24-nt phasiRNAs move from tapetal to meiotic cells in maize anthers

Xue Zhou[1], Kun Huang[2,3], Chong Teng[4], Mona Batish[5], Blake C. Meyers[4,6*] and Virginia Walbot[1*]

[1]Department of Biology, Stanford University, Stanford, CA 94305, USA. [2]Department of Plant and Soil Sciences, University of Delaware, Newark, DE 19716, USA. [3]Delaware Biotechnology Institute, University of Delaware, Newark, DE 19716, USA. [4]Donald Danforth Plant Science Center, St. Louis, MO 63132, USA. [5]Department of Medical and Molecular Sciences, University of Delaware, Newark, DE 19716, USA. [6]Division of Plant Sciences, University of Missouri – Columbia, Columbia, MO 65211, USA. *e-mail: bmeyers@danforthcenter.org; walbot@stanford.edu

Abstract

In maize, 24-nt phased, secondary small interfering RNAs (phasiRNAs) are abundant in meiotic stage anthers, but their distribution and functions are not precisely known. Using laser capture microdissection we analyzed tapetal cells, meiocytes, and other somatic cells at several stages of anther development to establish the timing of 24-*PHAS* precursor transcripts and the 24-nt phasiRNA products. By integrating RNA and small RNA (sRNA) profiling plus single-molecule and sRNA FISH (smFISH or sRNA-FISH) spatial detection, we demonstrate that the tapetum is the primary site of 24-*PHAS* precursor and *Dcl5* transcripts and the resulting 24-nt phasiRNAs. Interestingly, 24-nt phasiRNAs accumulate in all cell types, with the highest levels in meiocytes, followed by tapetum. Our data support

the conclusion that 24-nt phasiRNAs are mobile from tapetum to meiocytes and to other

somatic cells. We discuss possible roles for 24-nt phasiRNAs in anther cell types.

In plants, small RNAs (sRNAs) belong to three main categories: microRNAs (miRNAs) involved in target mRNA cleavage, heterochromatic small interfering RNAs (hc-siRNAs) involved in RNA-directed DNA methylation (RdDM), and phased, secondary small interfering RNAs (phasiRNAs). PhasiRNAs were initially reported in male reproductive organs of maize and rice[1-6], and more recently in diverse monocots and eudicots[7-10]; they are found primarily in anthers. In most species, 21-nt phasiRNAs predominate during early anther development, while 24-nt phasiRNAs are abundant during meiosis.

PhasiRNA biogenesis starts with transcription of long noncoding precursors (*PHAS* transcripts) by RNA polymerase II. Subsequently, the *PHAS* transcripts are capped and polyadenylated, translocated to the cytoplasm, and then bound by ribosomes[11]. In the polysomal complex, an Argonaute-associated 22-nt miRNA complementary to sequences in the *PHAS* transcript binds to this precursor molecule and triggers cleavage. miR2118 is utilized for most 21-nt *PHAS* precursors and miR2275 for most 24-nt *PHAS* precursors based on the presence of complementary sequences; a fraction of precursors lacks such complementarity and may be processed utilizing other miRNAs. Then, the 3′ portions of cleaved transcripts are converted to double-stranded RNA by RNA-DEPENDENT RNA POLYMERASE 6 (RDR6), and subsequently processed by Dicer-like proteins (DCL4 for the 21-nt and DCL5 for the 24-nt type) to yield the phasiRNAs[1,2,4,12]. Despite the expectation of equal stoichiometry of all the products from one *PHAS* transcript, individual phasiRNA abundances derived from the same transcript

can differ by more than 1000-fold indicating differential stabilization[6,13]. It is possible that only

these few abundant products generated from one precursor have functions.

In maize the 21-nt phasiRNAs are distributed throughout immature anther lobes based on

in situ hybridization with one or a few examples, although the production of miR2118 is

restricted to the epidermis[1]. Several observations associate phasiRNAs with male sterility. First,

the absence of specific 21-nt phasiRNAs are implicated in causing male sterility in rice[14,15].

Second, in numerous male-sterile mutants of maize, either the 21-nt or 24-nt phasiRNAs are

absent reflecting the tight control of the normal timing of their appearance during

development[1,2,16,17]. More specifically addressing the role of 24-nt phasiRNAs, *dicer-like5*

mutants unable to process most 24-nt *PHAS* precursors are male-sterile and exhibit aberrant

tapetal development under normal growing conditions[2]. In maize, the expression of *PHAS*

precursors and miR2275 as well as the accumulation of 24-nt phasiRNAs occur mainly in the

tapetum at the prophase I stage in anthers[1]. Male-sterile mutants with tapetal developmental

defects evident during early meiotic stages are missing the 24-nt phasiRNAs[2,17]. Interestingly,

the male sterility cases in rice and maize exhibit temperature-dependent male sterility: in

appropriate growing conditions, the plants are male-fertile despite the absence of specific or an

entire class of phasiRNAs[2,15,16]. This observation has led to the hypothesis that phasiRNAs may

buffer anther development against environmental perturbation, particularly in the tapetum. In

addition to the expectation that phasiRNAs could modulate mRNA half-life of still poorly

defined targets, the 24-nt phasiRNAs result in increased CHH DNA methylation at 24-*PHAS* loci

in maize, as assessed in whole anthers[13]. In analysis of isolated meiocytes, 24-nt phasiRNAs

have been detected, and there is an increase in CHH DNA methylation, leading to the hypothesis

that these phasiRNAs might regulate meiosis[18] by an unknown mechanism related to *cis*

methylation of their own loci. To date, the precise role of 24-nt phasiRNAs in regulating maize

anther development has remained elusive.

sRNAs can function by travelling within and between organs: from the site of synthesis,

they can spread both to neighboring cells and systemically over long distance[19-21]. Cell-to-cell

movement of sRNAs is probably through plasmodesmata (PD), a plasma membrane-lined pore

acting as an intercellular channel that connects the cytoplasm of adjacent cells[22]. To date, the

potential movement of 24-nt phasiRNAs from the site of biogenesis to the neighboring cell

layers in maize anthers has not been well studied. A major concern with our previous localization

analysis for 24-nt phasiRNAs and biogenesis components primarily to the tapetum is that only a

few examples were evaluated, and the probes can adhere to the callose coat surrounding the

germinal cells, yielding a non-specific signal[1]. Therefore, in meiotic stage maize anthers, two

major questions should be addressed: 1) do meiocytes contain all the components for generating

24-nt phasiRNAs? And, 2) using RNA-seq and small RNA-seq, what is the timing of synthesis

and the distribution of these components in anther lobes?

