assigned when

the molecular levels of the hybrid genotype were not significantly different from the

average levels of the corresponding parents but were significantly different from those

of both parents. A partially dominant effect was assigned when the hybrid levels were

significantly different from both the average parental levels and the molecular levels of

the parent on the same side. A dominant effect was when the hybrid levels were not

significantly different from those of the parent but were significantly different from the

average levels of the two parents. An overdominant effect was the pattern when the

hybrid levels were significantly higher or lower than those of the parent on the same

side. The patterns of hybrid levels other than the above four types were defined as

unclassified and marked as NA. To quantitatively describe the partially dominant effect

(PD), the degrees for the molecules with partially dominant effect of the six hybrid

combinations was calculated with the equation PD $= (F_1\text{-}P_2)/(P_1\text{-}P_2)$, where F_1, P_1, and

P_2 represent the molecular levels of the F_1 hybrids, parent 1, and parent 2, respectively.

Several molecules that had a partially dominant effect in multiple F_1 hybrids were

selected multiple times. The degree of the partially dominant effect was divided into

two parts, with 0.5 as the threshold. The averages of the two groups were calculated

and defined as two types of partially dominant effects (PD_0.3 and PD_0.7). Moreover,

the equations PD_0.3 $= P_m+0.3\times(P_f\text{-}P_m)$ and PD_0.7 $= P_m+0.7\times(P_f\text{-}P_m)$ were used to

represent partially dominant effects based on parental molecular levels.

Pathway enrichment analysis of differential metabolites

The metabolomics data of the hybrid combination of Balilla and YB at 15 DAS were

first used for pathway enrichment analysis. The table with normalized feature

intensities and retention times (in seconds) was uploaded to the "functional analysis"

module of MetaboAnalyst 5.0 [56]. Both positive and negative modes were selected for

analysis. In positive mode, the mass tolerance was set to 5 ppm. The interquantile range

was selected for data filtering because the number of peaks was greater than 5,000. No

data were used for sample normalization, data transformation, or data scaling. Both

mummichog [27] (*P* value cut-off: default top 10% peaks, version 2.0) and GSEA were

used for enrichment analysis. As no pathway was significantly enriched for the

differential metabolites between Balilla×Yuetai B and its parent Balilla with the default

P value cut-off (0.01) in positive mode, the *P* value cut-off was increased to 0.05. The

pathway library used was *Oryza sativa japonica* (Japanese rice) [KEGG]. Metabolite

currency and adducts were set with the default sets, and pathways or metabolite sets

containing at least 3 entries were set. The parameters for the negative mode analysis

were the same as those for the positive mode analysis, except for that no data filtering

was performed and the P value cut-off was set to 0.05. Putatively annotated metabolites

and enriched pathways were obtained in each analysis. For the pathway analysis of the

645 DMs using the "Pathway Analysis" module of MetaboAnalyst 5.0 [56], feature

annotation information was obtained from the results of differential metabolites

between Balilla and YB at 15 DAS. The parameters were set as follows: scatter plot,

visualization method; hypergeometric test, enrichment method; relative-betweenness

centrality, topology analysis; all compounds in the selected pathway library, reference

metabolome; and *Oryza sativa japonica* (Japanese rice) (KEGG), pathway library.

Three pathways were significantly enriched based on the annotation of eight peaks in

positive mode. Moreover, 20 metabolites (23 peaks from both ion modes), which were

annotated with local chemical standards, lipids, and Metlin libraries, from the three

significantly enriched pathways were also used for analysis. Correlations between the

metabolite levels of 26 peaks and seedling length were determined. One peak

(M147T118_POS) was annotated as 4-hydroxycinnamic acid in both the local standard

library and the result of the pathway enrichment analysis, and four peaks had no

concentration in the normalized metabolomics data.

Integration of genes and metabolites into networks

The normalized transcriptomics and metabolomics data were used to construct

networks via OmicsAnalyst [57]. No organism or ID type was specified in the

annotation procedure. Features with 50% missing values were excluded and the

remaining missing values were replaced by LoDs. The filter threshold for variance and

abundance was set to 0. In the comparison step, the genotype was used for grouping,

and no data transformation was performed. ANOVA was used for the differential

analysis. The fold change cut-off was set at 2.0, and the P value cut-off was set at 0.01.

To make the data suitable for inter-omics analysis, both the transcriptomics and

metabolomics data underwent normalization by sum, variance stabilizing normalization,

quantile normalization and range scaling. The statistically significant features were then

used to construct an interomics correlation network using the Spearman method. The

correlation threshold was set at 0.8, and both positive and negative correlations were

included. For Network_51015, 626 genes and 645 metabolites were used, and a total of

213 genes and 198 metabolites were statistically significant. The network contained

three subnetworks, and the largest subnetwork with 2,138 edges (subnetwork_1, 61.8%

and 38.2% positive and negative correlations, respectively) had 211 genes and 196

metabolites as nodes. The other two subnetworks had two interactions. For

Network_HLN, 967 genes and 990 metabolites were used for analysis, and 103 genes

and 158 metabolites were retained in the network. Network_HLN contained seven

subnetworks, and the largest subnetwork with 868 edges (subnetwork_1) contained 97

genes and 149 metabolites. The remaining six subnetworks had nine edges. The

walktrap algorithm was used for module detection. Subnetwork_1 of Network_51015

contained seven modules. The module size and P value of each module were 150 ($P =$

2.34×10^{-21}, Module_1), 105 ($P = 1.01 \times 10^{-14}$, Module_2), 80 ($P = 2.29 \times 10^{-12}$,

