

1 **Short title:** Heterosis in Capsicum

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10 **Hotter chili peppers by hybridisation: heterosis and reciprocal effects**

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21 **Once sentence summary:** Hybrids of Capsicum peppers display heterosis and
22 reciprocal effects for agronomic traits and fruit pungency

23

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26 A.R.F. designed experiments and analyzed data; E.R.N. wrote the article with
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35 **Abstract**

36 The selection of pure lines followed by crosses to create superior hybrids is one of the
37 oldest strategies in crop breeding. However, in domesticated species of the *Capsicum*
38 genus hybrid breeding has lagged, in part due to a lack of detailed information about the
39 phenotypic and metabolic consequences of hybridization. Here, we performed
40 reciprocal crosses between four inbred varieties of two species of cultivated *C. chinense*
41 (cv. Habanero and Biquinho) and *C. annuum* var. *annuum* (cv. Jalapeño and cv.
42 Cascadura Ikeda). These varieties were specifically selected for their highly divergent
43 traits, including plant growth habit, fruit size, shape and pungency: Habanero and
44 Jalapeño peppers are highly pungent forms, particularly popular in Mexico. The
45 Biquinho cultivar of *C. chinense* and the Cascadura Ikeda bell pepper are traditional
46 sweet cultivars from Brazil. From the parental genotypes and from the progeny of the
47 reciprocal crosses, we measured 28 phenotypic traits, including plant growth, and yield,
48 32 fruit shape parameters, and 50 fruit pericarp and placenta metabolites, including
49 capsaicinoids. We found large differences for agronomic and metabolic traits between
50 the genotypes, including heterosis for pungency and reciprocal effects for agronomic
51 traits. We also show that the strong association between fruit shape and pungency can
52 be broken in intraspecific hybrids, paving the way for the precision breeding of novel
53 varieties.

54

55

56 **Introduction**

57 Heterosis, or hybrid vigour, is a genetic phenomenon whereby the hybrid
58 progeny of different inbred strains, races or species of plants or animals results in
59 increased vigour or performance. Charles Darwin described the phenomenon in the late
60 19th century, but it was only in 1914 that G. H. Shull coined the term ‘heterosis’ and
61 properly framed it conceptually (Hochholdinger and Baldauf, 2018). Large-scale
62 cultivation of hybrid crops was introduced in the 1930s and has been growing steadily
63 since, providing yield increases of up to 50%, depending on the crop. Although the
64 genetic, epigenetic and expression bases for heterosis have been explored extensively
65 (Chen, 2013), the metabolic aspects behind this phenomenon remains obscure.
66 Significant advances have been made in understanding the metabolic basis of heterosis
67 in maize (Riedelsheimer et al., 2012; Lima et al., 2017; Li et al., 2020) with the aim of
68 establishing a ‘multi-omics’ platform for predictive hybrid breeding (Westhues et al.,
69 2017). However, a similar effort is lacking in horticultural species, even though hybrid
70 breeding is extensive in these crops (Yu et al., 2021). Here, we explore agronomic and
71 metabolic aspects of heterosis in hybrids of peppers (*Capsicum* spp.).

72 Among the 41 species described in the *Capsicum* genus (Barboza et al., 2019),
73 only five (*Capsicum annuum* var. *annuum*, *C. frutescens*, *C. chinense*, *C. baccatum* var.
74 *pendulum*, and *C. pubescens*) have been domesticated (Pickersgill, 1997). With the
75 exception of *C. pubescens*, which has limited importance today as a cultivated species,
76 all remaining domesticates have been specifically bred to give rise to a high diversity of
77 cultivars (Carrizo García et al., 2016), providing an excellent resource for the study of
78 phenotypic variation induced by artificial selection (Pickersgill, 2018). The selection for
79 fruit-related traits has brought in an amazing diversity of fruit colors, size and shapes

80 (Scossa et al., 2019), including a wide variation of pungency levels, with cultivated
81 varieties covering the full spectrum from completely sweet to prohibitively hot fruits
82 (Muñoz-Ramírez et al., 2018). The pungent taste of peppers is conferred by a class of
83 vanillylamides, called capsaicinoids, which accumulate during ripening in the placenta
84 of hot varieties (Naves et al., 2019). Capsaicinoids and other pepper phytochemicals
85 have potential uses in the agrifood, cosmetic and pharmaceutical industries as
86 replacements for synthetic additives (Baenas et al., 2019).

87 Being an autogamous species (with the only exception of *C. cardenasii*, which is
88 an obligate outcrosser (Pickersgill, 1997), and as a consequence of the continuous
89 process of purging deleterious mutations through artificial selection, cultivated varieties
90 of *Capsicum* do not show inbreeding depression. However, heterosis (or hybrid vigour)
91 has not been investigated in detail in *Capsicum* breeding, but increased yield, biomass
92 and pungency was shown in some selected hybrids of *C. annuum* (Garcés-Claver et al.,
93 2007; Singh et al., 2014). It has recently been shown that alterations in gene expression
94 profile are associated with heterosis in pepper hybrids (Yang et al., 2021). Cultivation
95 of F₁ hybrids rather than varieties could lead to higher yield and fruit quality, although
96 many traits of agricultural importance are strongly influenced by environmental factors
97 (Tripodi et al., 2020). Hybridization breeding also has the advantage of combining
98 desirable horticultural and resistance traits faster than conventional pure line and
99 pedigree selection, as it allows the combination of dominantly inherited traits (Zhao et
100 al., 2015). However, the commercial exploitation of hybrids, which instead represent
101 the fundamental breeding form in other crops, has not found so far large application in
102 *Capsicum*, due to the existence of incompatibility barriers between species (Onus and
103 Pickersgill, 2004) and to the absence of a convenient male-sterility system to avoid self-
104 fertilization (Kim and Zhang, 2018).

105 *Capsicum* breeding programs have been limited by the relatively narrow genetic
106 base exploited, mostly within the *C. annuum* cultivars (Pereira-Dias et al., 2019). Even
107 though F₁ hybrids are widely grown for commercially produced sweet pepper, this is
108 not the case for hot peppers. Here, we performed an in-depth analysis of the
109 developmental, agronomic, and metabolic consequences of hybridization between of
110 pungent and non-pungent commercial cultivars of *C. chinense* (cv. Habanero and cv.
111 Biquinho) and *C. annuum* var. *annuum* (cv. Jalapeño and cv. Cascadura Ikeda). The
112 varieties were specifically selected for their range of divergent traits, including plant
113 growth habit, fruit size and shape and pungency: Habanero peppers are popular in the
114 Yucatán peninsula of Mexico and some islands of the Caribbean and their fruits are
115 characterized by strong pungency and fruity aroma. Cultivar Biquinho is a sweet pepper
116 extremely popular in Brazil, where it is sold fresh or pickled as snack. Jalapeños are
117 signature hot peppers which account for 30% of Mexico's hot pepper production
118 (Sandoval-Castro et al., 2017), whereas Cascadura Ikeda is a traditional sweet bell
119 pepper bred in Brazil. We analysed vegetative and reproductive growth traits, fruit size
120 and shape parameters, and performed the metabolic profiling of fruit placentas and
121 pericarps from full diallel (reciprocal) crosses between cultivars of the same or different
122 species. We found that F₁ hybrids show agronomic traits whose phenotypic values in
123 many cases are heterotic with respect their parents, and with a marked reciprocal effect.
124 Lastly, we found a strong influence of the pollen genotype on fruit size and shape of
125 hybrids. We discuss our findings in the context of the use of intraspecific and wide
126 crosses for breeding new varieties of *Capsicum* with novel fruit traits and increased
127 levels of pungency.

