Additive and partially dominant effects contribute to crop heterosis

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Abstract

The molecular mechanisms of heterosis remain debated due to discrepancies in factors such as species, phenotypes, hybrid populations, developmental stages or growth environments. Here, heterosis-associated genes and metabolites were screened from differential molecules in parents, and the main inheritance patterns of these molecules were additive and partially dominant effects, namely, at the middle parent levels and between the parental and middle parent levels. The additive and partially dominant effects contributed to heterosis of 17 rice agronomic traits, including grain yield and plant height across developmental stages, and to heterosis of F_1 hybrids from different populations or environments in both rice and maize. Furthermore, the two inheritance patterns were associated with parental genomic variants, particularly unique single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) and insertions/deletions (InDels), which were correlated with heterosis of agronomic traits. Our study systematically integrates parental genetic variation and highlights the predominant genetic effects of additive and partially dominant in crop heterosis.

Introduction

Heterosis describes the universal phenomenon of heterozygous F_1 hybrids outperforming their parents in a variety of phenotypes[1-3], including yield, growth rate, resistance to stress in plants, milk or meat production in animals, and production in yeast. In plants, heterosis was first scientifically reported by Charles Darwin[4]. The utilization of heterosis to increase crop yield and alleviate food shortages has been

treated as a landmark innovation in modern agriculture[5]. However, the molecular

mechanisms of heterosis for agronomic traits, especially complex traits and traits that

occur at different developmental stages or in different environments, remain mysterious.

The dominance (pseudo-overdominance)[6-10], overdominance[11,12], and epistasis

models[13-15], which emphasize complementation, heterozygosity, and interactions of loci,

respectively, have been proposed to interpret heterosis. The molecular mechanisms of

crop heterosis are still under debate because the conclusions of various studies differ

across species, phenotypes, populations, developmental stages or growth environments.

Four terms have been used to quantitatively describe the inheritance patterns of

hybrid phenotypes or molecules[16,17], including additive (middle parent values, MPVs),

dominant (parental values), partially dominant (between parental values and MPVs),

and overdominant (outside parental values) effects. The potential connection between

additive effect and heterosis has been inferred in several studies. The additive effect of

the component traits in a multiplicative interaction manner has been suggested to be the

genetic basis of heterosis for complex traits, including tomato and rice yield[18,19].

SINGLE FLOWER TRUSS, the expression level of which exhibits a near-additive effect,

drives strong yield heterosis in tomato F_1 hybrids[20]. The additive effect of proteins

involved in amino acid and carbohydrate metabolism or differentially expressed genes

in parents is associated with maize heterosis[21,22]. The additive effect of metabolite

concentrations explains variances in yield and yield-related traits in rice F_1 hybrids[23-26].

Moreover, partially dominant effect of genetic factors or component traits has also been

suggested to underlie heterosis[7,15,18,27].

Here, we investigated the molecular mechanisms of heterosis for seedling length

and 17 additional key agronomic traits in rice. Through the systematic identification of

heterosis-associated genes and metabolites, the proportions and contributions of the

four types of inheritance patterns in seedling length were analysed. Given the close

relationship between seedling length and plant height, the two main inheritance patterns,

namely, additive and partially dominant effects, were subsequently validated to

multiple agronomic traits of both rice and maize F_1 hybrids from different hybrid

populations under distinct environments. Furthermore, unique genomic variants in

parents that were correlated with heterosis of agronomic traits were associated with the

two main inheritance patterns.

Results

Heterosis-associated genes and metabolites of rice seedlings mainly originate from differential molecules 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 and Extended Data Fig. 1a). Better-parent heterosis (BPH) for seedling length was observed in one of the reciprocal F_1 hybrids as early as 5 DAS, and seedling length heterosis 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 (Extended Data Fig. 1b), highlighting the contributions of genotype and stage to seedling length.