To explore the distribution of 24-nt phasiRNA biogenesis components and the resulting

small RNAs, we used laser capture microdissection (LCM) to isolate meiocytes (ME), tapetum

(TAP), and other somatic cells (OSC) from two anther developmental stages for low input RNA-

seq and sRNA-seq and for a more comprehensive developmental analysis using RT-qPCR. By

integrating comprehensive RNA/sRNA profiling and single-molecule or sRNA FISH

(smFISH/sRNA-FISH) spatial detection, we demonstrate that TAP contain the most 24-*PHAS*

primary transcripts, whereas ME ultimately accumulate more 24-nt phasiRNAs at meiotic

prophase I. We discuss these results in a model in which 24-nt phasiRNAs move from TAP to

ME during meiosis.

Results

LCM collections from meiotic stage maize anthers

Control of fertility in maize anthers, the male reproductive floral organs, is important for hybrid

seed production as an economic way to improve grain yield. Maize tassels produce hundreds of

spikelets, each of which contains an upper and lower floret, and each floret contains three anthers

(Fig. 1a). The lower floret stamens develop approximately 1 day later than the upper floret

stamens within the same spikelet. At the beginning of meiosis, each anther contains four lobes;

each lobe consists of four somatic cell types that are required to support the meiotic cell

development (Fig. 1a). The high regularity of maize anther development, numerous anthers, and

a detailed staging system allow rapid dissection of carefully staged anthers for cytological and

molecular analysis[23] (Fig. 1b, c). To explore the spatial distribution of 24-nt phasiRNAs and their

pathway components in the W23 inbred (Fig. 2a), LCM was used to isolate three samples (ME,

TAP, and OSC) from two stages of meiotic anthers (1.5 mm zygotene and 2.0 mm pachytene)

(Supplementary Fig. 1 and Supplementary Table 1). Collections from additional stages were

used in RT-qPCR analysis to provide finer detail of the timing of biogenesis of a subset of 24-

PHAS precursor and *Dcl5* transcripts.

24-*PHAS* precursors accumulate in tapetal cells

Seventeen RNA-seq libraries were built from ME, TAP, and OSC recovered from 1.5 mm and

2.0 mm stage anthers plus single, fixed anthers (FA) (Supplementary Table 2). To check the

reproducibility of the datasets, a correlation heatmap and a Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

plot were constructed (Fig. 1d, e). Biological replicates are highly similar and distinct from other

cell collections at both stages, confirming the high quality of our LCM sample collections. 126

(TPM > 0) of 176 previously discovered 24-*PHAS* precursor types were identified in FA and

LCM cell sample collections[1] (Supplementary Table 3); *PHAS* precursors that overlapped

protein coding genes were excluded. As shown in Fig. 2b, 118 of these loci had sufficient and

reliable expression (TPM reads > 5 in at least one sample) for further analysis. Overall, the 24-

PHAS precursors were most abundant in TAP at the 1.5 mm stage, showing an expression

pattern and high abundance similar to that in 1.5 mm FA (Fig. 2b); therefore, the majority of 24-

PHAS precursors in whole anthers are found in the tapetal cells. The average total expression

levels of 24-*PHAS* loci are approximately 65 times lower in ME and 20 times lower in OSC at

this zygotene stage (Fig. 2b and Supplementary Table 3). Single cell RNA-seq (scRNA-seq)

analysis of individual ME detected a low abundance of 24-*PHAS* loci during the pre-

zygotene/zygotene stages in a A188/B73 maize hybrid stock[24]. The total average abundance of

these 24-*PHAS* transcripts per zygotene sample in A188/B73 is less than that in the pooled

meiocyte LCM samples at 1.5 mm from W23 maize anthers. Furthermore, our previous scRNA-

seq data also identified extremely low abundances of 24-*PHAS* precursors in premeiotic AR and

PMC in W23 maize anthers[25]. These data suggests that the TAP is the main source for 24-*PHAS*

precursors in zygotene stage maize anthers.

To further verify our LCM RNA-seq data and to quantify transcripts in more stages, we

randomly selected three highly expressed 24-*PHAS* precursors (*PHAS15*, *PHAS116*, and

PHAS296) for smFISH and RT-qPCR assays (Fig. 2c). In the LCM RNA-seq data, transcripts for

all three loci were significantly enriched in TAP at the 1.5 mm stage compared to ME and OSC

(Supplementary Fig. 2). smFISH images confirmed that TAP contain most of these three 24-

PHAS transcripts (yellow dots resulting from dye AF647 labeling) at the 1.25 mm and 1.5 mm

stages during late leptotene/pre-zygotene and zygotene stages in W23 anthers (Fig. 2d, g and

Supplementary Fig. 3a). Quantification counts (transcript count) demonstrated that TAP is

significantly higher at both stages (Fig. 2e, h and Supplementary Fig. 3b). Almost no expression

was detected at earlier or later stages (Fig. 2d, e, g, h and Supplementary Fig. 3a, b) or in control

hybridization assays (Supplementary Fig. 4). For RT-qPCR using W23 anthers and LCM

samples, *ZmCyanase* was used as the internal reference; it is consistently expressed across all

anther stages and is expressed in all cell layers based on smFISH detection (Supplementary Fig.

5) compared to the no label control hybridization test (Supplementary Fig. 6). In 0.75-2.5 mm

W23 maize anthers, the expression patterns of the three 24-*PHAS* loci showed a similar pattern,

with high expression levels in both 1.25 mm and 1.5 mm anthers and with significant enrichment

in TAP compared to ME and OSC (Fig. 2f, i and Supplementary Fig. 3c).

148   To further solidify the conclusion that TAP is the primary site of 24-*PHAS* transcript

biogenesis, we utilized the *dcl5-mu3* mutant. Several *dcl5* mutants have been documented to

contain normal 24-*PHAS* precursor levels but lack virtually all the 24-nt phasiRNAs[2]. We

reasoned that in the absence of the processing machinery, the large 24-*PHAS* precursors would

accumulate in the cells where they were synthesized. This was indeed true as the *PHAS116*

transcripts were found to be highly enriched in TAP at the 1.75 mm stage (this is a slightly later

stage than in W23 anthers) in homozygous *dcl5* (*dcl5-mu03//dcl5-mu03*) anthers (mixed inbred

background) using smFISH (Fig. 2j).

156   Overall, these data demonstrate that maize tapetal cells are the main site for 24-*PHAS*

157   precursor accumulation and that accumulation starts at early meiotic prophase I and peaks during

158   zygotene. We also established that accumulation is already substantial at the initial stages of

159   meiosis in 1.25 mm anthers, approximately one day earlier than detected previously by analysis

160   of 1.0 mm and 1.5 mm W23 whole anthers[1].