128 **Results**

129 *Hybridization impacts vegetative growth, yield and drives distinct patterns of*
130 *correlation between phenotypic traits*

131 The parental genotypes (see Supplemental Table S1 for details) show contrasting
132 growth habit: the cultivars of *C. chinense* (HAB, BIQ) display a predominantly
133 horizontal canopy architecture, with more vigorous stems and smaller fruits (Fig. 1A).
134 The cultivars of *C. annuum* (JAL, IKE) have instead a more upright canopy architecture
135 and larger fruits (Fig. 1A). Intraspecific hybridization in *C. chinense* resulted in shorter
136 and wider plants, whereas in *C. annuum* it produced plants as tall as the JAL parent, but
137 with increased lateral growth (Fig. 1B). Interspecific hybrids showed increased
138 vegetative development, with greater vertical (height) and horizontal (diameter) growth
139 (Fig. 1C), greater leaf area, resulting in greater dry vegetative biomass but lower yield at
140 the time of harvest (Table 1). We found higher leaf area and plant diameter in both
141 intra- and interspecific hybrids (Table 1). Biomass partitioning was significantly
142 different between parents and hybrids: Parents of both species showed high allocation to
143 reproductive parts, whereas interspecific hybrids had increased vegetative biomass
144 (Supplemental Fig. S1). All interspecific hybrids showed an increase in vegetative
145 growth, mainly in stems and roots but also leaves, with severely reduced allocation to
146 fruits (Supplemental Fig. S1). We found a marked reciprocal effect for vegetative
147 growth in the JAL × IKE and HAB × JAL hybrids, which was increased compared to
148 the IKE × JAL and JAL × HAB reciprocal hybrids (Supplemental Table S2).

149 Our initial analysis of 28 agronomic and growth parameters suggested that the
150 main impact on yield in hybrids, particularly interspecific ones, was produced by
151 increased vegetative growth (Supplemental Fig. S1). We next performed a principal
152 component analysis (PCA) to reduce the dimensionality of the dataset and identify other
153 potential traits that contribute most to the differenced observed between parents and

154 hybrids (Fig. 1D). The genotypes were divided in the 2D scores plot into three groups:
155 *C. chinense* cultivars and their hybrids, *C. annuum* cultivars and their hybrids and
156 interspecific hybrids (Fig. 1D). More than 80% of the variance was captured by the first
157 four PCA axes, so we retained PC1 to PC4 for analysis (Supplemental Table S3).

158 PC1 explained 40.5% of the total variability between traits and genotypes and
159 was associated mainly with vegetative traits: dry weight of the plant parts, number of
160 sympodial units, plant width and leaf area. Confirming our initial observations, the most
161 significant trait for PC1 was stem dry weight. All the *C. annuum* genotypes (parents and
162 intraspecific hybrids) grouped at the lower end of PC1 and the interspecific hybrids at
163 the higher end, as these were the genotypes with higher levels of vegetative growth,
164 mainly driven by increased stem weight. The PC1 divided plant height and yield, where
165 the taller genotypes were the least productive. PC2 accounted for 22% of the total
166 variability among traits and was mostly related to plant height and fruit total soluble
167 solids (Brix). Interspecific hybrids grouped at the higher end of PC2, while *C. chinense*
168 genotypes (parents and intraspecific hybrids) grouped at the lower end. Hierarchical
169 clustering analysis of the 28 traits confirmed the strong association between yield,
170 harvest index, fruit set and number of seeds per fruit (Supplemental Fig. S2).

171

172 *Hybridization conditions seed and fruit development in a genotype-specific manner*

173 All crosses set seeds successfully, and seed size was higher in *C. annuum* than in
174 *C. chinense* cultivars and their respective intraspecific hybrids (Fig. 2A). Although seed
175 weight was strongly determined by the female parent genotype, some paternal effect
176 was observed for interspecific crosses, e.g. *C. annuum* pollen on *C. chinense* pistils
177 decreased seed size, HAB pollen on BIQ pistils increased seed size and *C. chinense*

178 pollen increased seed size in JAL pistils (Fig. 2). For interspecific hybrids, using *C.*
179 *annuum* as pistillate parent and *C. chinense* as pollen donor led to higher seed weight
180 and the reciprocal cross to lower seed weight. Germination was higher in *C. annum*
181 and lower in *C. chinense* intraspecific hybrids and severely compromised in
182 interspecific hybrids (Fig. 2B). We observed strong unilateral incompatibility in seed
183 germination: using *C. chinense* as pistillate parent and *C. annum* as pollen donor had a
184 more negative effect than the reciprocal cross. Three of the interspecific hybrid seeds
185 failed to germinate (BIQ × JAL, HAB × IKE and BIQ × IKE), so these genotypes are
186 absent from all subsequent analyses.

187 Seed weight did not appear to have a strong effect on germination: for instance,
188 in spite of large weight differences between parental genotypes seeds, there was no
189 difference in germination between them (Fig. 2). By contrast, seed weight was strongly
190 correlated to initial vegetative growth parameters (dry matter, plant height and diameter,
191 leaf area) (Supplemental Fig. S3). Given the low fertility of interspecific F₁ hybrids, we
192 conducted controlled pollination with either pollen from the hybrid itself or of either
193 parent. Remarkably, the pollen genotype had a strong effect on fruit size and shape
194 (Supplemental Fig. S4A). Pollination with parents was an effective method of restoring
195 fertility, as fruit set and number of seeds per fruit were increased (Supplemental Fig.
196 S4B).

197 *Capsicum* hybrids display heterosis and reciprocal effects for agronomic traits

198 Heterosis, or the superiority of hybrids to parents can be expressed as either
199 relative mid-parent heterosis (rMPH) or relative best-parent heterosis (rBPH). We
200 calculated these values for the intra- and interspecific hybrids and found significant
201 rMPH and rBPH for many traits but also hybrid depression, depending on the trait and
202 the type of cross (Table 2). The *C. chinense* intraspecific hybrids showed reduced plant

203 height, with no difference in this trait for *C. annuum*, whereas all the interspecific
204 hybrids were taller. Plant diameter was also increased in all hybrids. Total vegetative
205 dry mass was decreased in intra- but increased in interspecific hybrids. Fruit set was
206 generally decreased in all hybrids with varying intensity, with the result that fruit
207 number was also reduced. showed reduced plant height and increased diameter. Except
208 for *C. chinense* hybrids, which showed a slight increase, all hybrids suffered yield
209 penalty, with a particularly severe reduction in individual fruit weight (Table 2). Total
210 soluble solids content in the fruits (Brix), however, was increased in all hybrids except
211 the *C. chinense* intraspecific ones. We observed reciprocal effects in many agronomic
212 traits for the *C. annuum* but not for the *C. chinense* hybrids (Supplemental Table S3).
213 The remarkable changes in fruit size and shape inspired us to conduct a more in-depth
214 analysis of these agronomically important traits.

215

216 *Fruit shape shows non-additive inheritance*

217 Peppers are a genus with considerable fruit morphological variation, that is
218 strongly associated with consumer preferences (Paran and van der Knaap, 2007). Thus,
219 we next turned our attention to the effects of hybridization on fruit size and shape. The
220 parental genotypes are highly contrasting in both traits (Fig. 3A). Individual fruit size of
221 intraspecific hybrids was intermediate between that of the parental cultivars, whereas it
222 was highly reduced in interspecific hybrids (Fig. 3B). Remarkably, the intraspecific
223 hybrids resembled more closely one of the parents, regardless of the direction of the
224 cross: BIQ in *C. chinense* hybrids and IKE in *C. annuum* (Fig. 3A). Given the
225 multidimensional nature of fruit shape, we used TomatoAnalyzer (Rodríguez et al.,
226 2010) to process scanned images of fruit sections and to provide an objective,
227 quantitative assessment based on 32 fruit morphology traits. We conducted a PCA on

228 the traits and determined four main axes that could explain 91.3% of the variability in
229 fruit size and shape (Fig. 3C).

230 PC1 accounted for 54.4% of the variability and was significantly associated with
231 traits related to fruit size: cross-sectional fruit length and perimeter. Thus, the parental
232 genotypes were divided along the PC1 according to fruit size (Fig. 3C). PC2 accounted
233 for 18.6% of the fruit phenotype variability and was mostly associated with fruit shape
234 (asymmetry, homogeneity and blockiness) (Supplemental Table S4). With its
235 characteristic blocky, irregular fruit, *C. chinense* cv. HAB was located low along the
236 PC2 axis and separated from all other genotypes. PC3 accounted for 10.7% of the
237 variability in fruit shape and was associated with internal eccentricity and homogeneity
238 traits and PC4 accounted for 7.6% of the variability with influence from pericarp traits.
239 Our analysis also showed that the *C. chinense* intraspecific hybrids clustered very close
240 to the BIQ cultivar, as suggested by their similarity in fruit phenotype (Fig. 3C). All the
241 interspecific hybrid fruits were also located closer to BIQ than any other parental
242 genotype due to their reduced size and their generally more triangular shape.