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 and Extended Data Fig. 1c). 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 (Extended Data Figs. 1d-e). Unlike the pooled non-DEGs (NDEGs) (Extended Data Fig. 1f), 66.6% of the sample variance in genotypes was explained by principal component 1 (PC1), which was based on the DEGs (Extended Data Fig. 1g). 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 Extended Data Figs. 1h-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 (Extended Data Figs. 1k-p), indicating that the reconstruction of the hybrid transcriptomes was predominantly determined by parental expression differences.

The 1,476 DEGs that overlapped for genotype, stage, and their interaction were selected, and 275 DEGs that differed only between the two parents or between reciprocal F_1 hybrids were excluded from the analysis (Extended Data Figs. 2a-g). The remaining 952 upregulated and 249 downregulated DEGs in the F_1 hybrids were associated with 17 terms, ten of which were also differentially expressed terms in the

parents (Extended Data Figs. 2h-i). Next, 626 heterosis-associated genes (HAGs)

related specifically to seedling length were then identified, 499 positively and 127

negatively correlated (Extended Data Figs. 2j-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 (Fig. 1e), and these terms formed a complete network with the bridge of

heme binding (Fig. 1f), 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 and Supplementary Fig. 1a). A decreasing trend in the

number of differential metabolites (DMs) was clearly observed (Supplementary Figs.

1b-c). In contrast to the mixed distribution of the parents, F_1 hybrids, and "additive

hybrids" according to the pooled non-DM (NDM, Supplementary Fig. 1d), genotypic

differences were clearly observed according to the DMs (Supplementary Fig. 1e).

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 (Supplementary Figs. 1f-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 Supplementary Figs. 1k-u). Thus, we

concluded that both the transcriptomic and metabolomic variation between F_1 hybrids

and parents were determined mainly by the molecular differences in corresponding

parents.

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

related to seedling length (Extended Data Figs. 3a-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[28] were significantly enriched in three

pathways, and other chemically identified metabolites from these three pathways had

either positive or negative correlations with seeding length (Fig. 1j and Supplementary

Fig. 2a). Three of the six accurately annotated metabolites from the phenylpropanoid

biosynthesis had normalized metabolite levels and were correlated with the seedling

length of F_1 hybrids (Extended Data Figs. 3n-v), suggesting a connection between

phenylpropanoid biosynthesis and seedling length heterosis.

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 (Supplementary Fig. 2b), confirming the combined
contributions of genes and metabolites involved in phenylpropanoid biosynthesis to
seedling length heterosis.

The integration of differentially expressed genes and metabolites in parents
explains the variance in heterosis

Another nine pairs of reciprocal F_1 hybrids, which were divided into three groups—
high, low, and no BPH for seedling length—were used to validate the HAGs and HAMs
(Figs. 2a-b). The 626 HAGs failed to separate the three groups in both the PCA and the
partial least squares-discriminant analysis (PLS-DA) (Supplementary Figs. 3a-d). The
645 HAMs did not classify the three groups according to PCA (Supplementary Fig. 3e),
but they separated the high BPH group from the other two groups without overfitting
according to PLS-DA (Supplementary Figs. 3f-h). Thus, the HAGs or HAMs for a
single hybrid combination manifested predictive power for heterosis of other F_1 hybrids.

The HAGs and HAMs were subsequently integrated into a network
(Network_51015), and the largest subnetwork (subnetwork_1) contained 2,138 edges,
including 61.8% and 38.2% positive and negative correlations, respectively, with 211
HAGs and 196 HAMs as nodes (Fig. 2c). In contrast to the decreasing trend in the
parents, the coefficients of module levels (average node levels) and seedling length
remained greater than 0.95 in the hybrids (Supplementary Figs. 4a-c), indicating the
robustness of the top three modules to heterosis for seedling length. The high and no
BPH groups were not separated by either Module_1 or Module_3 in PCA but were
separated by Module_2 (Supplementary Figs. 4d-f). 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 (Supplementary Figs. 4g-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 roughly divided the three groups of
F_1 hybrids according to PC1 and PC4, whereas the 990 DMs failed to separate the
groups (Supplementary Figs. 5a-h). The 967 DEGs displayed better separations in PLS-