Module_3), 21 ($P = 0.00303$, Module_4), 13 ($P = 0.452$, Module_5), 7 ($P = 1$,

Module_6), and 6 ($P = 0.318$, Module_7), respectively. Subnetwork_1 of

Network_HLN contained eight modules. The module size and P value of each module

were 112 ($P = 6.6 \times 10^{-35}$, Module_1), 37 ($P = 2.61 \times 10^{-7}$, Module_2), 35 ($P = 1.39 \times 10^{-6}$,

Module_3), 16 ($P = 3.8 \times 10^{-5}$, Module_4), 11 ($P = 0.111$, Module_5), 7 ($P = 0.0592$,

Module_6), 6 ($P = 0.0176$, Module_7), and 6 ($P = 0.0309$, Module_8), respectively.

The subnetworks were imported into Cytoscape [48] for display using the compound

spring embedder layout. The node size was determined by the node degree.

Joint omics analysis of differentially expressed genes and metabolites

To integrate the transcriptomics and metabolomics results, the MSU IDs of the 626

DEGs were first converted to gene symbols using the NCBI "Batch Entrez" tool

(https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/sites/batchentrez). Genes with gene symbols in the

Oryza sativa japonica group (340 genes) were uploaded to the "Joint pathway" analysis

module of MetaboAnalyst 5.0 [56]. Moreover, the annotation information of the 645

peaks was extracted from the results of the pathway enrichment analysis between

Balilla and YB at 15 DAS. The KEGG IDs for 29 compounds in positive mode and 44

compounds in negative mode were uploaded as metabolomics data. "All pathways

(integrated)" was selected as the pathway database. The parameters for enrichment

analysis, topology measure, and integration method were set as hypergeometric test,

degree centrality, and combine queries, respectively.

Analyses of phenotypic and transcriptomic/metabolic data for inbred lines and F_1

hybrids in maize and *Arabidopsis*

The field fresh weight, grain dry matter yield, and grain dry matter content of maize

were obtained from published data in two previous studies [28, 29]. Metabolite profiles

of 3.5-day-old roots and leaves at the third leaf stage were also collected for 210 Dent

and Flint lines and 363 F_1 hybrids in the two studies [28, 29]. The root and leaf

metabolic datasets contained levels of 165 and 81 metabolites, respectively. Since

metabolic data were not available for the parents of some of the F_1 hybrids, the field

fresh weight of 326 F_1 hybrids, which were crossed between 24 Dent lines and 25 Flint

lines, were used for analysis. No further data normalization was performed on the

metabolic data. As reported in the study [28], the field fresh weight of the 326 F_1 hybrids

was recorded in two distinct field tests in 2010 (146 F_1 hybrids) and 2012 (180 F_1

hybrids). In the PLS analysis, the number was set to 100 to ensure a sufficient number

of latent factors, and the number was defined for each regression analysis when the R^2

value (adjusted) peaked. The R^2 values (adjusted) corresponding to different numbers

of latent factors and the greatest R^2 values for hybrid profiles and different inheritance

patterns were used for comparison analysis via ANOVA. Among the 326 F_1 hybrids,

291 F_1 hybrids had recorded data on grain dry matter yield and grain dry matter content

in approximately seven agro-ecologically diverse environments [29]. The root

metabolic data were used for PLS analysis, and the R^2 values (adjusted) were used for

comparison analysis.

The grain yield per plant (in three environments) of 12 maize inbred lines and 66

F_1 hybrids from the inbred lines with a half-diallel design reported in a previous study

[30] was used for analysis. The expression levels of 27,608 genes, which were pan and

core genes in Zheng58, from the 12 inbred lines were also obtained from the study [30].

As described in the study [30], each genotype of the 12 maize ILs had two sets (not

biological replicate) of RNA-seq data, with one set containing equally mixed RNAs

from eight tissues and the other from five tissues at different developmental stages. The

expression data were processed with MetaboAnalyst 5.0 [56], with 40% set as the

percentage for filtering. No data transformation, normalization, or scaling was

performed. In total, 84 DEGs were identified in the 12 inbred lines by ANOVA, with

Fisher's LSD used in post hoc analysis (P value cut-off = 0.05). The average values of

the two sets of RNA sequencing data were used to represent the levels of each inbred

line. The 84 genes were classified according to the previously reported results [30]. The

number of latent factors was set to 50 in the PLS analysis of better-parent heterosis for

grain yield per plant, mid-parent heterosis for grain yield per plant, and grain yield per

plant.

The phenotypes of cotyledon and the first true leaf and transcriptomics data in

Arabidopsis were obtained from a previously published study [31]. The transcriptomics

data were normalized with above mentioned parameters in NetworkAnalyst 3.0.

Differential expression genes between Col-0 and Per-1 at different stages were analyzed

with the limma method, with Log2 fold change at 2 and adjusted *p*-value at 0.0001. The

pooled differential expression genes across stages were treated as differential

expression genes for each tissue. Two-way ANOVA on the normalized levels of DEGs

with genotype and stage as metadata was implemented with MetaboAnalyst 5.0 [56].

The overlapped DEGs of genotype, stage, and their interaction were used for further

analysis. Pearson correlation between expression levels of the DEGs and phenotypes

of cotyledon and the first true leaf was performed to screen the genes and the

significance level was set at 0.05.