243

244 *Heterosis for pungency and primary metabolites in F1 hybrids is characterized by*
245 *patterns of non-additive accumulation*

246 Capsicum fruits are noted for their pungency ('heat'), which is conferred by a
247 class of metabolites collectively known as capsaicinoids, which accumulate in the
248 placenta of pungent fruits. Since capsaicinoids are synthesized from amino acidic
249 precursors, we carried out a detailed metabolic profiling of both polar and lipophilic
250 primary metabolites in parental genotypes and their hybrids (Supplemental Fig. S5). As
251 expected, the placental tissues of the pungent parents from both *C. chinense* (HAB) and

252 *C. annuum* (JAL) showed high accumulation of the main capsaicinoids, in contrast to
253 the sweet pepper BIQ and IKE (Supplemental Fig. S4). The most abundant
254 capsaicinoids were capsaicin ($C_{18}H_{27}NO_3$, $[M+H]^+=306.206356$, dihydrocapsaicin
255 ($C_{18}H_{29}NO_3$, $[M+H]^+=308.222006$) and nordihydrocapsaicin ($C_{17}H_{27}NO_3$
256 $[M+H]^+=294.206356$), which accounted for over 90% of total capsaicinoid content in
257 all genotypes (Fig. 4). All hybrids were pungent, regardless of their parental genotypes
258 and, except for the intraspecific hybrids of *C. annuum*, all combinations displayed
259 significant degrees of both rMPH and rBPH for all of the main capsaicinoids (Table 3).
260 Rather interestingly, the IKE \times BIQ F_1 , which derives from the cross of two non-
261 pungent parents, shows a high accumulation of capsaicinoids.

262 We then mapped the metabolite rBPH values onto the main pathways of primary
263 metabolism and found that a few general trends emerged (Fig. 5 for the placenta and
264 Supplemental Fig. S6 for the pericarp). We observed marked reciprocal effects on the
265 level of several metabolites (mainly amino acids, e.g., serine, valine, aspartate, GABA
266 and pyroglutamic acid) in the placenta of the fruits derived from the intraspecific *C.*
267 *chinense* crosses (i.e., HAB \times BIQ and its reciprocal). This reversion of the heterotic
268 effect was not observed in the other intraspecific cross (the one derived from crossing
269 JAL and IKE, both cultivars of *C. annuum*), where most of the primary metabolites,
270 including amino acids, show the same sign of rBPH irrespective of whether JAL or IKE
271 was used as the female parent (Fig. 5A). Primary metabolites from the interspecific
272 crosses (Fig. 5B) showed instead a more uniform pattern of hybrid depression (negative
273 rBPH), except for trehalose and asparagine, which displayed considerable rBPH in the
274 interspecific hybrids where IKE was used as female (Fig. 5B). In the pericarp
275 (Supplemental Fig. S6), strong rBPH was detected for serine (along with its probable
276 precursor, glycerate, given that serine biosynthesis in non-photosynthetic tissues mainly

277 occurs through the phosphorylated pathway (Galili et al., 2016), as well as for other
278 amino acids derived from TCA intermediates (lysine, aspartate, asparagine and
279 pyroglutamic acid).

280

281 **Discussion**

282 *The impact of hybridisation on vegetative and agronomic traits in Capsicum*

283 The most commonly produced and consumed peppers in the world belong to the
284 *C. annuum* var. *annuum* (here *C. annuum* for brevity), whereas most sweet peppers are
285 varieties of *C. annuum*, some of the most pungent varieties belong to *C. chinense* (Jang
286 et al., 2021). *C. chinense* originates in the Amazon basin and is therefore better adapted
287 to hot and humid conditions (Pickersgill, 2007), so accessions of this species are
288 valuable sources of multiple pathogen resistance genes (Di Dato et al., 2015).
289 Interspecific hybridisation would be a suitable avenue to combine the favourable traits
290 found in different species of the genus. Hybrid breeding is the simplest way of
291 combining dominantly inherited traits. Although considerable effort has been expended
292 to explore the agronomic consequences of intraspecific hybridisation in *C. annuum*
293 (Marame et al., 2009; Singh et al., 2014; Tripodi et al., 2020), little is known concerning
294 the effects of hybridisation between species. Here, we found that clearly divergent traits
295 have been favoured in the cultivars of each species selected for this study, the most
296 remarkable being bigger fruits of *C. annuum* and more numerous fruits of *C. chinense*.
297 The intraspecific hybrids of each species show additive effect for fruit weight in the *C.*
298 *annuum* hybrids and fruit number in the *C. chinense* ones. Our results show that this
299 directional selection had an impact on plant vegetative traits, as evidenced by the strong
300 negative correlation between fruit number and plant height and a positive one with plant

301 diameter. By contrast, large fruits correlate negatively with plant and stem diameter and
302 leaf area.

303 High yield was maintained in *C. chinense* hybrids but not in *C. annuum* ones and
304 was severely compromised in interspecific hybrids. This suggests that the genetic
305 control underlying the traits that control yield (fruit size, fruit number and fruit set) is
306 recessive and, therefore, hybrid breeding is amenable only between cultivars where the
307 agronomic basis for yield is similar (*i.e.* either fruit size or number). We also found a
308 strong negative correlation between seed number and total soluble solids (Brix).
309 Reducing seed number and increasing Brix are both desirable agronomic traits; the
310 energetic cost of seed production could negatively impact fruit total solids (sugars and
311 organic acids). High Brix is also negatively correlated with fruit size, as in tomato
312 (Bernacchi et al., 1998).

313 Enhanced seed germination is a key agronomic trait in cultivated species, as
314 opposed to their highly dormant wild ancestors (Soltani et al., 2021). When *C. annuum*
315 was used as the female parent, all crossing combinations with *C. chinense* yielded
316 viable hybrids. In the reciprocal crosses, when cultivars of *C. chinense* were instead
317 used as the female parent, the only fertile hybrid we recovered was the combination
318 HAB × JAL. This may suggest a general weakness of the maternal tissues of *C.*
319 *chinense* - especially of cultivar BIQ - to provide nutrients to the embryo during the
320 early developmental phases (Meyer et al., 2012). The size and viability of seeds can be
321 affected by many different factors: the concurrent accumulation of capsaicinoids in the
322 placenta (the tissue upon which seeds set and remain attached (Barchenger and Bosland,
323 2016)), but also by many other maternal effects (*e.g.* transport processes to the
324 developing seeds), depending on the species. Theory predicts that seed size is
325 determined by the conflict between the paternal and maternal genotypes (Pires and

326 Grossniklaus, 2014). This would therefore result in a trade-off between seed size and
327 number. Producing viable hybrids continues to be a major challenge for hybrid pepper
328 breeding and further work needs to be conducted to understand the genetic and
329 physiological basis of post-zygotic hybridization barriers (Lafon-Placette and Köhler,
330 2016).

331 *Heterosis and reciprocal effects in Capsicum hybrids*

332 In peppers, heterosis is most likely to be observed as an increase in vegetative
333 mass. Here, we found increased vegetative growth in both intra- and interspecific
334 hybrids, however the effect was more dramatic in the latter, as it resulted in a strong
335 yield penalty. Biomass allocation to reproductive tissues is a hallmark of crop
336 domestication and breeding (Hufford et al., 2019). Our results highlight the diverging
337 genetic bases of breeding for high yield in *C. annuum* and *C. chinense*. Pepper breeders
338 have used wide crosses and introgression to generate high yielding varieties (Srivastava
339 and Mangal, 2019). As a trade-off, these crops have less allocation of biomass to stems
340 and roots, and increased susceptibility to diseases and pests. It is an open question why
341 this was not observed in the crosses reported here. Interspecific hybridization would be
342 a way to introduce vigorous characteristics such as stem and root or even to gain an
343 understanding of related mechanisms and genes related to greater vegetative vigor. One
344 of our interspecific crosses (IKE × BIQ) produced a vigorous root system (>25% of
345 total biomass allocation), which could be relevant within the context of breeding
346 improved rootstocks for grafting production systems (Kyriacou et al., 2017).