The spatial distribution of 24-nt phasiRNA biogenesis pathway components

Argonaute (AGO) proteins, binding partners of miRNAs and phasiRNAs, play essential roles in

phasiRNAs biogenesis and RNA silencing (RNAi)[26,27]. AGOs are assumed to be involved at two

steps in 24-nt phasiRNA biogenesis and function: a specific AGO as the binding protein for the

miR2275 trigger and one or several AGOs as the binding proteins for the diverse 24-nt

phasiRNAs (Fig. 2a). We identified transcripts encoding 18 AGO proteins in LCM cell

collections (Fig. 3a). Nine AGO protein transcripts were expressed in one or two cell collections,

and the other nine AGO proteins were detected in all three cell collections. None of the AGO

isotype transcripts were specific to tapetal cells. Fifteen of 18 AGO members were expressed in

TAP at the 1.5 mm stage, providing a list of AGOs that could be involved in 24-nt phasiRNA

biogenesis (Fig. 3a). Among these, AGO1 family members have already been designated as

candidates in previous studies in maize and rice[5,7, 28], and now three AGO members (AGO10b,

AGO2b, and AGO5c) not expressed in 1.5 mm TAP can likely be excluded as candidates for 24-

nt phasiRNA biogenesis (Fig. 3a). In meiocytes, transcripts were found for 11 AGO proteins,

many of which were more highly expressed in ME than other cell types, but none were exclusive

to ME (Fig. 3a). Several of these AGO types were predicted in previous transcriptome profiling

and spatial localization studies to be potential 24-nt phasiRNA binding partners, such as AGO18

family members[1, 5, 29] and AGO2b[5] based on the timing of their expression. It is noteworthy that

we detected abundant *AGO5c* transcripts, and these were enriched in ME and absent in TAP

(Fig. 3a). AGO5c is encoded by the maize *male-sterile28* gene and is homologous to rice

MEL1[30], which is the binding partner for a subset of 21-nt phasiRNAs in rice[14].

We investigated the transcript abundance of *Dcl5* and *Rdr6* in the LCM RNA-seq data.

Dcl5 was significantly higher in TAP at the 1.5 mm stage than any other samples (Fig. 3b). In

contrast, *Rdr6* was expressed in all three cell collections, with slightly higher expression levels in

ME, followed by TAP at both stages (Fig. 3b). To precisely pinpoint the timing of expression,

RT-qPCR demonstrated that *Dcl5* transcripts were significantly higher in TAP samples (Fig. 3c);

furthermore, the expression pattern of *Dcl5* is similar to the three 24-*PHAS* precursors (*PHAS15*,

PHAS116, and *PHAS296*), with the highest expression levels detected in TAP compared to ME

or OSC at both 1.25 mm and 1.5 mm stages (Fig. 3c). As shown in Fig. 3d-f with smFISH

detection, *Dcl5* transcripts (yellow dots resulting from dye Texas Red labeled smFISH probes)

were prominently localized in TAP at the 1.25 mm, 1.5 mm, and 1.75 mm stages in either W23

anthers or heterozygous *Dcl5*//*dcl5* fertile anthers. Far fewer yellow dots were detected in ME or

OSC, and almost no signal was detected in the negative control samples (Fig. 3f and

Supplementary Fig. 6). An additional smFISH analysis of *Dcl5* using AF647 labeled smFISH

probes confirmed that *Dcl5* transcripts were localized mainly in TAP at 1.25 mm and 1.5 mm

(Supplementary Fig. 7). These data suggest that TAP is the main site for *Dcl5* accumulation at

early meiotic prophase I in maize.

Previous studies have reported that four basic helix-loop-helix (bHLH) factors (*Ms23*,

Ms32, *bHLH52*, and *bHLH122*) are required for normal tapetal cell specification and

differentiation in maize[17,31]. *Ms23* is the master transcription factor (TF) and is required for

expression of 24-*PHAS* precursors, miR2275, and 24-nt phasiRNAs[1]. Here, *Ms23* and *bHLH51*

were highly expressed in TAP at 2.0 mm, whereas *Ms32* and *bHLH122* were more abundant in

TAP at 1.5 mm (Supplementary Fig. 8). These TF expression patterns are consistent with our

previous work in maize anthers, particularly the absence of *bHLH122* transcripts at 2.0 mm[17].

Importantly, the TAP is significantly higher for these four TFs compared with the other two cell

collections (Supplementary Fig. 8). Collectively, the distribution of key TFs by RNA-seq and

localization data provide further evidence that TAP is the main site for transcription of *PHAS*

precursors and their processing into 24-nt phasiRNAs. Based on the timing of 24-*PHAS*

accumulation, heterodimers of *Ms32* and *bHLH122* are candidates for direct regulation of 24-

PHAS loci. Because *Ms23* is essential for expression of *bHLH122,* it is also a critical factor.

24-nt phasiRNAs are abundant in all three cell collections

To investigate the spatial distribution of 24-nt phasiRNAs in meiotic stage anthers, we collected

ME, TAP, and OSC by LCM from 1.5 mm and 2.0 mm W23 maize anthers for low input sRNA-

seq (Supplementary Table 1, 2). We first classified sRNAs by length (18 nt to 30 nt) in FA and

LCM cell collections. Confirming previous results[1], the 24-nt size sRNA class is the most

abundant at both stages (Supplementary Fig. 9a). The 21-nt size sRNA class is also detectable,

but with lower expression levels (Supplementary Fig. 9a). Using the set of 118 24-*PHAS* loci for

analysis (Fig. 2b), 24-nt phasiRNAs from these loci were more abundant in all three cell

collections at 2.0 mm than at the 1.5 mm stage (Fig. 4a and Supplementary Table 3). The

expression patterns of 24-nt phasiRNAs and 22-nt miR2275 family members are very similar,

with the highest abundance in ME at 2.0 mm during pachytene, followed by TAP at this stage

(Fig. 4a). A previous sRNA-FISH co-localization study reported that miR2275 and one 24-nt

phasiRNA had higher abundances in AR/ME and TAP in maize anthers[32]. Here, two of the

miR2275 family members (miR2275a and miR2275b) were highly expressed, indicating they

might play key roles in 24-*PHAS* precursor cleavage (Fig. 4b). Although the precursors are most

abundant in TAP cells (Fig. 2b, c and Supplementary Fig. 2), the 24-nt phasiRNAs accumulate to

higher levels in the ME (Fig. 4a, c and Supplementary Fig. 9b). Individual 24-nt sRNA

abundances from products of the same locus (*PHAS15*, *PHAS116*, and *PHAS296*) are not

uniform: only a few of the 24-nt sRNAs show high abundance despite the expectation of equal

stoichiometry from a single precursor molecule (Fig. 4d, e and Supplementary Fig. 10a).