Genome sequencing and analysis of genomic data

Seedlings from the 17 rice ILs were ground into fine powder using liquid nitrogen. The

genomic DNA was extracted, and the quality and concentration were assessed by 1%

agarose gel electrophoresis and Qubit 3.0 fluorometer. The DNA libraries (with index

codes) were prepared and sequenced on the Illumina sequencing platform of Novogene

Co., Ltd (Beijing, China). In brief, genomic DNA was randomly fragmented into ~350

bp size via sonication (Covaris). The strands were then added with adapters and used

for PCR amplification. Products were purified with AMPure XP beads (Beckman

Coulter) and the concentrations were measured with Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer.

Libraries were sequenced on the Illumina PE150 platform, and the raw data were

recorded in FASTQ format (> 15 G per sample). After the clean reads were obtained,

the sequences were aligned to the reference genome using the Burrows–Wheeler

Aligner (mem -t 4 -k 32 -M, version 0.7.8-r455) [58]. Dislodged duplications in the

BAM files were removed via SAMtools (rmdup, version 1.3.1) [59]. SNPs and InDels

in each sample were called with the parameters "-C 50 - mpileup -m 2 -F 0.002 -d 1000"

and further filtered to reduce errors (depth of variant > 4 and mapping quality > 20).

CNVs were detected by CNVnator (-call 100, version 0.3) [60], and SVs were detected

by BreakDancer (depth of variant > 2, version 1.4.4) [61]. Variant annotation was

implemented with ANNOVAR [62]. Genomic variants on chromosomes were

visualized by Circos (0.69-9) [63]. To analyse the population structures of the 17 ILs,

GATK (version 4.2.0.0) was first used to filter SNPs (QD < 2, FS > 60, MQ < 40,

MQRankSum < -12.5, ReadPosRankSum < -8) and InDels (QD < 2, FS > 200,

ReadPosRankSum < -20). SNPs and InDels were further filtered with VCFtools

(maximum missing value < 10%, minus allele: 0.05, minimum read depth > 4, multiple

alleles removed, version 0.1.17) and analysed with Plink (version 1.90) and Admixture

(version 1.3.0). When comparing the SNPs and InDels between each pair of samples of

the 17 ILs, the variants were defined as common variants if they shared the same values

for five parameters, including CHROM (chromosome), POS (position of the reference),

REF (reference base), ALT (alternative base) and GT (genotype). Differential variants

were those that were unique to each IL. For CNVs and SVs, variants were defined as

common variants if they shared the same values of CHROM, POS1, POS2, TYPE and

SIZE. The numbers of common and unique variants were counted, and the sums of

unique genomic variants between each pair of ILs were used to represent the genetic

distance. Phylogenetic trees (neighbour-joining method) based on one or multiple types

of genomic variants in the 17 ILs were generated with MEGA (version 10.2.6) [64].

Statistical analyses

Analysis of variance using SPSS 20.0 was performed with the least significant

difference used in the post hoc test to compare the seedling length of the F_1 hybrids

and corresponding parents in Fig. 1A, the seedling length of the F_1 hybrids and

corresponding better parent in Fig. 2A, the predictabilities in Fig. 2Q, the heterosis for

plant height and tiller number at four developmental stages in Fig. 3C, the R^2 values

of heterosis for yield per plant with different inheritance patterns in Fig. 3G, the

greatest R^2 values of heterosis for 17 traits with different inheritance patterns in Fig.

3H, the greatest R^2 values of heterosis for eight traits with different inheritance

patterns in Fig. 3I, the numbers (weighted) of correlations for four types of genomic

variants in Fig. 5C and Fig. S20I, and correlation numbers (weighted) of the three

inheritance patterns in Fig. 5F-I. An independent samples t test was performed to

compare the numbers (weighted) of differentially expressed genes between F_1 hybrids

and corresponding parents in Fig. S1C, percentages of differential molecules between

F_1 hybrids and corresponding parents in parental differences in Fig. S3J, the node

numbers (weighted), predictability, and percentage of Component 1 of three modules

from Subnetwork_1 between Network_51015 and Network_HLN in Fig. 2E-G, the

numbers (weighted) of correlations between five metabolites from phenylpropanoid

biosynthesis and heterosis in Figs. 3F and Fig. S11H, trait values and heterosis for

four traits between the diallel and test cross populations in Fig. S14B and Fig. S14F,

and the numbers (weighted) of correlations for four types of genomic variants in Fig.

5B. Spearman rank correlation was performed between the numbers of genetic

variants and heterosis in Fig. 5A, Figs. 5F-I, Figs. 20A-F, and Figs. 20H. Pearson

correlation analysis (two-tailed) with significance level set at 0.05 was conducted

between gene expression (1,201 genes)/metabolite (1,249 metabolites) levels and

seedling length to screen for heterosis-associated molecules in Fig. S2J and Fig. S4H,

between seedling length and heterosis-associated metabolites from three enriched

metabolic pathways in Fig. 5A, among better-parent heterosis for 17 traits in Fig. 3D,

between three types of inheritance patterns of five metabolites and heterosis in Fig.

3E, and between three types of inheritance patterns for the 50 top contributing

analytes and heterosis in Fig. S20I. Partial least squares regression between gene

expression or metabolite levels and seedling length in Fig. S2J and Fig. S4H, between

parental differential metabolites and heterosis in Fig. 3G-N, Fig. S11I-X, and Fig.