347 The asymmetry between the phenotypic value of certain traits (Supplemental
348 Table S3) of reciprocal crosses is attributed to reciprocal effects, which could be related
349 to cytoplasmic inheritance or nucleus-cytoplasm incompatibility mechanisms (Joseph et
350 al., 2013). We found more marked reciprocal effects for *C. annuum* than for *C.*

351 *chinense*, particularly for vegetative biomass, fresh weight per fruit, number of seeds
352 per fruit and Brix. Unilateral incompatibility is an extended phenomenon in *Capsicum*
353 peppers (Onus and Pickersgill, 2004), however *C. annuum* and *C. chinense* are
354 generally considered to be fully compatible. Here, we have shown that using *C. annuum*
355 as a pistillate (female) parent leads to successful production of interspecific hybrids with
356 *C. chinense* but the reciprocal type of cross is hampered by strong incompatibility.
357 Further work is required to understand the underlying biological mechanisms and aid
358 hybrid breeding in *Capsicum*.

359 We found considerable heterosis specifically for capsaicinoids accumulation in
360 the placenta of both intra- and interspecific hybrids, including those derived from non-
361 pungent parents (BIQ and IKE). This behavior of non-additive heterotic activation in
362 the F₁ may be due to the complementation of non-functional alleles at distinct loci, with
363 the restoration of a fully functional capsaicinoid pathway in the hybrids. By contrast, the
364 pericarp metabolites of interspecific hybrids showed mid- to strong hybrid depression,
365 except for several amino acids from the HAB × JAL combination (glycine, threonine,
366 branched-chain and aromatic amino acids, lysine, aspartate, asparagine, GABA,
367 pyroglutamic acid and GABA). Recent work on *Brassica juncea* showed that primary
368 and secondary metabolites display both additive and non-additive inheritance,
369 depending on tissue type (buds vs. leaves) and developmental stage (Bajpai et al. 2019).
370 Here, most primary metabolites, whether from placenta or pericarp, generally showed
371 non-additive accumulation (i.e., their levels being significantly lower or higher with
372 respect to the best parent), with few cases of reciprocal effects detected for amino acids
373 in the placenta of the intraspecific cross of *C. chinense*.

374 *The effect of hybridization on fruit size and shape*

375 *Capsicum* is a genus recognized and appreciated by consumers for its diversity
376 in fruit shape and color (Scossa et al., 2019). To a large extent, the diversification is
377 related to the geographic expansion and selection for culinary and aesthetic traits within
378 the genus (Tripodi et al., 2021). Cultivars of *C. chinense* show high diversity in fruit
379 formats and growth parameters (Rosado-Souza et al., 2015; Bianchi et al., 2020). The
380 genetic basis of fruit size and shape is hitherto unknown in peppers, although an effort
381 is underway to fill this gap in the knowledge (Colonna et al., 2019; Nimmakayala et al.,
382 2021). Fruit shape is a multidimensional trait, so we broke it down in its individual
383 components using the TomatoAnalyzer resource (Rodríguez et al., 2010). We then
384 conducted a principal component analysis (PCA) and, as expected, the first principal
385 component discriminated all parental cultivars mostly based on fruit size (cross
386 sectional area, perimeter, width and length). By contrast, the second principal
387 component was dominated by shape traits (blockiness, ellipsoid, asymmetry,
388 eccentricity). Interestingly, the intraspecific hybrid fruits grouped together with the non-
389 pungent parents, even when both were at the opposite extremes of the fruit size
390 distribution (BIQ, smallest and IKE, biggest). This suggests that dominant genetic
391 variance is a key component of fruit traits in non-pungent *Capsicum* varieties. Thus, our
392 results show the feasibility of easily creating pungent fruits that retain the highly valued
393 visual and organoleptic traits of non-pungent varieties.

394 Surprisingly, the pollen genotype had a strong impact on fruit size and shape.
395 This apparently anomalous phenomenon was first described by Darwin as “the direct
396 action of the male element on the female form” and subsequently called ‘xenia’. Xenia
397 is widespread in cultivated species, including cereals, vegetables and fruit trees
398 (Trueman et al., 2021). To the best of our knowledge, however, no reports exist of xenia
399 in *Capsicum* (Liu, 2018). It is potentially a highly relevant phenomenon for plant

400 breeding and crop production, for instance, pollen origin can increase yield in beans
401 (Duc et al., 2001), maize (Weingartner et al., 2002) and raspberry (Żurawicz et al.,
402 2018). The molecular mechanism underlying xenia is unknown, and it has been
403 proposed that small mobile RNAs derived from the pollen grain could trigger a massive
404 reprogramming of gene expression in the zygote and embryo, which could in turn
405 influence the surrounding ovary tissue. Our scheme of backcrosses of *Capsicum*
406 interspecific hybrids could represent a useful model system to explore this topic.

407 The variation in shape, size and colour of pepper fruits can act as a marker for
408 variation in other, less evident characters, such as pungency. This phenomenon whereby
409 combinations of characters allow fruits to be distinguished is called ‘perceptual
410 distinctiveness’ (Boster, 1985) and has been described in peppers and other species
411 (Pickersgill, 2007). For a new cultivar to be accepted, it must be identifiable on the
412 basis of a suite of characters and distinguishable from those already in cultivation.
413 Pepper diversity depends on morphometric and colorimetric trait variation, which is
414 critical for varietal identification and breeding (Nankar et al., 2020). Our results show
415 that the strong association of small peppers with the characteristic ‘biquinho’ (‘little
416 beak’) shape or the large blocky bell peppers with sweetness can be broken down to
417 create hybrid varieties with a similar shape, but that are highly pungent.

418 **Conclusion**

419 Hybrid breeding has been underexploited in *Capsicum*, in large part due to a
420 lack of knowledge about heterosis and reciprocal effects in different hybrid
421 combinations. With the increasing challenge of unpredictable climate, exploiting the full
422 range of natural variation for peppers and other crops will be a suitable avenue to create
423 novel, resilient varieties. It can also pave the way for the creation of novel hybrids with
424 altered combinations of visual and organoleptic traits, such as fruit size, shape, colour

425 and flavour. Here, we have shown that combinations of *C. annuum* var. *annuum* and *C.*
426 *chinense* commercial varieties can produce valuable new agronomic phenotypes
427 through heterosis and reciprocal effects. Further exploration of the genetic basis of these
428 phenomena will contribute to the knowledge-based breeding of more resilient and
429 appealing pepper varieties.

430

431 **Material and methods**

432 *Plant material and growth conditions*

433 Two cultivars of *Capsicum annuum* var. *annuum* (henceforth called *C. annuum*
434 for brevity) were cultivated: the sweet bell pepper "Cascadura Ikeda" (IKE) and the
435 pungent "Jalapeño" (JAL), while for *C. chinense*, the pungent cultivar "Habanero"
436 (HAB) and the sweet "Biquinho" (BIQ) were grown (Table S1). Intra- and interspecific
437 F₁ hybrids were created following a full diallel crossing scheme, by emasculating the
438 flower buds before anthesis, and then transferring pollen of the selected male parent.
439 The experiments were conducted in a greenhouse at the Federal University of Viçosa,
440 between August 2018 and December 2019. For productivity analysis, each *Capsicum*
441 hybrid and its respective parents (controls) were grown until harvest (when 70% of the
442 fruits reached the ripe state) in 7.5 L pots containing the commercial substrate
443 Troprotrato® and irrigated daily and fertilized with 4.5 g L⁻¹ of NPK (4-14-8) and 4 g
444 L⁻¹ of dolomitic limestone. Supplemental fertilization was provided fortnightly with
445 foliar spray. The compatibility between the parents, as well as the compatibility between
446 the F₁ hybrids and their respective parents was measured through crosses in all possible
447 combinations: 25 flowers were pollinated of four different plants per genotype (100
448 flowers per cross). As a control, 100 flowers were tagged but self-pollinated. The fresh

449 weight, length, diameter and number of seeds per fruit were estimated for the 12 largest
450 fruits among all produced from each controlled cross.

451

452 *Seed germination assays*

453 To test seed germination, we sowed 100 seeds per block, with a total of four
454 blocks. We pre-treated the seeds with 3% sodium hypochlorite and subsequently
455 washed them with abundant deionized water before sowing. We sowed the seeds in
456 plastic pots containing the commercial substrate Tropstrato® and kept them in
457 greenhouse conditions in the summer. We counted the total number of emerged plants
458 30 days after the sowing date and estimated the germination percentage.