Furthermore, sRNAs localization studies illustrated that 24-nt phasiRNAs from three 24-*PHAS*

loci (*PHAS15*, *PHAS116*, and *PHAS296*) were expressed in all three cell types, with higher

expression levels in ME and TAP, lower in OSC from 1.25 mm to 2.0 mm (Fig. 4f, g and

Supplementary Fig. 10b). Almost zero expression, considered to be background, was detected in

control hybridization assays (no labeled control and mouse HKH RNA control) (Fig. 4f, g and

Supplementary Fig. 10c). These distribution patterns lead us to hypothesize that the TAP is the

site for nearly all 24-nt phasiRNAs biogenesis and that the presence of 24-nt phasiRNAs in ME

and OSC depends on transport during early meiotic prophase I in maize.

Discussion

In anthers, TAP is the innermost of the four somatic layers, adjacent to the germinal cells. The

TAP plays essential roles in providing nutrients, enzymes, and pollen wall components to

support AR, ME, and microspore (MSP) development. Defects in tapetal function or the

abnormal differentiation of TAP usually leads to meiotic arrest or to later pollen abortion[2,17,31,33-

35]. 24-nt phasiRNAs have been reported as abundant in meiotic stage maize anthers from

hundreds of unique copy loci[1]. In TAP-defective, male-sterile mutants lacking key tapetal-

expressed TFs, almost all the 24-nt phasiRNAs are missing[1,17], which indicates that TAP is likely

to be involved in 24-nt phasiRNA biogenesis. Our low-input RNA-seq data for ME, TAP, and

OSC demonstrated that the TAP is the main source for the 118 24-*PHAS* precursor transcripts as

well as *Dcl5* transcripts in 1.5 mm stage anthers (Fig. 2b, c and Fig. 3b), confirming a previous

study in the same W23 background that 1.5 mm anthers were the peak stage for 24-*PHAS* loci

production with 1.0 mm anthers lacking expression[1]. We further refined the timing using

smFISH and RT-qPCR assays, demonstrating that three selected 24-*PHAS* loci (*PHAS15*,

PHAS116, and *PHAS296*) and *Dcl5* transcripts were initially expressed at 1.25 mm during the

leptotene-zygotene transition and were continuously expressed at 1.5 mm or 1.75 mm during

zygotene (Fig. 2d-i, 3d-f and Supplementary Fig. 3, 7). Moreover, the earlier timing for 24-nt

phasiRNA generation corresponds to the stage just prior to and including the leptotene-zygotene

transition (Fig. 4f, g and Supplementary Fig. 10b), which is a key checkpoint in meiosis. A

previous study has reported that CHH DNA methylation is elevated in isolated ME, specifically

at the phasiRNA-producing loci[18]. Therefore, a logical hypothesis is that some of the 24-nt

phasiRNAs generated in the TAP and transported to ME might induce methylation in the

corresponding loci. It is unclear how such *cis* methylation could contribute to meiotic regulation.

Furthermore, in *dcl5* mutants, meiosis is normal in the near complete absence of 24-nt

phasiRNAs[2], indicating that whatever role the 24-nt phasiRNAs play, it is dispensable.

By using LCM-purified cell collections, our data demonstrate that TAP cells are the

primary site of 24-*PHAS* precursor accumulation and 24-nt phasiRNA biogenesis. sRNA-seq

data for ME, TAP, and OSC illustrated that 24-nt phasiRNAs and miR2275 family members

were found in all three cell collections, with higher expression levels in ME at 2.0 mm during

pachytene, followed by TAP at the same stage (Fig. 4a-c). Furthermore, sRNA-FISH detection

confirmed that the 24-nt phasiRNAs originating from three 24-*PHAS* loci (*PHAS15*, *PHAS116*,

and *PHAS296*) were present in all three cell layers from 1.25 mm to 2.0 mm (Fig. 4f, g and

Supplementary Fig. 10b). Our major new conclusion is the proposal that 24-nt phasiRNAs

generated in the TAP move to other cell types. This conclusion is summarized in a model of 24-

phasiRNA biogenesis and mobility in maize anthers during meiotic prophase I (Fig. 5). We

demonstrated that TAP is the main site of 24-nt phasiRNAs biogenesis, as TAP contain the most

of 24-*PHAS* precursors, *Dcl5* transcripts, adequate miR2275, and *Rdr6*. To understand why ME

later contain the highest levels of 24-nt phasiRNAs, we note that there are approximately 30

tapetal cells touching each ME, whereas only approximately 0.6 tapetal cell touch neighboring

OSC[23]. Utilizing the LCM cell numbers we recovered and the total 24-nt phasiRNA reads we

generated (Supplementary Table 1, 3b), we calculated that each tapetal cell "donates"

approximately 5% of its 24-nt phasiRNAs to ME or OSC during meiotic prophase I in maize

anthers. If each TAP cells exports 5% (5 units) of its 24-nt phasiRNAs to ME cells, each ME

would have 5 units x 30 = 150 units of 24-nt phasiRNAs, therefore reaching a higher level than

the source TAP cells. In contrast, export of 5 units of 24-nt phasiRNAs to the OSC, would result

in a low level of 24-nt phasiRNAs in the immediate receiving middle layer cell with further

dilution as 24-nt phasiRNAs move throughout the OSC group. A challenge for future research

will be documenting the path of 24-nt phasiRNA movement. Other cases of plant intercellular

movement of sRNAs are probably through PD, regulating tissue or organ development by genes

silencing and RdDM[22]. PD are membrane-lined intercellular channels that connect the

cytoplasms of adjacent cells, such as between TAP and PMC/ME or non-TAP somatic cells in

anthers[36,37]. Therefore, we speculate that 24-nt phasiRNAs move from the biogenesis site in TAP

to ME or OSC through PD in meiotic prophase I maize anthers.

In *Arabidopsis*, tapetal-derived 24-nt siRNAs induce DNA methylation in the germline

and maintain genome integrity by silencing corresponding genes and transposons[38]. Here, 24-nt

phasiRNAs are generated in TAP and then exported to ME (Fig. 5). These exported 24-nt

phasiRNAs are likely required for the elevated CHH DNA methylation at 24-*PHAS* loci in

isolated ME in maize[18]. In *Arabidopsis*, the 24-nt siRNAs appear to have a broader role in

modifying the ME genome and gene expression than the 24-nt phasiRNAs have in maize. This is

particularly true for any impact 24-nt phasiRNAs might have on gene expression, because no

mRNA targets for this class of small RNAs have been identified. Nonetheless, it is interesting

that small RNAs synthesized in the TAP are transferred to maize ME. Analysis of *dcl5* maize

mutants establishes that in the absence of 24-nt phasiRNA biogenesis, tapetal cells fail to

differentiate properly at normal maize growing temperatures (28 °C), while meiosis proceeds

normally[2]. These observations indicate that the 24-nt phasiRNAs play an essential role in the

TAP -- not in ME -- during the meiotic stages; later, microspore failure renders *dcl5* mutants

male-sterile, a fact that we attribute to the failure of the tapetum to supply nutrients and wall

components to the developing uninucleate microspores. Mutants grown at low temperature

(21 °C) are fertile and tapetal development is slow but sufficient indicating that 24-nt phasiRNAs

are not required under these conditions. Considering these observations *in toto,* it is possible that

in maize the transfer of 24-nt phasiRNAs to meiocytes is an evolutionary relic that no longer

serves (or fully serves) a required function and that the primary role of the 24-nt phasiRNAs is to

support rapid tapetal differentiation.