S13A-H were implemented with SPSS. The maximum number of latent factors was

initially set at 100 to extract enough latent factors. The regression model for each trait

was determined when the value of the adjusted R^2 was the highest. The means of

variable importance in the projection of all latent factors were used to estimate the

contributions of each variable, and threshold was set to 1 in Fig. 2I. Partial least

squares-discriminant analysis (PLS-DA) in Fig. 2I, Fig. 2O, and Fig. 2Q was

performed with class order taken into account in MetaboAnalyst 5.0 [56]. The

maximum number of components to be searched was 5 and tenfold cross validation

was chosen. The separation distance (B/W) method was used for permutation analysis

(2,000 times) to assess whether the model was overfitting. Q^2 was chosen as the

predictability in PLS-DA models. Venn diagrams were drawn with the tool from

http://bioinformatics.psb.ugent.be/webtools/Venn/. The phylogenetic tree of the 223

ILs shown in Fig. 3B was based on genotypes and the tree was constructed using

MEGA [64] via the neighbour-joining method. The *indica* genotype, heterozygous

genotype, and *japonica* genotype based on InDel markers were represented by 3, 2,

and 1, respectively. A similarity matrix of the 223 ILs was then derived from

MORPHEUS (https://software.broadinstitute.org/morpheus/) using Euclidean

distance. For each box generated with BoxPlotR [65]

(http://shiny.chemgrid.org/boxplotr/), the central line represents the median, the upper

and lower edges indicate the 75th and 25th percentiles, respectively, and the whiskers

are 1.5× the interquartile range away from the 75th and 25th percentiles. The

statistical source data have been provided in Data S5.

Acknowledgements

The authors thank members of the Zhu lab for assistance in the collection of field

phenotypic data. The authors thank Professor Baorong Lu (Fudan University) for the

design of the diallel cross population. The authors thank Mr. Caibin Zhu for the fund of

rice research. The authors thank Fulin Luo for the planting of rice. The authors thank

Dr. Xiaofei Zeng for suggestions.

Authors' contributions

Z. D. conceived the project and performed most part of the hybridizations. W. H.

collected rice inbred lines. Z. D. and Yunping Chen collected phenotypic data of rice

seedlings, prepared seedling samples for transcriptomics and metabolomics

experiments, and analysed the omics data. Z. D., W. Z. and G. Y. constructed the

diallel cross population and recorded phenotypic data of the hybrid population in

2012. Z. D. and W. H. screened the recombinant inbred lines and constructed the test

cross population. Z. D., Y. X., J. H. and J. M. collected phenotypic data of the hybrid

population in 2015. G. Y. performed the analysis of 223 inbred lines with InDel

markers. Yi Chen participated in the construction of phylogenetic tree for the 223

inbred lines and the preparation of several heatmaps. Z. D., Yunping Chen, and W. H.

wrote the manuscript.

Funding

This work is supported by National Natural Science Foundation of China (31771746 to

W.H., 31801439 to Z.D., and 32101667 to Yunping Chen), the China Postdoctoral

Science Foundation (2018M632910, 2019M660186, and 2022T150500 to Z.D., and

2023T160497 to Yunping Chen), the National Key R&D Program of China

(2017YFD0100400 to W. H.) and the Hubei Agriculture Science and Technology

Innovation Center program to W. H..

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Availability of data and materials

All data are available in the main text or the materials. The genomics and

transcriptomics data reported in this study have been deposited in the NCBI database

under BioProject accession PRJNA1122958. The metabolomics data have been

deposited in the MetaboLights database under MTBL742 and MTBL1344. Source

data are available with this paper.

Supplementary Information

The following materials are available in the online version of this article.

Fig. S1 Transcriptomic differences in two inbred lines (Balilla and Yuetai B) and their

reciprocal F_1 hybrids at three developmental stages.

Fig. S2 The identification of heterosis-associated genes related to seedling length

from the differentially expressed genes between F_1 hybrids and their corresponding

parents.

Fig. S3 Differential metabolites and pathways between parents and between F_1

hybrids and corresponding parents.

Fig. S4 The identification of heterosis-associated metabolites related to seedling

length from differential metabolites between F_1 hybrids and their corresponding

parents.

Fig. S5 Heterosis-associated molecules related to seedling length.

Fig. S6 Validation of 626 heterosis-associated genes and 645 heterosis-associated

metabolites for seedling length.

Fig. S7 Validation of network modules to heterosis for seedling length.

Fig. S8 Score plots of inbred lines, F_1 hybrids, and/or quality controls based on

transcriptomic and/or metabolomic data.

Fig. S9 Inheritance patterns of heterosis-associated molecules for seedling length.

Fig. S10 Phenotypes of seventeen agronomic traits of the diallel cross population.

Fig. S11 Predictive models for heterosis of 16 traits based on three types of inheritance

patterns of 1,306 differential metabolites.

Fig. S12 Phenotypes of eight traits across environments.

Fig. S13 PLS-based predictive models for heterosis of eight traits.

Fig. S14 Cross design and four traits of the test cross population.

Fig. S15 Additive and partially dominant effects contribute to maize heterosis.

Fig. S16 Additive and partially dominant effects contribute to heterosis in *Arabidopsis*.

Fig. S17 SNP and InDel density on 12 chromosomes of 16 rice ILs.

Fig. S18 Genomic variants of 16 rice ILs.

Fig. S19 Population structure and neighbor-joining trees of the 17 rice ILs based on

genomic variants.

Fig. S20 Correlations of genomic variants, heterosis, and different inheritance patterns.

Table S1 Seedling length of six rice inbred lines and corresponding F1 hybrids.

Table S2 Summary of RNA-seq data of rice seedling samples.