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

(Supplementary Figs. 5d,h). The combination of DEGs and DMs separated the three

groups according to PC1 and PC4, but the model was overfitted in PLS-DA

(Supplementary Figs. 5i-l). Next, another network (Network_HLN) integrating the 967

DEGs and 990 DMs was constructed and the largest subnetwork (subnetwork_1)

contained 868 edges consisting of 97 DEGs and 149 DMs (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 the variance

explained by Component 1 were larger in Network_HLN (Fig. 2g). The predictabilities

of the first modules in Network_51015 and Network_HLN were close (Extended Data

Figs. 4a-f). However, Network_HLN had 113 molecules, much fewer than the 150

molecules in Network_51015, demonstrating the advantage of informative molecules

from multiple ILs with different genetic backgrounds. The combination of Module_1

and Module_2 further increased the predictability to 0.94 (Extended Data Figs. 4g-h),

whereas the addition of Module_3 did not improve the predictability (Extended Data

Figs. 4i-j). Thus, the integration of parental transcriptomic and metabolomic differences

into network modules explained the variance in heterosis for seedling length.

Most heterosis-associated molecules display 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 Extended Data Fig. 4k), but the HAGs and HAMs 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

Extended Data Fig. 4l). Additive and partially dominant effects accounted for more than

70% of the molecular levels in most of the F_1 hybrids (Fig. 2n and Extended Data Figs.

4m-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 that of the 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.

Additive and partially dominant effects contribute to the heterosis of 17 agronomic

traits in rice

We then measured plant height for the above F_1 hybrids at four developmental stages

and detected significant positive correlations both between seedling length and plant

height and between seedling length heterosis and plant height heterosis (Extended Data

Figs. 5a-b), revealing close relationships of the same trait across developmental stages.

A hybrid population with a complete diallel cross design was constructed for 17

ILs (Figs. 3a-b and Extended Data Figs. 5c-d), which were representative of 223

accessions, including *indica*, intermediate types, and *japonica*. Seventeen agronomic

traits were measured, and 14 traits presented higher trait values in the 245 F_1 hybrids

than in their parents (Extended Data Figs. 5e-f). The average BPH values for only four

traits were less than zero (Fig. 3c), indicating increased fitness of the F_1 hybrids to ILs.

The values of the 17 traits had different correlation patterns between the ILs and F_1

hybrids, and heterosis for the 17 traits displayed a similar correlation pattern to that of

the corresponding ILs (Fig. 3d and Extended Data Figs. 5g-h).

After the metabolite profiles of the 17 ILs were obtained (Extended Data Fig. 6a),

different inheritance patterns of five chemically identified metabolites from the

phenylpropanoid biosynthesis displayed significant correlations with heterosis for plant

height (Fig. 3e and Extended Data Figs. 6b-f). 4-hydroxycinnamic acid, which is

associated with heterosis for plant height[23], was significantly correlated with plant

height heterosis and had decreased correlation coefficients across developmental stages

(Extended Data Fig. 6g). Importantly, additive and partially dominant effects were more

strongly correlated with plant height heterosis than the dominant effects (Extended Data

Fig. 6h), even after the inclusion of another 13 traits (Fig. 3f). Therefore, the

phenylpropanoid biosynthesis was closely related to heterosis and additive and partially

dominant effects might be the main inheritance patterns for heterosis of multiple

agronomic traits.

Next, the three types of inheritance patterns of the 1,306 differential metabolites

from 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 Extended Data Figs. 6i-x). Moreover, 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). Therefore, we thought that additive and partially dominant effects were the

main inheritance patterns associated with the heterosis of 17 agronomic traits.