Methods

Plant materials

Maize (*Zea mays*) W23 *bz2* inbred line plants were grown in Stanford, CA, USA under

greenhouse conditions (31 °C/21 °C, 14 h day/10 h night light cycle with supplemental LED and

UV-A lamps providing ~50% of summer sun conditions). Anthers were dissected from tassels

and then measured using a micrometer (Fisher Scientific).

Homozygous *dcl5-mu03//dcl5-mu03* plants are temperature-sensitive male sterile. They

are male sterile under optimized growth condition (28 °C/22 °C day/night temperature, 14 h

light, 400 µmol/m^2/s) in the greenhouse. *dcl5-mu03//dcl5-mu03* male sterile and *dcl5-*

mu03//Dcl5 fertile siblings were grown in St. Louis, MO, USA under the optimized growth

conditions in a greenhouse.

Laser Capture Microdissection (LCM)

ME, TAP, and OSC were isolated from 1.25 mm, 1.5 mm, and 2.0 mm W23 anthers by LCM as

described previously[39], with minor modification. Fixed anthers were cryoprotected in 10% (2-3

days) and 15% sucrose/PBS (phosphate buffered saline) (5 to 7 days) to better preserve tapetal

cell layer morphology. Total RNA was isolated from each cell type using the RNAqueous™-

Micro Kit (Invitrogen); RNA quality was evaluated on an Agilent Bioanalyzer using the RNA

6000 Pico Kit (Agilent Technologies).

Cytological staging and imaging

AR/PMC/ME from W23 anthers (from the 0.75 mm through 2.25 mm anther length stages,

recovered at 0.25 mm intervals) were extruded, classified using a micrometer, and then

appropriately sized anthers were stained with 10 μg/mL Hoechst 33342 (Sigma-Aldrich)

according to our pervious report[25]. Confocal image stacks for the germinal cells were taken with

a Leica SP8 microscope using a 93X Glycerol immersion objective. ImageJ[40] was used for

processing the fluorescent microscopy images. Cytological stages during meiotic prophase I

were assigned using established criteria[25,41].

RNA-seq and sRNA-seq library construction and sequencing

Total RNA was isolated from three different LCM cell samples and FA samples at 1.5 mm and

2.0 mm using the RNAqueous™-Micro Kit (Invitrogen). RNA-seq libraries were prepared using

CEL-seq2[42] based on a modified protocol[25]. Primers were synthesized by phosphoramidite

chemistry at the Stanford Protein and Nucleic Acid Facility (Stanford, CA) (Supplementary

Table 4). All RNA-seq libraries were sequenced on an Illumina HiSeq 4000 instrument at the

Stanford Genome Sequencing Service Center (Stanford, CA) with paired-end 150 bp reads.

For small RNA library preparation, RealSeq®-AC kits (SomaGenics) were used for ultra-

low amounts of total RNA starting with 100 ng from whole anthers or 10 ng from LCM cell

samples. Sequencing in a single-end mode on an Illumina NextSeq (University of Delaware)

yielded 75 bp reads for sRNA-seq.

Data handling and bioinformatics

Paired-end RNA-seq Read1 contained a 10 bp unique molecular identifier (UMI)[43] and sample

barcodes, and Read2 contained the transcript sequence. Each UMI was processed and attached to

the Read2 metadata using fastp[44]. Barcodes were used to demultiplexed Read2 into a separate

file for each library using fastq-multx[45]. After trimming the adapters by Trim Galore, the reads

were mapped to version 4 of the B73 maize genome using Hisat2[46]. RNA-seq reads were

normalized by dividing by the total number of transcripts (UMIs) in each sample and multiplying

by one million (transcripts per million normalization).

sRNA-seq data were processed as previously described[47]. In brief, Trimmomatic version

0.32[48] was used to remove the linker adaptor sequences. Then, the trimmed reads were mapped

to version 4 of the B73 maize genome using Bowtie[49]. Read counts were normalized to one

million to allow for the direct comparison across libraries. PhasiRNAs were designated based on

the criteria of a 24-nt length and mapping coordinates within the previously identified 176 *24-*

PHAS loci[1] that were updated to version 4 of the B73 genome using the assembly converter

tool[50].

Quantitative reverse transcription PCR (RT-qPCR)

RT-qPCR for multiple stage anthers (0.75 mm – 2.0 mm; 0.25 mm intervals) and LCM cell

sample collections (ME, TAP, and OSC) was performed using the Luna® Universal Probe One-

Step RT-qPCR Kit (New England Biolabs). Quantitative PCR was performed using TaqMan

primers synthesized by Integrated DNA Technologies (Table S5) on a CFX96 C1000 Touch

Real-Time PCR Detection System (BioRad). *ZmCyanase* expression was used to normalize

among biological samples, because this gene is highly expressed at all stages of anther

development (Supplementary Fig. 5). Each sample type was tested in two biological and three

technical replicates.

Single-molecule fluorescence *in situ* hybridization (smFISH) for mRNAs and sRNAs

Maize spikelets of various sizes were dissected from the central spike and fixed in 20 mL glass

vials using 4% paraformaldehyde in 1x PHEM buffer (5 mM HEPES, 60 mM PIPES, 10 mM

EGTA, 2 mM $MgCl_2$ pH 7). Fixation was done three times in a vacuum chamber at 0.08 MPa, 15

min each. After fixation, samples were sent for paraffin embedding at the histology lab in the

Nemours/Alfred I. duPont Hospital for Children (Wilmington, DE). Embedded paraffin samples

were sectioned using a paraffin microtome and dried on poly-l-lysine-coated 22 x 22 mm #1.5

coverslips (Carl Zeiss Microscopy, LLC, Cat# 474030-9020-000). Samples were then de-

paraffinized using Histo-Clear (Fisher Scientific, 50-899-90147) and re-hydrated by going

through an ethanol series of 100, 95, 80, 70, 50, 30, 10% (vol/vol) (30 sec each) and finally water

(1 min) at room temperature. After protease (Sigma, P5147) digestion (20 min, 37°C), samples

were neutralized in 0.2% glycine (Sigma-Aldrich, G8898) for 2 min. After two washes in 1x

PBS buffer, samples were dehydrated and then hybridized with smFISH probes. About 20-nt

smFISH probes were designed to bind specifically across the length of each target RNA in a non-

overlapping series[51]. For small RNA detection, probes were designed reverse complemented to