Table S3. Summary of genomic data of 17 rice inbred lines.

Data S1 RNA-sequencing result (read count) of six pairs of reciprocal rice F1 hybrids

at seedling stage.

Data S2 Untargeted metabolite profiling result (intensity) of ten pairs of reciprocal rice

F1 hybrids at seedling stage.

Data S3 Genotype of 223 rice inbred lines estimated by 33 pairs of InDel markers.

Data S4 Metabolite profiles of rice inbred lines, recombinant inbred lines, and quality

control samples.

Data S5 Statistical source data.

References

References

1. Birchler JA, Yao H, Chudalayandi S. Unraveling the genetic basis of hybrid vigor. Proc
Natl Acad Sci USA. 2006;103:12957-12958.

2. Shull GH. What is "heterosis"? Genetics. 1948;33:439-446.

3. Birchler JA, Yao H, Chudalayandi S, Vaiman D, Veitia RA. Heterosis. Plant Cell.
2010;22:2105-2112.

4. Hochholdinger F, Baldauf JA. Heterosis in plants. Curr Biol. 2018;28:R1089-R1092.

5. Bruce AB. The Mendelian theory of heredity and the augmentation of vigor. Science.
1910;32:627-628.

6. Jones DF. Dominance of linked factors as a means of accounting for heterosis. Proc Natl
Acad Sci U S A. 1917;3:310-312.

7. Li X, Li X, Fridman E, Tesso TT, Yu J. Dissecting repulsion linkage in the dwarfing gene
Dw3 region for sorghum plant height provides insights into heterosis. Proc Natl Acad Sci
USA. 2015;112:11823-11828.

8. Davenport CB. Degeneration, albinism and inbreeding. Science. 1908;28:454-455.

9. Xiao Y, Jiang S, Cheng Q, Wang X, Yan J, Zhang R, Qiao F, Ma C, Luo J, Li W, et al. The
genetic mechanism of heterosis utilization in maize improvement. Genome Biol.
2021;22:148.

10. East EM. Heterosis. Genetics. 1936;21:375-397.

11. Crow JF. Alternative hypotheses of hybrid vigor. Genetics. 1948;33:477–487.

12. Yu SB, Li JX, Xu CG, Tan YF, Gao YJ, Li XH, Zhang Q, Saghai Maroof MA. Importance of
epistasis as the genetic basis of heterosis in an elite rice hybrid. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA.
1997;94:9226-9231.

13. Li Z, Pinson S, Park W, Paterson A, Stansel J. Epistasis for three grain yield components
in rice (*Oryza sativa* L.). Genetics. 1997;145:453-465.

14. Powers L. An expansion of Jones's theory for the explanation of heterosis. Am Nat.
1944;78:275-280.

15. Schnable PS, Springer NM. Progress toward understanding heterosis in crop plants.
Annu Rev Plant Biol. 2013;64:71-88.

16. Lisec J, Romisch-Margl L, Nikoloski Z, Piepho HP, Giavalisco P, Selbig J, Gierl A,
Willmitzer L. Corn hybrids display lower metabolite variability and complex metabolite
inheritance patterns. Plant J. 2011;68:326-336.

17. Krieger U, Lippman ZB, Zamir D. The flowering gene *SINGLE FLOWER TRUSS* drives

heterosis for yield in tomato**.** Nat Genet. 2010;42**:**459-463.

18. Williams W. Heterosis and the genetics of complex characters**.** Nature. 1959;184**:**527-

530.

19. Dan Z, Hu J, Zhou W, Yao G, Zhu R, Huang W, Zhu Y. Hierarchical additive effects on

heterosis in rice (*Oryza sativa* L.)**.** Front Plant Sci. 2015;6**:**738.

20. Wang Z, Xue Z, Wang T. Differential analysis of proteomes and metabolomes reveals

additively balanced networking for metabolism in maize heterosis**.** J Proteome Res.

2014;13**:**3987-4001.

21. Zhou P, Hirsch CN, Briggs SP, Springer NM. Dynamic patterns of gene expression

additivity and regulatory variation throughout maize development**.** Mol Plant.

2019;12**:**410-425.

22. Dan Z, Chen Y, Li H, Zeng Y, Xu W, Zhao W, He R, Huang W. The metabolomic

landscape of rice heterosis highlights pathway biomarkers for predicting complex

phenotypes**.** Plant Physiol. 2021;187**:**1011-1025.

23. Dan Z, Chen Y, Zhao W, Wang Q, Huang W. Metabolome-based prediction of yield

heterosis contributes to the breeding of elite rice**.** Life Sci Alliance. 2020;3**:**e201900551.

24. Dan Z, Chen Y, Xu Y, Huang JR, Huang JS, Hu J, Yao G, Zhu Y, Huang W. A

metabolome-based core hybridisation strategy for the prediction of rice grain weight

across environments**.** Plant Biotechnol J. 2019;17**:**906-913.

25. Dan Z, Hu J, Zhou W, Yao G, Zhu R, Zhu Y, Huang W. Metabolic prediction of important

agronomic traits in hybrid rice (*Oryza sativa* L.)**.** Sci Rep. 2016;6**:**21732.

26. Sun Z, Peng J, Lv Q, Ding J, Chen S, Duan M, He Q, Wu J, Tian Y, Yu D, et al. Dissecting

the genetic basis of heterosis in elite super-hybrid rice**.** Plant Physiol. 2023;192**:**307-325.