A test cross population was designed with the Honglian-type male sterile line

Yuetai A and 211 recombinant inbred lines (RILs) as the female and the male parents,

respectively (Extended Data Fig. 7a). The F_1 hybrids and corresponding parents

exhibited significant differences in three of the four traits (Extended Data Figs. 7b-e),

and the test crosses exhibited negative BPH only for heading date (Extended Data Fig.

7f). The metabolite profiles of 107 representative RILs and Yuetai A were collected for

predicting heterosis (Extended Data Figs. 7g-h), and the R^2 values were greater than

0.85 with five latent factors (Fig. 3i). Thus, the differential metabolites of representative

ILs were robust biomarkers for the heterosis of F_1 hybrids from recombinant inbred

lines.

Eight traits of the 17 ILs and 36 F_1 hybrids from the diallel cross population were

recollected, and significant differences between environments were observed for most

of the traits (Supplementary Fig. 6a). In contrast, heterosis for six of the eight traits

displayed no significant variation (Supplementary Fig. 6b). 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. 3j and Supplementary Figs. 7a-

h). Hence, the additive and partially dominant effects contributed more than dominant effects to the heterosis of eight agronomic traits across environments.

Finally, we changed the growth conditions of the 17 ILs and obtained another set of metabolite profiles (Supplementary Figs. 8a-c). Consistent with the above results, additive and partially dominant effects of the 2,391 differential metabolites had higher R^2 values than did the dominant effects (Supplementary Figs. 8d-u). The results confirmed that additive and partially dominant effects were the main inheritance patterns underlying the heterosis of key agronomic traits.

The main inheritance patterns of maize heterosis are additive and partially dominant effects

To investigate the contributions of additive and partially dominant effects to the heterosis of agronomic traits in maize, the field fresh weight of two hybrid populations[29], which significantly differ under distinct growth environments (Extended Data Figs. 8a-b), and the 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 (Extended Data Figs. 8c-j). For the top R^2 values, additive and partially dominant effects were comparable to that of the hybrid profiles and were greater than the dominant effects (Fig. 3k). Moreover, additive and partially dominant effects 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[30] (Fig. 3l and Extended Data Figs. 8k-n).

Moreover, the grain yield per plant of another maize hybrid population[31], which exhibited strong yield heterosis, and the transcript levels of 84 DEGs (mainly core genes) in 12 ILs were obtained for analysis (Extended Data Figs. 8o-q). The additive effect had the highest R^2 values in PLS models for hybrid yield and yield heterosis (Fig. 3m and Extended Data Figs. 8r-s), and the R^2 values of the additive and partially dominant effects were greater than those of the dominant effects (Fig. 3n). We therefore thought that the main inheritance patterns underlying the heterosis of maize agronomic traits were additive and partially dominant effects.

Unique genomic variants in parents are associated with both the main inheritance patterns and heterosis

Genomic sequencing was performed on seedlings of the 17 rice ILs, and four types of genomic variants, including single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs), insertions and

deletions (InDels), copy number variations (CNVs), and structural variations (SVs), were collected (Figs. 4a-c). Compared with the Nipponbare genome, the 17 ILs presented fewer genetic differences from *indica* to *japonica* (Extended Data Figs. 9a-p and Supplementary Figs. 9a-p). The 17 ILs had the lowest cross-validation errors with two groups and showed similar clustering patterns with different types of genomic variants (Figs. 4d-f and Supplementary Figs. 10a-i), which were almost consistent with those of the metabolite profiles (Fig. 4g). Thus, the genomic data revealed genetic diversity of the 17 ILs and genomic variants was reflected accordingly by differences in metabolite profiles.