~19 nt of the phasiRNA sequences generated from each locus. Briefly, 23-51 probes (total

coverage of about 800 nt for mRNAs or sRNAs) were designed for each target, and each probe

was synthesized with a 3' amino modification (LGC Biosearch Technologies, CA)

(Supplementary Table 6). All the probes of one set were pooled and *en masse* coupled with

Alexa Fluor 647 (Thermo Fisher) or Texas Red; the labeled probe fraction was purified using

reverse phase HPLC[52]. The probes were diluted to a concentration of 20 ng/ul in a hybridization

buffer containing 10% formamide, 1 mg/mL yeast tRNA, 10% dextran sulfate and 2 mM

Vanadyl ribonucleoside complex (New England Biolab, Ipswich, MA, Catalogue Number,

S142), 0.02% RNase free BSA (Ambion, AM2618). The biological samples were hybridized

with hybridization mix overnight in a humid chamber at 37°C. The samples were then washed

two times with 2X SSC buffer (sodium saline citrate) containing 10% formamide, and a final

wash was done using 1X TBS buffer (Tris-buffered saline). Samples were mounted using

ProLong™ Glass Antifade Mountant with NucBlue™ Stain (ThermoFisher Scientific, P36981).

Fluorescence was detected by spectral unmixing of autofluorescence spectra using laser

scanning confocal microscopy on a Zeiss LSM 880 multiphoton confocal microscope. We used

30% power of the 633 nm laser and an alpha Plan-Apochromat 100x/1.46 oil lens to acquire

RNA *in situ* images. Pure dye was used as positive control, and autofluorescence from maize

tissue was used as the negative control for spectral bleed-through. After images were acquired,

each image was spectra unmixed. The brightness and contrast of images in the same figure panel

were adjusted equally and linearly in Zen 2010 (Carl Zeiss). For quantification, the numbers for

each localization event were calculated using ImageJ (SpotQuant). Two replicates for each Z-

stack of images were used for calculating the copy number for each gene's transcripts.

Acknowledgements

We thank M. Zhang for initial suggestions on project design and for instructing X. Zhou in the

LCM technique; B. Nelms for help with low input RNA-seq library construction and raw data

processing; Y. Chan and Y. Liu for help in data handling; J. Caplan for helpful advice on

smFISH; J. Zhan assisted retrieval and organization of the sequences of 24-*PHAS* precursors and

24-nt phasiRNAs; and J. Dinneny for use of the SP8 confocal microscope. This project was

supported by National Science Foundation award 17540974.

Author contributions

X.Z., B.C.M, and V.W. conceived and designed the project. X.Z. performed most of the

experiments and bioinformatics. K.H. and M.B. designed and synthesized smFISH probes. K.H.

performed smFISH and imaging analysis. T.C. constructed sRNA libraries and performed raw

data processing. X.Z. and V.W wrote the manuscript with editing by B.C.M. and K.H. and with

contributions from all co-authors.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Reference

1   Zhai, J. *et al.* Spatiotemporally dynamic, cell-type-dependent premeiotic and meiotic
439   phasiRNAs in maize anthers. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **112**, 3146-3151,
440   doi:10.1073/pnas.1418918112 (2015).

441   2   Teng, C. *et al. Dicer-like5* deficiency confers temperature-sensitive male sterility in
442   maize. *Nat Commun* **11**, 2912, doi:10.1038/s41467-020-16634-6 (2020).

443   3   Johnson, C. *et al.* Clusters and superclusters of phased small RNAs in the developing
444   inflorescence of rice. *Genome Res* **19**, 1429-1440, doi:10.1101/gr.089854.108 (2009).

445   4   Song, X. *et al.* Roles of DCL4 and DCL3b in rice phased small RNA biogenesis. *Plant J*
446   **69**, 462-474, doi:10.1111/j.1365-313X.2011.04805.x (2012).

447   5   Fei, Q. *et al.* Dynamic changes of small RNAs in rice spikelet development reveal
448   specialized reproductive phasiRNA pathways. *J Exp Bot* **67**, 6037-6049,
449   doi:10.1093/jxb/erw361 (2016).

450   6   Tamim, S. *et al.* Cis-directed cleavage and nonstoichiometric abundances of 21-
451   nucleotide reproductive phased small interfering RNAs in grasses. *New Phytol* **220**, 865-
452   877, doi:10.1111/nph.15181 (2018).

453   7   Kakrana, A. *et al.* Plant 24-nt reproductive phasiRNAs from intramolecular duplex
454   mRNAs in diverse monocots. *Genome Res* **28**, 1333-1344, doi:10.1101/gr.228163.117
455   (2018).

456   8   Xia, R. *et al.* 24-nt reproductive phasiRNAs are broadly present in angiosperms. *Nat*
457   *Commun* **10**, 627, doi:10.1038/s41467-019-08543-0 (2019).

458   9   Patel, P. *et al.* Reproductive phasiRNA loci and DICER-LIKE5, but not microRNA loci,
459   diversified in monocotyledonous plants. *Plant Physiol* **185**, 1764-1782,
460   doi:10.1093/plphys/kiab001 (2021).

461   10   Pokhrel, S. *et al.* Conserved and non-conserved triggers of 24-nt reproductive phasiRNAs
462   in eudicots. *bioRxiv*, doi.org/10.1101/2021.01.20.427321 (2021).

463   11   Yang, X. *et al.* Widespread occurrence of microRNA-mediated target cleavage on
464   membrane-bound polysomes. *Genome Biol* **22**, 15, doi:10.1186/s13059-020-02242-6
465   (2021).

12   Song, X. *et al.* Rice RNA-dependent RNA polymerase 6 acts in small RNA biogenesis
and spikelet development. *Plant J* **71**, 378-389, doi:10.1111/j.1365-313X.2012.05001.x
(2012).

13   Zhang, M. *et al.* CHH DNA methylation increases at 24-*PHAS* loci depend on 24-nt
phased small interfering RNAs in maize meiotic anthers. *New Phytol* **229**, 2984-2997,
doi:10.1111/nph.17060 (2021).

14   Komiya, R. *et al.* Rice germline-specific Argonaute MEL1 protein binds to phasiRNAs
generated from more than 700 lincRNAs. *Plant J* **78**, 385-397, doi:10.1111/tpj.12483
(2014).

15   Fan, Y. *et al. PMS1T*, producing phased small-interfering RNAs, regulates photoperiod-
sensitive male sterility in rice. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **113**, 15144-15149,
doi:10.1073/pnas.1619159114 (2016).

16   Yadava, P. *et al.* Transgenerational conditioned male fertility of HD-ZIP IV transcription
factor mutant *ocl4*: impact on 21-nt phasiRNA accumulation in pre-meiotic maize
anthers. *Plant Reprod* **34**, 117-129, doi:10.1007/s00497-021-00406-3 (2021).