27. Li S, Park Y, Duraisingham S, Strobel FH, Khan N, Soltow QA, Jones DP, Pulendran B.

Predicting network activity from high throughput metabolomics**.** PLoS Comput Biol.

2013;9**:**e1003123.

28. de Abreu ELF, Westhues M, Cuadros-Inostroza Á, Willmitzer L, Melchinger AE, Nikoloski

Z. Metabolic robustness in young roots underpins a predictive model of maize hybrid

performance in the field**.** Plant J. 2017;90**:**319-329.

29. Schrag T, Westhues M, Schipprack W, Seifert F, Thiemann A, Scholten S, Melchinger AE.

Beyond genomic prediction: combining different types of *omics* data can improve

prediction of hybrid performance in maize**.** Genetics. 2018;208**:**1373-1385.

30. Wang B, Hou M, Shi J, Ku L, Song W, Li C, Ning Q, Li X, Li C, Zhao B, et al. De novo
genome assembly and analyses of 12 founder inbred lines provide insights into maize
heterosis**.** Nat Genet. 2023;55**:**312-323.

31. Liu W, He G, Deng XW. Biological pathway expression complementation contributes to
biomass heterosis in Arabidopsis**.** Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2021;118**:**

32. Dan Z, Liu P, Huang W, Zhou W, Yao G, Hu J, Zhu R, Lu B, Zhu Y. Balance between a
higher degree of heterosis and increased reproductive isolation: a strategic design for
breeding inter-subspecific hybrid rice**.** PLoS ONE. 2014;9**:**e93122.

33. Huang X, Yang S, Gong J, Zhao Q, Feng Q, Zhan Q, Zhao Y, Li W, Cheng B, Xia J, et al.
Genomic architecture of heterosis for yield traits in rice**.** Nature. 2016;537**:**629-633.

34. Price ND, Magis AT, Earls JC, Glusman G, Levy R, Lausted C, McDonald DT, Kusebauch
U, Moss CL, Zhou Y, et al. A wellness study of 108 individuals using personal, dense,
dynamic data clouds**.** Nat Biotechnol. 2017;35**:**747-756.

35. Zhang M, Wang Y, Hu Y, Wang H, Liu Y, Zhao B, Zhang J, Fang R, Yan Y. Heterosis in
root microbiota inhibits growth of soil-borne fungal pathogens in hybrid rice**.** J Integr Plant
Biol. 2023;65**:**1059-1076.

36. Xu Y, Zhao Y, Wang X, Ma Y, Li P, Yang Z, Zhang X, Xu C, Xu S. Incorporation of parental
phenotypic data into multi-omic models improves prediction of yield-related traits in hybrid
rice**.** Plant Biotechnol J. 2021;19**:**261-272.

37. Kakoulidou I, Piecyk RS, Meyer RC, Kuhlmann M, Gutjahr C, Altmann T, Johannes F.
Mapping parental DMRs predictive of local and distal methylome remodeling in epigenetic
F1 hybrids**.** Life Sci Alliance. 2024;7**:**

38. Liu N, Du Y, Warburton ML, Xiao Y, Yan J. Phenotypic plasticity contributes to maize
adaptation and heterosis**.** Mol Biol Evol. 2021;38**:**1262-1275.

39. Lu B, Cai X, Jin X. Efficient *indica* and *japonica* rice identification based on the InDel
molecular method:its implication in rice breeding and evolutionary research**.** Progress in
Nature Science. 2009;19**:**1241-1252.

40. Yao G, Huang W. Identifying *indica-japonica* characteristic of rice breeding materials with
indica-japonica differentiation InDel markers**.** Hybrid Rice. 2013;28**:**53-57.

41. Kim D, Langmead B, Salzberg SL. HISAT: a fast spliced aligner with low memory
requirements**.** Nat Methods. 2015;12**:**357-360.

42. Liao Y, Smyth GK, Shi W. featureCounts: an efficient general purpose program for
assigning sequence reads to genomic features**.** Bioinformatics. 2014;30**:**923-930.

43. Zhou G, Soufan O, Ewald J, Hancock REW, Basu N, Xia J. NetworkAnalyst 3.0: a visual

analytics platform for comprehensive gene expression profiling and meta-analysis.

Nucleic Acids Res. 2019;47**:**W234-W241.

44. Chong J, Soufan O, Li C, Caraus I, Li S, Bourque G, Wishart DS, Xia J. MetaboAnalyst

4.0: towards more transparent and integrative metabolomics analysis. Nucleic Acids Res.

2018;46**:**W486-W494.

45. Metsalu T, Vilo J. ClustVis: a web tool for visualizing clustering of multivariate data using

Principal Component Analysis and heatmap. Nucleic Acids Res. 2015;43**:**W566-570.

46. Bindea G, Mlecnik B, Hackl H, Charoentong P, Tosolini M, Kirilovsky A, Fridman WH,

Pages F, Trajanoski Z, Galon J. ClueGO: a Cytoscape plug-in to decipher functionally

grouped gene ontology and pathway annotation networks. Bioinformatics. 2009;25**:**1091-

1093.

47. Bindea G, Galon J, Mlecnik B. CluePedia Cytoscape plugin: pathway insights using

integrated experimental and in silico data. Bioinformatics. 2013;29**:**661-663.