The genomic variants between the two parents of each F_1 were divided into common and unique ones, and the number of parental unique variants had higher correlation coefficients with heterosis for plant height than with heterosis for the other traits (Figs. 4h and Extended Data Figs. 10a-b). The parental unique variants also exhibited more correlations with heterosis than the common ones did (Fig. 4i). Furthermore, unique SNPs and InDels exhibited more correlations with heterosis than the unique CNVs and SVs did (Fig. 4j). 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. 4k and Extended Data Figs. 10c-e), revealing the barrier of reproductive isolation in the utilization of yield heterosis between *indica* and *japonica* varieties[32]. The opposing trends of heterosis for grain number and the seed setting rate caused the heterosis for grain yield to form a parabola (Fig. 4l and Extended Data Figs. 10f-h). These results indicated that the unique genomic variants of the parents were associated with heterosis for agronomic traits and that the heterosis for grain yield was genetically determined by the inverse relationship between its two component traits.

The three types of inheritance patterns of the top 50 contributing metabolites for heterosis of each trait were used to perform correlation analysis with the numbers of parental unique variants, and the metabolites with additive and partially dominant effects exhibited more correlations with heterosis than those with dominant effects (Extended Data Fig. 10i). Unexpectedly, the additive and partially dominant effects also exhibited more correlations with all four types of parental unique variants (Fig. 4m and Extended Data Figs. 10j-l). Thus, parental unique genomic variants were strongly

327 associated with heterosis-associated metabolites with additive and partially dominant

328 effects. Finally, a model integrating parental genetic variation in genomics,

329 transcriptomics, and metabolomics was proposed to show the contribution of additive

330 effect to positive better-parent heterosis of a complex trait (Fig. 4n).

Discussion

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

century, and no consensus has been reached to date. The mysterious molecular

mechanisms of heterosis may be due to the large number of heterosis-associated

molecules, including genes[1,3,16,33], metabolites or other molecules. Heterosis-associated

genes with strong functions[20] are rarely reported, and mutations in single heterosis-

associated genes may be difficult to drive the expected changes in heterosis. The

regulation of gene expression levels for one pathway or network module is worthy of

further study, as heterosis-associated molecules are always interconnected.

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, e.g., grain number and grain weight, which are always

negatively correlated. The component traits also include component traits, e.g., the

number of branches and grain length. It is therefore necessary to decompose the

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

may be fruitful. Moreover, non-differential molecules may also be involved in heterosis

as they can be responsible for component traits without heterosis.

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

heterosis and they contribute to heterosis of different traits across hybrid populations,

developmental stages, growth environments, detection platforms of omics data, and

even species. The additive effect, namely, the average parental levels, 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[23-26], which all contribute to the

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

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

the genetic diversity of which can be assessed by untargeted metabolite profiles, should

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

obtaining metabolite profiles from corresponding tissues or mixed tissues[22], other types

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

of the variance. Furthermore, the determination of the effects of parental genomic

variants on changes in hybrid transcriptomics or metabolomics using pan- or spatial

omics strategies will provide a more comprehensive landscape of the molecular

mechanisms of crop heterosis.

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[26].

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[19,23-26,32], 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

Three 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[24], 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$_2$O 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$_2$O was added to each tube for normal growth.

The third batch in 2020 (Batch_2020) included the 17 ILs, 9311, and Nipponbare. The germinated seeds were sown into 96-well PCR plates (bottomless), with one genotype occupying half a plate. The plates were placed in plastic basins and Yoshida nutrient solution (pH = 5.5, 4 L/basin) was provided for growth. Plants were grown at 30 ± 2 °C under a 16 h light/8 h dark photoperiod in a light culture room (State Key Laboratory of Hybrid Rice, Wuhan University). The nutrient solution was replaced every 3 days. On the 15th day, five plants were selected from the middle parts of each row, and another ten plants were obtained from the other two rows; these plants were treated as three biological replicates. The roots were discarded, and the seedling bases were washed three times with ddH$_2$O. The seedling samples were then frozen in liquid nitrogen. 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

≤ 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[24,49]. 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.