17   Nan, G. L. *et al.* MS23, a master basic helix-loop-helix factor, regulates the specification
and development of the tapetum in maize. *Development* **144**, 163-172,
doi:10.1242/dev.140673 (2017).

18   Dukowic-Schulze, S. *et al.* Novel meiotic miRNAs and indications for a role of
phasiRNAs in meiosis. *Front Plant Sci* **7**, 762, doi:10.3389/fpls.2016.00762 (2016).

19   Chitwood, D. H. & Timmermans, M. C. Small RNAs are on the move. *Nature* **467**, 415-
419, doi:10.1038/nature09351 (2010).

20   Dunoyer, P. *et al.* Small RNA duplexes function as mobile silencing signals between
plant cells. *Science* **328**, 912-916, doi:10.1126/science.1185880 (2010).

21   Molnar, A. *et al.* Small silencing RNAs in plants are mobile and direct epigenetic
modification in recipient cells. *Science* **328**, 872-875, doi:10.1126/science.1187959
(2010).

22   Dunoyer, P. *et al.* Plant mobile small RNAs. *Cold Spring Harb Perspect Biol* **5**,
doi:10.1101/cshperspect.a017897 (2013).

23   Kelliher, T. & Walbot, V. Emergence and patterning of the five cell types of the *Zea*
mays anther locule. *Dev Biol* **350**, 32-49, doi:10.1016/j.ydbio.2010.11.005 (2011).

24   Nelms, B. & Walbot, V. Gametophyte genome activation occurs at pollen mitosis I in
maize. *bioRxiv*, doi.org/10.1101/2021.07.26.453871 (2021).

25   Nelms, B. & Walbot, V. Defining the developmental program leading to meiosis in
maize. *Science* **364**, 52-56, doi:10.1126/science.aav6428 (2019).

26   Czech, B. & Hannon, G. J. Small RNA sorting: matchmaking for Argonautes. *Nat Rev*
Genet **12**, 19-31, doi:10.1038/nrg2916 (2011).

27   Ma, Z. & Zhang, X. Actions of plant Argonautes: predictable or unpredictable? *Curr*
Opin Plant Biol **45**, 59-67, doi:10.1016/j.pbi.2018.05.007 (2018).

28   Araki, S. *et al.* miR2118-dependent U-rich phasiRNA production in rice anther wall
development. *Nat Commun* **11**, 3115, doi:10.1038/s41467-020-16637-3 (2020).

29   Sun, W. *et al.* Genome-wide identification of AGO18b-bound miRNAs and phasiRNAs
in maize by cRIP-seq. *BMC Genomics* **20**, 656, doi:10.1186/s12864-019-6028-z (2019).

30   Li, Y. *et al. Male sterile28* encodes an ARGONAUTE family protein essential for male
fertility in maize. *Chromosome Res* **29**, 189-201, doi:10.1007/s10577-021-09653-6
(2021).

31   Moon, J. *et al.* Regulation of cell divisions and differentiation by MALE STERILITY32
is required for anther development in maize. *Plant J* **76**, 592-602, doi:10.1111/tpj.12318
(2013).

32   Huang, K. *et al.* sRNA-FISH: versatile fluorescent in situ detection of small RNAs in
plants. *Plant J* **98**, 359-369, doi:10.1111/tpj.14210 (2019).

33   Li, N. *et al.* The rice tapetum degeneration retardation gene is required for tapetum
degradation and anther development. *Plant Cell* **18**, 2999-3014,
doi:10.1105/tpc.106.044107 (2006).

34   Xu, J. *et al.* The *ABORTED MICROSPORES* regulatory network is required for
postmeiotic male reproductive development in *Arabidopsis thaliana*. *Plant Cell* **22**, 91-
107, doi:10.1105/tpc.109.071803 (2010).

35   Niu, N. *et al.* EAT1 promotes tapetal cell death by regulating aspartic proteases during
male reproductive development in rice. *Nat Commun* **4**, 1445, doi:10.1038/ncomms2396
(2013).

36   Mamun, E. A. *et al.* Cellular organisation in meiotic and early post-meiotic rice anthers.
Cell Biol Int **29**, 903-913, doi:10.1016/j.cellbi.2005.08.001 (2005).

37   Sager, R. & Lee, J. Y. Plasmodesmata in integrated cell signalling: insights from
development and environmental signals and stresses. *J Exp Bot* **65**, 6337-6358,
doi:10.1093/jxb/eru365 (2014).

38   Long, J. *et al.* Nurse cell--derived small RNAs define paternal epigenetic inheritance in
Arabidopsis. *Science* **373**, doi:10.1126/science.abh0556 (2021).

39   Kelliher, T. & Walbot, V. Hypoxia triggers meiotic fate acquisition in maize. *Science*
337, 345-348, doi:10.1126/science.1220080 (2012).

40   Schneider, C. A. *et al.* NIH Image to ImageJ: 25 years of image analysis. *Nat Methods* **9**,
671-675, doi:10.1038/nmeth.2089 (2012).

41   Dawe, R. K. *et al.* Meiotic chromosome pairing in maize is associated with a novel
chromatin organization. *Cell* **76**, 901-912, doi:10.1016/0092-8674(94)90364-6 (1994).

42   Hashimshony, T. *et al.* CEL-Seq2: sensitive highly-multiplexed single-cell RNA-Seq.
Genome Biol **17**, 77, doi:10.1186/s13059-016-0938-8 (2016).

43   Kivioja, T. *et al.* Counting absolute numbers of molecules using unique molecular
identifiers. *Nat Methods* **9**, 72-74, doi:10.1038/nmeth.1778 (2011).

44   Chen, S. *et al.* fastp: an ultra-fast all-in-one FASTQ preprocessor. *Bioinformatics* **34**,
i884-i890, doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/bty560 (2018).

45   Aronesty, E. Comparison of sequencing utility programs. *Open Bioinformatics j.* **7**, 1-8,
doi: 10.2174/1875036201307010001(2013).

46   Pertea, M. *et al.* Transcript-level expression analysis of RNA-seq experiments with
HISAT, StringTie and Ballgown. *Nature Protoc* **11**, 1650-1667,
doi:10.1038/nprot.2016.095 (2016).

47   Mathioni, S. M. *et al.* Characterization of plant small RNAs by next generation
sequencing. *Curr Protoc Plant Biol* **2**, 39-63, doi:10.1002/cppb.20043 (2017).

48   Bolger, A. M. *et al.* Trimmomatic: a flexible trimmer for Illumina sequence data.
Bioinformatics **30**, 2114-2120, doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/btu170 (2014).