459

460 *Vegetative growth and agronomic determinations*

461 Thirty days after germination plants were transplanted to 7.5 L pots with
462 Tropstrate commercial soil. Plants were grown to maturity and the following
463 measurements were conducted on ten plants per genotype: plant height (height of soil
464 base up to leaf apex), canopy diameter, stem diameter, number of leaves, leaf area, root,
465 stem and leaves dry mass, stem diameter, number of leaves, soil base height up to the
466 leaf apex and canopy diameter, number, time to anthesis and to first ripe fruit. At the
467 time of harvest, productivity was determined as number and in total fresh weight of
468 fruits per plant. The angle formed between the first ten branches was measured in
469 addition to the total number of sympodial units per plant.

470

471 *Fertility Estimation*

472 We measured fruit set (%), fruit size, number of seeds per fruit and seed
473 germination rate. Fruit set was measured as the percentage of fruits developed from
474 marked flowers at the time of anthesis. The average mass (g) of 100 F₁ seeds was also
475 quantified ($n = 6$) for the seeds resulting from crosses as self-pollination. The seeds
476 were removed from fully ripe fruits and air-drying until they reached a constant weight.
477 Germination tests were performed to verify the relationship between seed production,
478 number, size and germination with fertility. One hundred seeds per replicate were sown
479 30 days after sowing, the number of emerged seedlings was counted and expressed as
480 the percentage germination.

481

482 *Determination of fruit total soluble solids (Brix)*

483 Six fully ripe fruits per plant were harvested, totaling 60 fruits per genotype. The
484 °Brix was determined through the digital bench refractometer model RTD-45
485 (Instrutherm, São Paulo, Brazil). The analyses were performed after calibrating the
486 refractometer with distilled water and obtaining the zero, after which the collector part
487 was wiped clean, then the pericarp was squeezed to extract enough liquid to cover the
488 prismatic surface of the digital refractometer.

489

490 *Metabolic analyses of fruits*

491 Flowers were tagged at anthesis and samples of fruit pericarp and placenta were
492 collected at midday after 60 days. The pericarp and placenta from seven fruits per
493 genotype were collected from different plants and used for the analyses. Samples were
494 immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80 °C. The material was then
495 freeze-dried (Scanvac, Coolsafe 55-4) and ground to a fine powder. The metabolic

496 profile from each sample was determined following previously described procedures
497 (Salem et al., 2017; Vijlder et al., 2018; Lapidot-Cohen et al., 2020), with modifications
498 summarized briefly here. 10 mg of sample material was mixed with 1 mL of extraction
499 buffer consisting of methyl-*tert*-butyl-ether and methanol (3:1), and containing an
500 internal standard of 50 μL corticosterone (1 mg mL^{-1} in methanol), 50 μL 1,2-
501 diheptadecanoyl-*sn*-glycero-3-phosphocholine (1 mg mL^{-1} in chloroform) and 50 μL
502 ribitol (1 mg mL^{-1} in water). Samples were vortexed and incubated in a shaker (1000
503 rpm) at 4°C for 45 min. 650 μL of water:methanol (v/v 3:1) were then added to induce
504 phase separation and the samples were centrifuged at 20000 g for 5 min at room
505 temperature. We then transferred aliquots from both the upper (apolar) and lower phase
506 (polar and semi-polar metabolites) to new tubes to be reduced to dryness in the
507 speedvac for subsequent metabolic analyses. The dried aliquots were stored at -80°C
508 until derivatization or resuspension prior to GC- or LC-MS analyses.

509 For the analysis of primary metabolites, dried aliquots from the polar liquid
510 phase were initially derivatized with 60 μL of methoxiamine hydrochloride (30 mg mL^{-1}
511 in pyridine) and shaken at 37°C for two hours. Sample extracts were then
512 trimethylsilylated with 120 μL of a mix of methyl-*N*-(trimethylsilyl)trifluoroacetamide
513 (MSTFA) containing standards of fatty acid methyl esters (FAMEs), followed by
514 agitation at 37°C for 30 minutes. Samples were spun briefly and a volume of 140 μL
515 from each was transferred to glass vials and 1 μl injected for gas chromatography-time
516 of flight-mass spectrometry (GC-TOF-MS) as described previously (Osorio et al.,
517 2012). Chromatograms and mass spectra were evaluated using ChromaTOF 1.0 (Leco,
518 www.leco.com) and TagFinder v.4.0, respectively. Cross-referencing of mass spectra
519 was performed with the Golm Metabolome database (Kopka et al., 2005).

520 For the analysis of apolar metabolites, dried aliquots from the upper lipid phase
521 were resuspended in 400 μ L of acetonitrile:2-propanol 7:3 (v/v) and 140 μ L were then
522 transferred to glass vials for injection into an ultra-performance liquid chromatography
523 system coupled to a Q Exactive mass spectrometer in positive ionization mode (UPLC-
524 MS), according to established protocols (Lapidot-Cohen et al., 2020). In any case, both
525 for the primary and lipid metabolic datasets, standardized metabolite intensities
526 (standardized by internal standard and weight) were then batch-corrected (ComBat),
527 normalized by *glog* transformation and autoscaled (mean-centered and divided by the
528 standard deviation of each variable) using MetaboAnalyst v5.0 (Pang et al., 2021). The
529 results for metabolites are reported following the standards suggested in Fernie et al. (
530 2011).

531 *Fruit biometry*

532 Twelve fruits were sampled from each parental and hybrid genotype. In addition,
533 as interspecific hybrids showed different morphology and large increases in fruit size
534 when they received pollen from parents, we decided to include them in these analyzes.
535 The fruits were cut longitudinally and were digitized in a scanner (HP Scanjet G2410).
536 In some cases, the fruits had the biometric contours adjusted manually in order to
537 correct points of non-detection in the image. The biometric determinations were carried
538 out using Tomato Analyzer v4.0, and 32 parameters were measured as previously
539 described (Rodríguez et al., 2010).

540

541 *Estimation of heterosis*

542 The experiments were carried out in a completely randomized design, always
543 with the parents being cultivated together with their hybrids in their respective growing

544 season. Each set of phenotypic traits were subjected to analysis of variance; in those
545 cases where the null hypothesis of equal means was rejected, we used the Scott-Knott
546 test with $\alpha=0.05$ to identify the significant differences. Heterosis calculations were
547 performed for the main parameters evaluated, using the following equations (Barth et
548 al., 2003):

549 Absolute Mid-Parent Heterosis (AMPH) = $F_1 - \bar{P}$

550 Absolute Best Parent Heterosis (ABPH) = $F_1 - P_{\max}$,

551 where: F_1 : average value of the phenotypic trait from the F_1 hybrid; \bar{P} : average value of
552 the phenotypic trait of the two parental genotypes; and P_{\max} : Average value of the
553 phenotypic trait from the best parent.

554 In addition, heterosis relative values were calculated as:

555 Relative Mid-Parent Heterosis (rMPH) = $(AMPH / \bar{P}) * 100$

556 Relative Best Parent Heterosis (rBPH) = $(ABPH / P_{\max}) * 100$

557 The reciprocal effect for the HAB \times JAL, JAL \times IKE and HAB \times BIQ hybrids
558 was determined as the difference in a given parameter between the reciprocal hybrids,
559 e.g.: (HAB \times JAL) - (JAL \times HAB). The absolute values of heterosis and reciprocal
560 effect were subjected to ANOVA and subsequently subjected to Scheffe's test in order
561 to verify the significance of each value individually.

562

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 566 project.

567

568 **Tables**

569 **Table 1.** Agronomic traits in intra- and interspecific hybrids of *Capsicum chinense* cv. Habanero (HAB) and
 570 cv. Biquinho (BIQ); and *C. annuum* cv. Jalapeño (JAL), and cv. Cascadura Ikeda (IKE) determined 180 days
 571 after sowing. The pungent genotypes are shown in **boldface**. Values are means \pm s.e.m. (n=10 plants).
 572 Different letters within each column indicate significant differences by the Scott-Knot test at 5%.