The tissues of each biological replicate of the seedling samples in Batch_2020 were

first ground into fine powder using a CryoMill (precooled for 2 min, Retsch) for 4 min

at 20 Hz. Next, 50 mg of powder was transferred to 2 mL EP tubes on ice. After adding

400 µL of methanol (with internal standards) to each tube and vortexing for 1 min, the

samples were ultrasonicated for 15 min and centrifuged at 14,000 g for 15 min at 4 °C.

The 200 µL supernatants were transferred to new EP tubes and dried in a vacuum

concentrator (Labconco). Finally, 100 µL of methanol (methanol/water, 1/4, Merck)

was added to the tubes to dissolve the powder for subsequent LC–MS profiling. A

quality control sample was prepared by pooling portions of the experimental samples

and subjected to the same treatments as those used for the experimental samples.

Methanol (methanol/water, 1/4) was used as the blank sample and was injected as the

first sample and every 20 samples thereafter. The quality control sample was injected

as the second and third samples and every 8 experimental samples thereafter. After all

the experimental samples were randomly analysed, the quality control sample was

injected at the end of the instrument run.

The experimental, quality control, and blank samples were analysed using a Vanquish UHPLC system coupled to a Q-Exactive plus mass spectrometer (Thermo Scientific) at Dalian ChemDataSolution Information Technology Co. Ltd[56]. The LC system was equipped with BEH C8 (1.7 μm, 2.1 mm × 100 mm, Waters) and HSS T3 (1.8 μm, 2.1 mm × 100 mm, Waters) columns in ESI positive and negative ion mode, respectively. The injection volume was 10 μL, the column temperature was 50 °C, and the flow rate was 0.35 mL/min in both ion modes. Water (with 0.1% formic acid) and acetonitrile (with 0.1% formic acid) were Regents A and B, respectively, in positive ion mode. The gradient elution steps were as follows: 0-1 min, 5% B; 1-24 min, linear increase to 100% B; 24.1-27.5 min, 100% B; and 27.6-30 min, decrease to 5% B. Meanwhile, water (with 6.5 mM ammonium bicarbonate) and 95% methanol (with 6.5 mM ammonium bicarbonate) were Regents A and B, respectively, in negative ion mode. The corresponding elution procedures were as follows: 0-1 min, 5% B; 1-18 min, linearly increased to 100% B; 18.1-22 min, 100% B; and 22.1-25 min, reduced to 5% B. A full scan was used to acquire the MS data and data-dependent acquisition was used to acquire the MS2 data. The ion spray voltages in positive and negative ion modes were + 3.8 kV and - 3.0 kV, respectively. The other parameters in both modes were set as follows: capillary temperature, 320 °C; aux gas heater temperature, 350 °C; sheath gas flow rate, 35 arb; aux gas flow rate, 8 arb; S-lens RF level, 50; mass range, 70-1,050 Da; full MS resolution, 70,000; MS/MS resolution, 17,500; Top N, 5; and stepped collision energy, 20, 40 eV. All metabolite profiles were acquired using Xcalibur 4.2 (Thermo Scientific). The raw data were processed by XCMS (version 3.10.1) to extract peaks with the following parameters in both ion modes: ppm = 20; fragments of MS2 = 50; snthresh = 3; prefilterK = 4; minpeakwidth = 5; method = obiwrap; time = second; mzwid = 0.015; and bw1= 15 and bw2 = 5. The maximum peak width was set to 30 and 25 in positive and negative mode, respectively. The prefilter values were 20,000 and 50,000 in positive and negative mode, respectively. SVR was chosen to correct the data. The 57 experimental samples, namely, 19 ILs with three biological replicates each, were divided into two groups. Metabolic features with zero values were removed if their percentage was greater than 20% in each group. Peaks with relative standard deviations greater than 50% in the QC samples were also removed and peak annotation was implemented using the one-map platform. The threshold for errors in RT was 10 s. The tolerances for errors in m/z of MS1 and MS2 for matching with the corresponding