48. Saito R, Smoot ME, Ono K, Ruscheinski J, Wang PL, Lotia S, Pico AR, Bader GD, Ideker

T. A travel guide to Cytoscape plugins. Nat Methods. 2012;9**:**1069-1076.

49. Chen Y, Dan Z, Li S. *GROWTH REGULATING FACTOR 7*-mediated arbutin metabolism

enhances rice salt tolerance. Plant Cell. 2024;

50. Chambers MC, MacLean B, Burke R, Amode D, Ruderman DL, Neumann S, Gatto L,

Fischer B, Pratt B, Egertson J, et al. A cross-platform toolkit for mass spectrometry and

proteomics. Nat Biotechnol. 2012;30**:**918-920

51. Gowda H, Ivanisevic J, Johnson CH, Kurczy ME, Benton HP, Rinehart D, Nguyen T, Ray

J, Kuehl J, Arevalo B, et al. Interactive XCMS Online: simplifying advanced metabolomic

data processing and subsequent statistical analyses. Anal Chem. 2014;86**:**6931-6939.

52. Jia H, Shen X, Guan Y, Xu M, Tu J, Mo M, Xie L, Yuan J, Zhang Z, Cai S, et al. Predicting

the pathological response to neoadjuvant chemoradiation using untargeted metabolomics

in locally advanced rectal cancer. Radiother Oncol. 2018;128**:**548-556.

53. Shen X, Wang R, Xiong X, Yin Y, Cai Y, Ma Z, Liu N, Zhu Z-J. Metabolic reaction network-

based recursive metabolite annotation for untargeted metabolomics. Nat Commun.

2019;10**:**1516.

54. Tu J, Yin Y, Xu M, Wang R, Zhu ZJ. Absolute quantitative lipidomics reveals lipidome-wide

alterations in aging brain. Metabolomics. 2017;14**:**5.

55. Domingo-Almenara X, Montenegro-Burke JR, Ivanisevic J, Thomas A, Sidibe J, Teav T,

Guijas C, Aisporna AE, Rinehart D, Hoang L, et al. XCMS-MRM and METLIN-MRM: a

cloud library and public resource for targeted analysis of small molecules**.** Nat Methods.

2018;15**:**681-684.

56. Pang Z, Zhou G, Ewald J, Chang L, Hacariz O, Basu N, Xia J. Using MetaboAnalyst 5.0

for LC-HRMS spectra processing, multi-omics integration and covariate adjustment of

global metabolomics data**.** Nat Protoc. 2022;

57. Zhou G, Ewald J, Xia J. OmicsAnalyst: a comprehensive web-based platform for visual

analytics of multi-omics data**.** Nucleic Acids Res. 2021;

58. Li H, Durbin R. Fast and accurate short read alignment with Burrows-Wheeler transform**.**

Bioinformatics. 2009;25**:**1754-1760.

59. Li H, Handsaker B, Wysoker A, Fennell T, Ruan J, Homer N, Marth G, Abecasis G, Durbin

R, Genome Project Data Processing S. The Sequence Alignment/Map format and

SAMtools**.** Bioinformatics. 2009;25**:**2078-2079.

60. Abyzov A, Urban AE, Snyder M, Gerstein M. CNVnator: an approach to discover,

genotype, and characterize typical and atypical CNVs from family and population genome

sequencing**.** Genome Res. 2011;21**:**974-984.

61. Chen K, Wallis JW, McLellan MD, Larson DE, Kalicki JM, Pohl CS, McGrath SD, Wendl

MC, Zhang Q, Locke DP, et al. BreakDancer: an algorithm for high-resolution mapping of

genomic structural variation**.** Nat Methods. 2009;6**:**677-681.

62. Wang K, Li M, Hakonarson H. ANNOVAR: functional annotation of genetic variants from

high-throughput sequencing data**.** Nucleic Acids Res. 2010;38**:**e164.

63. Krzywinski M, Schein J, Birol I, Connors J, Gascoyne R, Horsman D, Jones SJ, Marra

MA. Circos: an information aesthetic for comparative genomics**.** Genome Res.

2009;19**:**1639-1645.

64. Stecher G, Tamura K, Kumar S. Molecular Evolutionary Genetics Analysis (MEGA) for

macOS**.** Mol Biol Evol. 2020;37**:**1237-1239.

65. Spitzer M, Wildenhain J, Rappsilber J, Tyers M. BoxPlotR: a web tool for generation of

box plots**.** Nat Methods. 2014;11**:**121-122.

1013

1014

1015

1016

1017

Figures

Fig. 1 Heterosis-associated genes and metabolites related to rice seedling length. (**A**)
Seedlings and seedling length of Balilla, Yuetai B (YB), and their reciprocal F_1
hybrids at 5, 10, and 15 days after sowing (DAS). The significance level was set at
0.05. Scale bar = 5 cm. (**B**) PCA score plot of Balilla, YB, and their F_1 hybrids using
the normalized expression levels of 22,194 genes. (**C**) Venn diagram of differentially
expressed genes (DEGs) at 15 DAS. The numbers in red represent the number of
DEGs that are parental DEGs. (**D**) PCA score plot of Balilla, YB, and their F_1 hybrids
based on the expression levels of 626 heterosis-associated genes (HAGs). (**E**) Gene
Ontology analysis of 626 HAGs. The significantly enriched terms with colours are
from parental differential terms. (**F**) Network of 37 HAGs from 12 terms. The
expression levels of each gene in the four genotypes at three stages are shown and the
percentages of genes associated with a term are indicated. Genes with up- and
downregulated expression levels in F_1 hybrids are marked with green and blue outer
circles, respectively. (**G**) PCA score plot of Balilla, YB, and their F_1 hybrids based on
normalized metabolite levels of 10,522 metabolites. (**H**) Venn diagram of differential
metabolic pathways in positive ion mode. The numbers in red are the number of
pathways among the parental differential pathways. (**I**) PCA score plot based on 645
heterosis-associated metabolites (HAMs). (**J**) Three significantly enriched pathways
of HAMs in positive ion mode. (**K**) Five significantly enriched pathways integrating
heterosis-associated genes and metabolites.