Genotypes	Plant height (cm)	Plant diameter (cm)	Leaf area (m ²)	Yield (g)
<i>Parents</i>				
HAB	59.70 \pm 2.13 f	94.7 \pm 2.09 d	0.664 \pm 0.03 d	862.00 \pm 65.75 c
BIQ	65.56 \pm 1.65 f	104.22 \pm 4.80 d	0.710 \pm 0.03 d	810.11 \pm 31.93 c
JAL	66.80 \pm 2.67 f	71.40 \pm 2.53 e	0.368 \pm 0.02 f	1243.47 \pm 78.09 b
IKE	80.89 \pm 2.58 e	61.11 \pm 2.05 e	0.576 \pm 0.02 e	2097.83 \pm 75.58 a
<i>Intraspecific F₁</i>				
HAB \times BIQ	44.75 \pm 4.64 g	165.90 \pm 6.5 a	0.946 \pm 0.03 c	927.32 \pm 57.16 c
BIQ \times HAB	44.65 \pm 3.37 g	154.5 \pm 6.15 b	0.867 \pm 0.04 c	943.78 \pm 48.74 c
JAL \times IKE	77.60 \pm 4.49 e	80.70 \pm 1.83 e	0.362 \pm 0.03 f	596.99 \pm 56.85 d
IKE \times JAL	71.10 \pm 4.39 f	68.3 \pm 3.02 e	0.364 \pm 0.02 f	439.98 \pm 62.13 e
<i>Interspecific F₁</i>				
HAB \times JAL	135.80 \pm 6.38 c	122.10 \pm 4.5 c	0.820 \pm 0.06 c	197.05 \pm 56.99 f
JAL \times HAB	106.90 \pm 5.01 d	100.8 \pm 5.66 d	0.754 \pm 0.04 d	263.51 \pm 55.74 e
JAL \times BIQ	134.0 \pm 6.28 c	133.6 \pm 5.04 c	0.842 \pm 0.09 c	419.83 \pm 98.72 e
IKE \times HAB	161.47 \pm 7.51 b	176.13 \pm 12.10 a	1.407 \pm 0.11 a	103.09 \pm 34.59 f
IKE \times BIQ	174.430 \pm 2.47 a	170.7 \pm 5.67 a	1.232 \pm 0.03 b	280.51 \pm 49.26 f

573

574 **Table 2.** Relative mid-parental heterosis (rMPH) and best-parental heterosis (rBPH) for twelve traits in two
 575 intraspecific and four interspecific hybrids of *Capsicum*. Parents: *C. chinense* cv. Habanero (HAB), *C. chinense*
 576 cv. Biquinho (BIQ), *C. annuum* cv. Jalapeño (JAL) and *C. annuum* cv. Cascadura Ikeda (IKE). The pungent
 577 genotypes are shown in **boldface**. The significance test for the variables rMPH and rBPH was performed based
 578 on the absolute values of MPH and BPH. *, ** indicate significant values at $p = 0.05$ and 0.01 , respectively by
 579 the Scheffe test.

	Hybrids					
	Intraspecific F ₁		Interspecific F ₁			
	HAB × BIQ	JAL × IKE	HAB × JAL	JAL × BIQ	IKE × HAB	IKE × BIQ
	Plant height					
rMPH	-28.63 **	0.68	91.86 **	102.48 **	129.71 **	138.04 **
rBPH	-31.81 **	-8.08	81.66 **	100.6 **	99.62 **	115.48 **
	Plant diameter					
rMPH	61.07 **	12.44 *	34.2 **	52.14 **	126.08 **	106.49 **
rBPH	53.71 **	4.34	17.69 **	28.19 **	85.99 **	63.78 **
	Dry vegetative biomass					
rMPH	-23.01 **	-41.50**	301.12 **	75.28 **	93.36 **	332.77 **
rBPH	-24.38 **	-49.55 **	186.50 **	23.85 **	53.83 **	239.75 **
	Fruit set					
rMPH	-2.23	-14.67	-70.73 **	-54.92 **	-99.47 **	-83.71 **
rBPH	-27.99 *	-32.73 **	-78.04 **	-56.16 **	-99.60 **	-87.42 **
	Number of fruits per plant					
rMPH	-5.09	-74.68 **	-22.94	-51.43 **	-4.11	-55.29 **
rBPH	-45.01 **	-75.03 **	-41.8 **	-73.75 **	-28.26	-75.88 **
	Yield					
rMPH	11.90	-68.97 **	-78.13 **	-59.11 **	-93.03 **	-80.71 **
rBPH	8.53	-75.28 **	-81.48 **	-66.24 **	-95.09 **	-86.63 **
	Fresh weight per fruit					
rMPH	-38.97 **	-22.90 *	-78.00 **	-86.38 **	-92.14 **	-92.72 **
rBPH	-63.42 **	-46.55 **	-85.05 **	-92.70 **	-95.53 **	-96.26 **
	Brix °					
rMPH	-7.21 **	3.86 **	31.48 **	34.14 **	16.02 **	31.26 **
rBPH	-17.18**	1.56	19.89 **	30.96 **	8.01	25.3 **

580

581 **Table 3.** Relative mid-parental heterosis (rMPH) and best-parental heterosis (rBPH) for the accumulation of the
582 three main capsaicinoids (capsaicin, dihydrocapsaicin and nordihydrocapsaicin) and for the total capsaicinoids in
583 the placenta of fully ripe fruits in intraspecific and interspecific hybrids of *Capsicum*. Parents: *C. chinense* cv.
584 Habanero (HAB), *C. chinense* cv. Biquinho (BIQ), *C. annuum* cv. Jalapeño (JAL) and *C. annuum* cv. Cascadura
585 Ikeda (IKE). The pungent genotypes are shown in **boldface**.

Hybrids

Genotype	Intraspecific F ₁				Interspecific F ₁				
	HAB × BIQ	BIQ × HAB	JAL × IKE	IKE × JAL	HAB × JAL	JAL × HAB	JAL × BIQ	IKE × HAB	IKE × BIQ
Capsaicin									
rMPH	300.70 **	328.46 **	-34.7	54.59	132.16 **	168.11 **	347.05 **	184.16 **	39493.63 **
rBPH	101.65 **	115.63 **	-67.35 **	-22.69	99.90 **	130.85 **	125.54 **	42.10 **	20027.80 **
Dihydrocapsaicin									
rMPH	161.43 **	217.84 **	-31.96	127.22 **	79.89 **	75.87 **	186.84 **	189.16 **	76568.97 **
rBPH	31.03 **	59.30 **	-65.98 **	13.62	61.71 **	58.10 **	43.85 **	44.59 *	39402.03 **
Nordihydrocapsaicin									
rMPH	58.92 **	131.32 **	-8.59	307.87 **	94.36 **	47.29 *	117.87 **	453.92 **	46169.57 **
rBPH	-20.28 **	16.04 *	-54.29 **	103.94 **	42.15 **	7.73	9.1	176.96 **	23034.78 **
Total Capsaicinoids									
rMPH	2745.10 **	284.14 **	-31.64	100.57 **	111.88 **	129.49 **	272.43 **	193.87 **	45860.17 **
rBPH	1322.81 **	93.03 **	-65.82 **	0.300	89.74 **	105.52 **	87.39 **	46.95 **	23034.78 **

586

587 Figure legends

588 **Figure 1. Figure 1. Representative *Capsicum* plants and phenotypic analysis of**
589 **their growth and agronomic traits.** A, representative plants of the parental genotypes:
590 *Capsicum chinense* cv. Habanero (HAB) and cv. Biquinho (BIQ), *C. annuum* cv.
591 Jalapeño (JAL) and cv. Ikeda (IKE). B, intraspecific hybrids; C, interspecific hybrids.
592 Scale bars = 15 cm. The genotypes with pungent fruits are shown in **boldface**. D, PCA
593 biplot of 13 *Capsicum* genotypes (parents, intraspecific and interspecific hybrids), based
594 on the variance of the 28 traits listed in Supplemental Table S3, explained by two PC
595 axes (PC1 and PC2). The two first components explain 40.5% and 22% of the variance,

596 respectively. Different colours represent the different genotypes, pungent genotypes are
597 underlined. Aligned vectors indicate positive and perpendicular vector negative
598 correlation between traits. The numbers represent each individual sample, listed in the
599 Supplemental Data files.

600 **Figure 2. Seed traits in *Capsicum* cultivars and their hybrids.** A, Seed weight and B,
601 germination in *Capsicum chinense* cv. Habanero (HAB) and cv. Biquinho (BIQ) and C.
602 *annuum* cv. Jalapeño (JAL) and cv. Cascadura Ikeda (IKE) and their intra- and
603 interspecific hybrids. The first genotype in each cross represents the pistillate parent.
604 The pungent genotypes are shown in **boldface**. Different letters differ by Scott Knott's
605 5% test.