MS were 0.005 and 0.01 Da, respectively. The lowest peak purity was set at 0.5. The m/z deviation of MS2 was set to 0.005 for ion fusion. The reference noise fold and the ratio of the fragment with the highest intensity were set to 1 and 0.01, respectively, for filtering MS2. The reference noise of the unknown and standard MS2 to be removed was 1 and 200, respectively. The minimum number of nearby fragments to merge peak clusters was 2 and the error in m/z was 0.005. Three metabolite libraries, including standards, KEGG, and integrated open-source databases, were used for peak annotation at three MSI levels (levels 1-3). The forward scoring method was selected, and the threshold of the score was set to 0.3 when searching the standards and KEGG databases. The score threshold was increased to 0.4 when searching the integrated open-source database. The combinations of RT-MS1-MS2, MS1-MS2, and RT-MS1 were used for annotation. The RT threshold was 15 s. The m/z error thresholds for MS1 and MS2 were 0.01 and 0.05 Da, respectively. The maximum number of fragments to be examined was 20. The top ten candidate metabolites were obtained, and the metabolite with the highest score was selected for further analysis.

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[57] 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[57] (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[57]. For the normalization of the 19 ILs, sum, none, and autoscaling were also selected. As three metabolic profiles of the QC sample were not acquired, there were only seven metabolic profiles of the QC sample in negative mode. There were ten metabolic profiles of the QC sample in positive mode. To merge the metabolic profiles detected in both positive and negative modes, three metabolic profiles of the QC sample, namely QC103.2, QC2, and QC63, were not merged. The remaining seven QC samples were merged accordingly, namely, QC101 to QC301, QC102 to QC302, QC103 to QC303, QC 104 to QC304, QC201 to QC401, QC203 to QC402, and QC204 to QC403. For the metabolite levels of the 19 ILs in the regression analysis, the obtained intensities of three biological replicates were first averaged and then normalized.

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 $PD = (F_1-P_2)/(P_1-P_2)$, 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×(P_f-P_m) and PD_0.7 = P_m+0.7×(P_f-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[57]. 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[28] (*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[57], 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[58]. 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) 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 ($P = 2.34 \times 10^{-21}$, 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.

793 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[57]. 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.

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

806 hybrids in maize

The field fresh weight, grain dry matter yield, and grain dry matter content were

obtained from published data in two previous studies[29,30]. 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[29,30]. 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[29], 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[30]. 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[31]

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[31]. As

described in the study[31], 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[57], 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[31]. The number of latent

factors was set to 50 in the PLS analysis of better-parent heterosis for grain yield per

plant, middle parent heterosis for grain yield per plant, and grain yield per plant.

Genome sequencing and analysis of genomic data

Seedlings from the 17 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)[59]. Dislodged duplications in the BAM

files were removed via SAMtools (rmdup, version 1.3.1)[60]. 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)[61], and SVs were detected by

BreakDancer (depth of variant > 2, version 1.4.4)[62]. Variant annotation was

implemented with ANNOVAR[63]. Genomic variants on chromosomes were visualized

by Circos (0.69-9)[64]. 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)[65].

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.

3j, the greatest R^2 values of heterosis for 17 traits with different inheritance patterns in