1040

Fig. 2 Inheritance patterns of heterosis-associated genes and metabolites. (**A**)
Seedlings and seedling length of nine pairs of reciprocal F_1 hybrids. *P* values indicate
the least significant difference in the post hoc test for the seedling length of the F_1
hybrid compared with that of its better parent. (**B**) Cross design of six inbred lines
(ILs). (**C-D**) Subnetworks integrating heterosis-associated genes and metabolites.
Subnetwork_1 of Network_51015 (**C**) and that of Network_HLN (**D**) contain 2,138
and 868 edges, respectively. The node size is determined by the node degree. (**E-G**)
Comparisons of Subnetwork_1 from Network_51015 and Network_HLN. Node
number (**E**), predictability (**F**), and percentage of Component 1 (**G**) are compared for
the top three modules. *P* values are for independent samples *t* test. (**H-I**) Score plots
of six pairs of reciprocal F_1 hybrids based on 68 heterosis-associated molecules in
PCA (**H**) and PLS-DA (**I**). (**J**) Scores of variable importance in projection of
Component 1. (**K-L**) Heatmap (**K**) and PCA score plot (**L**) based on the 68 heterosis-
associated molecules. (**M**) Distribution of four types of inheritance patterns. NA
represents inheritance patterns outside the four types. (**N**) Percentages of the four
types of inheritance patterns. (**O**) Performance of the additive effect. (**P**)
Determinations of two subtypes of partially dominant effects. (**Q**) Predictabilities (Q^2)
of hybrid metabolite profiles (F_1), three types of inheritance patterns, and their
combinations. (**R**) Pearson correlations between better-parent heterosis (BPH) for
seedling length and the percentages of inheritance patterns.

Fig. 3 Additive and partially dominant effects contribute to heterosis of agronomic traits in both rice and maize. (**A**) Plants and panicles of 17 rice inbred lines (ILs). Scale bars represent 50 cm and 10 cm for plants and panicles, respectively. (**B**) Neighbour-joining tree of 223 rice ILs. (**C**) Better-parent heterosis (BPH) for 17 traits. (**D**) Correlations of BPH for 17 traits. The asterisks indicate significant correlations ($P < 0.05$). (**E**) Correlations between three inheritance patterns of five chemically identified metabolites and BPH. (**F**) Correlation numbers of additive, partially dominant (PD), and dominant effects on 17 traits. P values indicate independent samples t tests. (**G**) R^2 values of PLS-based predictive models for heterosis of grain yield per plant (YPP) with different inheritance patterns of 1,306 differential metabolites. (**H**) Top R^2 for heterosis of 17 traits. (**I**) Top R^2 values for heterosis of eight traits. (**J**) R^2 values for heterosis of four traits. (**K**) Top R^2 values for field fresh weight with hybrid profiles (F_1) and different inheritance patterns of metabolic data in maize. Metabolite profiles of root and leaf samples were used for two hybrid populations in 2010 and 2012. (**L**) Top R^2 values for grain dry matter yield and grain dry matter content with root metabolic data in maize. (**M**) R^2 for BPH_YPP with different inheritance patterns of 84 differentially expressed genes of 12 maize ILs. (**N**) Top R^2 for BPH_YPP, MPH_YPP (mid-parent heterosis), and YPP in maize. The R^2 are with adjusted values.

1081

Fig. 4 Genomic variants of 17 rice inbred lines. (**A**) Genomic variants of Yuetai B.

Chromosome position, SNP density, InDel density, CNV duplication position, CNV

deletion position, SV insertion position, SV deletion position, and SV inversion

position are listed from the outer to inner circles. (**B-C**) Heatmaps of SNP (**B**) and

InDel (**C**) density of Yuetai B. (**D**) Cross-validation errors with K ranging from 1 to

10 based on SNPs. (**E**) Population structure of 17 rice ILs based on SNPs. (**F**)

Neighbour-joining tree of 17 ILs based on SNPs.

1089

Fig. 5 Parental genomic variants are associated with additive and partially dominant effects. **(A)** Heatmap of correlations between parental genomic variants and heterosis of 17 traits. **(B)** Correlation numbers of parental unique and common genomic variants. *P* value indicates independent samples *t* test. **(C)** Correlation numbers of different types of parental unique genomic variants. **(D)** Scatter plot between the numbers of parental unique InDels and heterosis for grain number per plant and seed setting rate. *P* value indicates Spearman rank correlation. **(E)** Quadratic regression between the number of parental unique InDels and heterosis for grain yield per plant. **(F-I)** Correlation numbers of parental unique InDels **(F)**, SNPs **(G)**, CNVs **(H)**, and SVs **(I)**.

Fig. 6 Model for the contribution of additive effect to positive heterosis of a complex trait in rice. The unique SNP and SV in parents regulate grain number and grain weight, respectively. Meanwhile, these genomic variants are associated with transcriptomic and metabolomic additive effects in F_1 hybrids. The grain number and grain weight of F_1 hybrids are at the mid-parent values because they are correlated with the levels of corresponding heterosis-associated molecules. Owing to the interaction between grain number and grain weight which determines grain yield, positive yield heterosis occurs when its two component traits have suitable values.