606 **Figure 3. Fruit size and shape in *Capsicum chinense* cv. Habanero (HAB) and cv.**
607 **Biquinho (BIQ) and *C. annum* cv. Jalapeño (JAL) and cv. Cascadura Ikeda**
608 **(IKE), and their intra- and interspecific F1 hybrids.** A, Representative fruit cross-
609 sections of *Capsicum* parental lines (top), intraspecific hybrids (middle) and
610 interspecific hybrids (bottom). The pungent genotypes are shown in **boldface**. Scale
611 bars 2 = cm. B, individual fruit fresh weight (g). Bars are means \pm s.e.m. (n=10). Letters
612 show significant differences by ANOVA followed by Scot Knott's 5% test. C, PCA
613 biplot of 13 *Capsicum* genotypes (parents, intraspecific and interspecific hybrids) based
614 on the variance in 32 fruit biometric parameters, explained by two PC axes (PC1 and
615 PC2). The two components explained 54.04% and 18.61% of the variance, respectively.
616 Parental genotypes are represented by circles of different colours, intraspecific *C.*
617 *annuum* hybrids by blue with black outline, *C. chinense* by red with black outline and
618 interspecific hybrids in gray. The pungent genotypes are shown in **boldface**.

619 **Figure 4. Relative capsaicinoid content in the placenta of *Capsicum chinense* cv.**
620 **Habanero (HAB), cv. Biquinho (BIQ), and *C. annum* cv. Jalapeño (JAL) and cv.**

621 **Cascadura Ikeda (IKE) and their intra- and interspecific hybrids.** The pungent
622 genotypes are shown in **boldface**. Each column represents the mean value per genotype
623 (n=7).

624 **Figure 5. Heat map showing heterosis for primary metabolites and capsaicinoids in**
625 **the fruit placenta of *Capsicum chinense* cv. Habanero (HAB), cv. Biquinho (BIQ),**
626 **and *C. annuum* cv. Jalapeño (JAL) and cv. Cascadura Ikeda (IKE) hybrids. A,**
627 **intraspecific and B, interspecific hybrids. The pungent genotypes are shown in**
628 **boldface.** Each square represents a genotype (n=7). The color key indicates the relative
629 best parent heterosis (BPH) value (red = higher, blue = lower).

630

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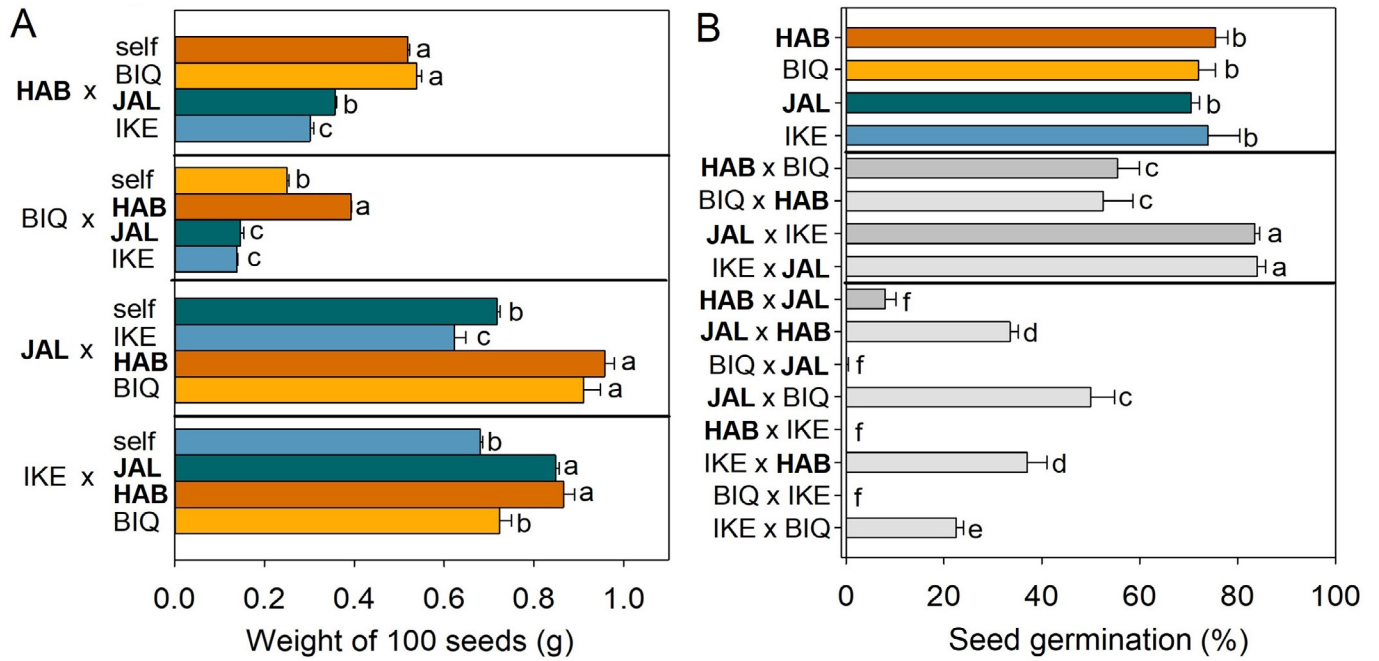


Figure 2. Seed traits in *Capsicum* cultivars and their hybrids. A, Seed weight and B, germination in *Capsicum chinense* cv. Habanero (HAB), cv. Biquinho (BIQ), *C. annuum* cv. Jalapeño (JAL), and cv. Ikeda (IKE) and their intra- and interspecific hybrids. The first genotype in each cross represents the pistillate parent. The pungent genotypes are shown in **boldface**. Different letters differ by Scott Knott's 5% test.