Supplementary Fig. 8u, the numbers (weighted) of correlations for four types of genomic variants in Fig. 4m and Extended Data Fig. 10i, and correlation numbers (weighted) of the three inheritance patterns in Extended Data Figs. 10j-l. An independent samples t test was performed to compare the numbers (weighted) of differentially expressed genes between F_1 hybrids and corresponding parents in Extended Data Fig. 1c, percentages of differential molecules between F_1 hybrids and corresponding parents in parental differences in Supplementary Fig. 1j, the node numbers (weighted), predictability, and percentage of Component 1 of three modules from Subnetwork_1 between Network_51015 and Network_HLN in Figs. 2e-g, the numbers (weighted) of correlations between five metabolites from phenylpropanoid biosynthesis and heterosis in Figs. 3f and Extended Data Fig. 6h, trait values and heterosis for four traits between the diallel and test cross populations in Extended Data Fig. 7b and Extended Data Fig. 7f, and the numbers (weighted) of correlations for four types of genomic variants in Fig. 4i. Spearman rank correlation was performed between the numbers of genetic variants and heterosis in Fig. 4h, Extended Data Figs. 10a-f, Extended Data Fig. 10h, and Extended Data Fig. 10j-k. 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 Extended Data Fig. 2j and Extended Data Fig. 3h, between seedling length and heterosis-associated metabolites from three enriched metabolic pathways in Supplementary Fig. 2a, 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 Extended Data Fig. 10i. Partial least squares regression between gene expression or metabolite levels and seedling length in Extended Data Fig. 2j and Extended Data Fig. 3h, between parental differential metabolites and heterosis in Figs. 3g-j, Extended Data Figs. 6i-x, and Supplementary Figs. 7a-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. 2h. Partial least squares-discriminant analysis (PLS-DA) in Fig. 2i, Fig. 2o, and Fig. 2q was performed

with class order taken into account in MetaboAnalyst5.0[57]. 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[65] 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[66] (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.

Data availability

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[24], MTBL1343, and MTBL1344. Source data are available with this paper.

Code availability

The software as described in the Methods section in the study is publicly available.

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Author contributions

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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.

Competing interests

1098
1099 The authors declare no competing interests.

Additional information

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1101 Supplementary Information is available for this paper. Correspondence and requests for
1102 materials should be addressed to Wenchao Huang (wenchaoh@whu.edu.cn).

Extended figure legends

1103
Extended Data Fig. 1 Transcriptomic differences in two inbred lines (Balilla and
Yuetai B) and their reciprocal F_1 hybrids at three developmental stages.
Extended Data Fig. 2 The identification of heterosis-associated genes related to
seedling length from the differentially expressed genes between F_1 hybrids and their
corresponding parents.
Extended Data Fig. 3 The identification of heterosis-associated metabolites related to
seedling length from differential metabolites between F_1 hybrids and their
corresponding parents.

Extended Data Fig. 4 Inheritance patterns of heterosis-associated molecules for

seedling length.

Extended Data Fig. 5 Phenotypes of seventeen agronomic traits of the diallel cross

population.

Extended Data Fig. 6 Predictive models for heterosis of 16 traits based on three types

of inheritance patterns of 1,306 differential metabolites.

Extended Data Fig. 7 Cross design and four traits of the test cross population.

Extended Data Fig. 8 Additive and partially dominant effects contribute to maize

heterosis.

Extended Data Fig. 9 Four types of genomic variants of 16 ILs.

Extended Data Fig. 10 Correlations of genomic variants, heterosis, and different

inheritance patterns.

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Figures and figure legends

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 F₁ 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 F₁ 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 F₁ 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 F₁ hybrids are marked with green and blue outer circles, respectively. **g,** PCA score plot of Balilla, YB, and their F₁ 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.

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.

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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,** R^2 values for heterosis of four traits. **j,** Top R^2 values for heterosis of eight 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 (middle parent heterosis), and YPP in maize. The R^2 are with adjusted values.

Fig. 4 Parental genomic variants are associated with additive and partially dominant effects. 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. **g,** Dendrogram of 19 rice ILs based on normalized metabolite levels from 42,052 metabolites. Quality control = QC. **h,** Heatmap of correlations between parental genomic variants and heterosis of 17 traits. **i,** Correlation numbers of parental unique and common genomic variants. *P* value indicates independent samples *t* test. **j,** Correlation numbers of different types of parental unique genomic variants. **k,** 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. **l,** Quadratic regression between the number of parental unique InDels and heterosis for grain yield per plant. **m,** Correlation numbers of parental unique InDels. **n,** Model for the contribution of additive effect to positive heterosis of a complex trait. The unique SNP and InDel 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 middle 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.