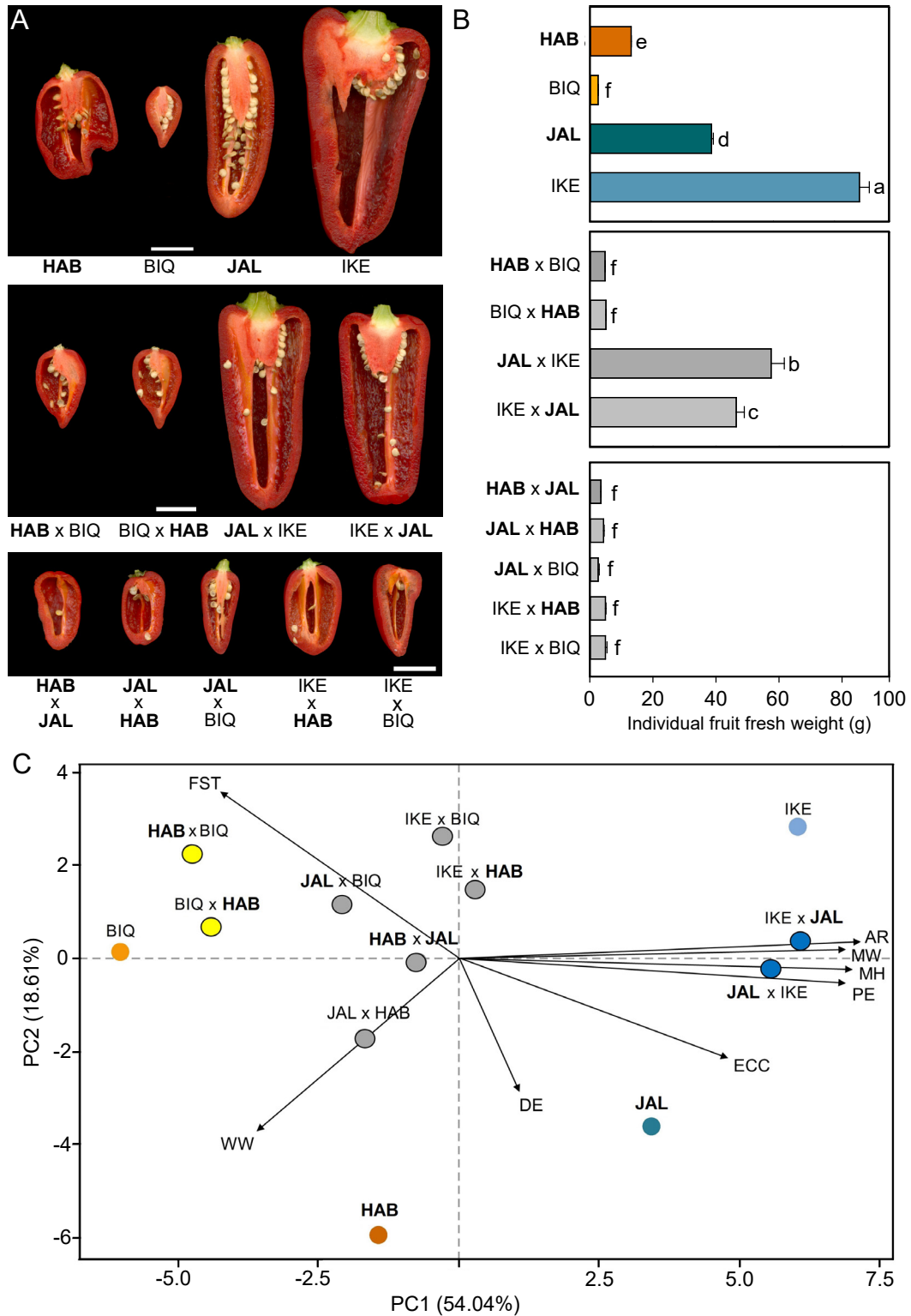


Figure 3. Fruit size and shape analysis in *Capsicum chinense* cv. Habanero (HAB) and cv. Biquinho (BIQ) and *C. annuum* cv. Jalapeño (JAL) and cv. Cascadura Ikeda (IKE), and their intra- and interspecific F_1 hybrids. A, Representative fruit cross-sections of the parental lines (top), intraspecific hybrids (middle) and interspecific hybrids (bottom). The pungent genotypes are shown in boldface. Scale bars 2 = cm. B, individual fruit fresh weight (g). Bars are means \pm s.e.m. (n=10). Letters show significant differences by ANOVA followed by Scot Knott's 5% test. C, PCA biplot of 13 *Capsicum* genotypes (parents, intraspecific and interspecific hybrids) based on the variance in 32 fruit biometric parameters, explained by two PC axes (PC1 and PC2). The two components explained 54.04% and 18.61% of the variance, respectively. Parental genotypes are represented by circles of different colours, intraspecific *C. annuum* hybrids by blue with black outline, *C. chinense* by red with black outline and interspecific hybrids in gray. The pungent genotypes are shown in boldface.

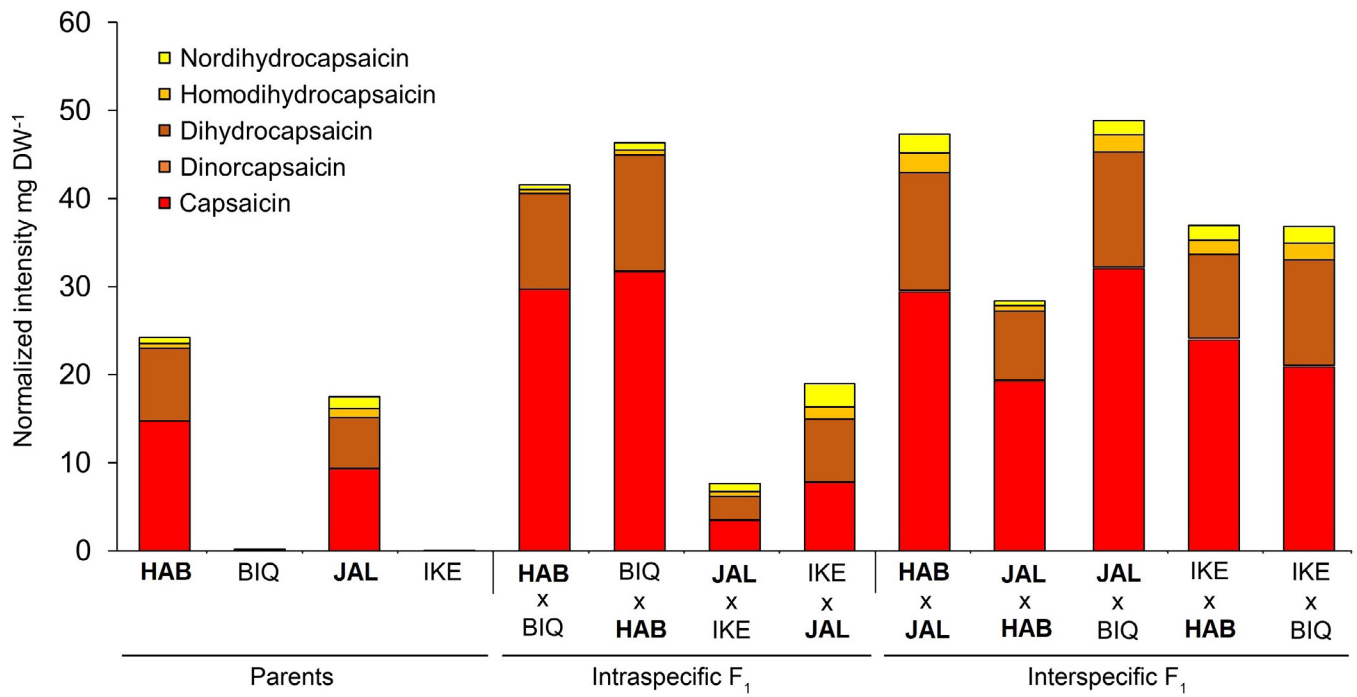
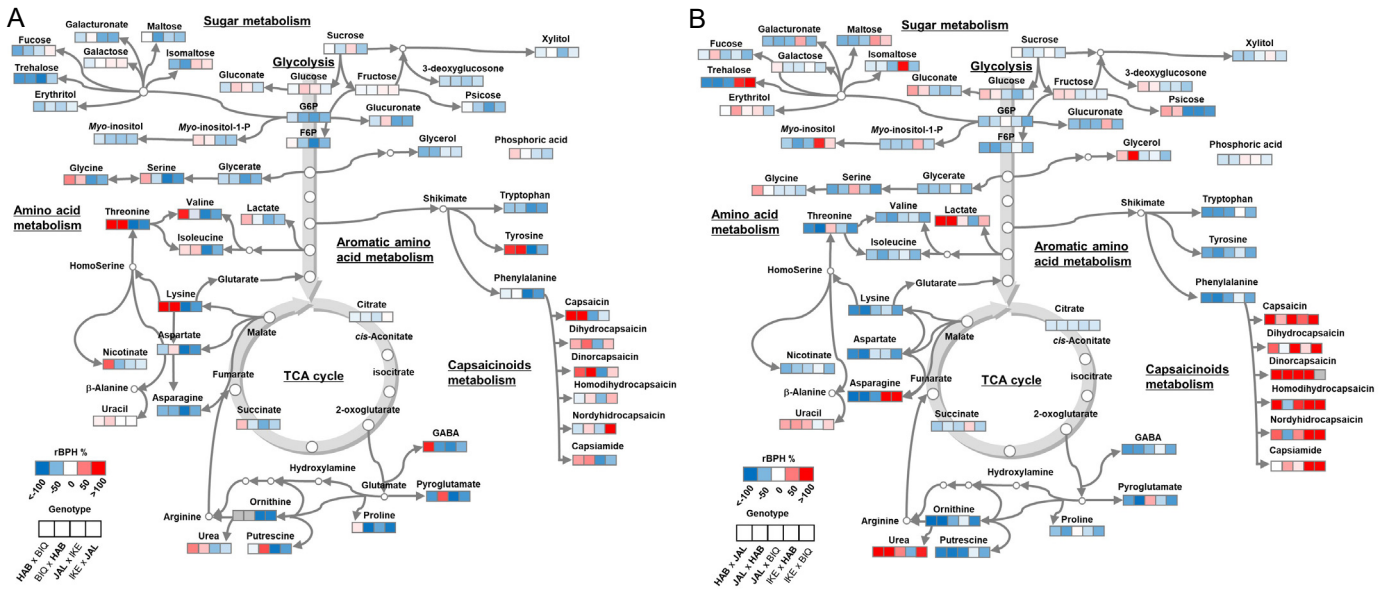


Figure 4. Relative capsacinoid content in the placenta of *Capsicum chinense* cv. Habanero (HAB), cv. Biquinho (BIQ), and *C. annuum* cv. Jalapeño (JAL) and cv. Cascadura Ikeda (IKE) and their intra- and interspecific hybrids. The pungent genotypes are shown in **boldface. Each column represents the mean value per genotype (n=7).**



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