49   Kersey, P. J. *et al.* Ensembl Genomes 2016: more genomes, more complexity. *Nucleic*
Acids Res **44**, D574-580, doi:10.1093/nar/gkv1209 (2016).

50   Tello-Ruiz, M. K. *et al.* Gramene 2018: unifying comparative genomics and pathway
resources for plant research. *Nucleic Acids Res* **46**, D1181-D1189,
doi:10.1093/nar/gkx1111 (2018).

51   Markey, F. B. *et al.* Fusion FISH imaging: single-molecule detection of gene fusion

560   transcripts *in situ*. *PLoS One* **9**, e93488, doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0093488 (2014).

561   52   Batish, M. *et al.* Single molecule imaging of RNA in situ. *Methods Mol Biol* **714**, 3-13,

562   doi:10.1007/978-1-61779-005-8_1 (2011).

Fig. 1. Staging of maize anthers and quality evaluation of LCM cell sample collections. (a)
Male inflorescence structures. From left to right: maize tassel; central spike; single spikelet; three

lower and three larger upper florets; transverse confocal microscopy view of a single anther (near
the start of meiosis). (**b**) The timeline of maize anther development from initial cell specification,
proliferation, and differentiation to pollen maturation. Approximately 10 days of development
occur between anther initiation and the start of meiosis at 1.2 mm; meiosis requires 6 days and
finishes at 2.5 mm with the tetrad stage; an additional 15-16 days are required for microspore
and then pollen development (note that this portion of the timeline is not drawn to scale).
Tracings of confocal images of single anther lobes are shown through the dyad stage. The
germinal cell stages are abbreviated as follows: mitotic archesporial cells (AR); post-mitotic
pollen mother cells (PMC); meiocytes (ME); uninucleate microspore (UM); binucleate
microspore (BM); and mature pollen (MP). (**c**) Fluorescence microscopy images of germinal
cells visualized with Hoechst staining. During the meiotic proliferation period (0.75 mm anther),
archesporial cells have a central nucleolus (N) and a smaller volume than meiotic nuclei. At
premeiotic interphase/ early leptotene, the knobs (arrowhead) are round, the nucleoli are located
centrally, and chromatin threads are not visible or visible only as localized patches. During
leptotene leading to pre-zygotene, the spherical knobs become elongated (arrowhead) coincident
with nucleolar movement to the periphery. During zygotene, the knobs are paired (red dashed
oval); chromosomes are observed as condensation proceeds. Fully paired bivalents (4 strands per
thread) and finally a centrally located nucleolus were observed at pachytene. Scale bar represents
2 μm. (**d**) Sample-sample correlation analysis in fixed anthers and LCM cell sample collections
at the 1.5 mm and 2.0 mm stages. As shown in the heatmap, the biological replicates of the same
sample type are highly correlated at both stages. The scale based on the Pearson correlation is
from lightest (no correlation) to darkest (1.0 correlation). Abbreviations: fixed anthers (FA);
meiocytes (ME); tapetum (TAP); and other somatic cells (OSC). (**e**) Principal component
analysis (PCA) to evaluate the similarity of biological replicates.

Fig. 2. 24-*PHAS* precursor distribution in maize anthers. (a) 24-nt phasiRNA biogenesis

pathway. miR2275 is complementary to a conserved motif in precursors, resulting in precise
cleavage; cleaved products are converted to double stranded molecules by RNA-dependent RNA
polymerase 6 (RDR6). Unknown Argonaute (AGO) proteins participate in biogenesis and bind at
least a subset of the 24-nt phasiRNA products. (**b**) Heat map depicting the abundances of 118 24-
PHAS precursors (TPM > 5 in at least one sample) in fixed anthers and LCM cells. Solid bubbles
on the left represent the total abundance of 24-*PHAS* precursors in that sample. (**c**) Boxplot
depicts the distribution of the 20 most abundant 24-*PHAS* precursors in LCM cell collections.
Arrowheads point to the three 24-*PHAS* loci (*PHAS15*, *PHAS116*, and *PHAS296*) chosen to
represent different abundances for RT-qPCR and single-molecule FISH (smFISH) verifications.
(**d**) and (**g**) smFISH was performed using probes conjugated with dye Alexa Fluor 647 (AF647)
against *PHAS116* and *PHAS296* in W23 maize anthers (1.0-2.0 mm). The fluorescent
micrographs were taken using laser scanning confocal microscopy. Below the images are
enlargements of area in red rectangles. Yellow smFISH spots correspond to precursor transcripts,
which primarily accumulate in TAP. Scale bars = 10 μm. (**e**) and (**h**) Quantification analysis of
images in panel **d** and **g**. Transcript counts show the binding events for each cell type at different
anther stages using spot count in ImageJ. Two biological and three technical replicates were
performed for each stage. Statistical analysis was performed with Prism 8 software. *P* values
were determined using one-way ANOVA and Tukey tests. Differences among three cell sample
collections within the same anther stage were considered significant for *P* values ≤ 0.05 (* *P* ≤
0.05; ** *P* ≤ 0.01; *** *P* ≤ 0.001; **** *P* ≤ 0.0001). (**f**) and (**I**) Quantification of localization of
PHAS116 and *PHAS296* in whole anthers (0.75- 2.5 mm) and LCM cells (1.25 and 1.5 mm) by
RT-qPCR. The expression patterns of these 24-*PHAS* precursors are very similar, with high
expression levels in tapetum at 1.25 mm, with a peak at the 1.5 mm stage. The tapetal cell
sample is significantly higher than either meiocytes or other somatic cells. *P* values were
determined using one-way ANOVA and Tukey tests in Prism 8 software. Differences among the
samples were considered significant for *P* values ≤ 0.05 (* *P* ≤ 0.05; ** *P* ≤ 0.01; *** *P* ≤ 0.001;
**** *P* ≤ 0.0001). Note that there is a different scale for each locus. The reference gene
(*ZmCyanase*) was used to normalize expression for the accurate assessment of target *24-PHAS*
locus expression. (**j**) smFISH detection of *PHAS116* in homozygous *dcl5-mu03//dcl5-mu03*
anthers. The red boxes labeled I and II are enlarged in the adjacent image to the right. No signal
was detected in control hybridization assays (*Dcl5* probes) at 1.75 mm stage anthers. Scale bars
= 10 μm.

624
Fig. 3. Evaluation of Argonaute, *Dcl5*, and *Rdr6* expression and *Dcl5* transcript localization
in maize anthers. (**a**) RNA abundance from the 18 maize loci encoding Argonaute proteins
(AGO). At least one AGO participates in phasiRNA biogenesis by binding miR2275 and a few
others have been shown to bind 24-nt phasiRNAs (see text). (**b**) Transcript abundances in LCM
cells for two biogenesis genes from RNA-seq datasets. *Dcl5* was highly expressed in 1.5 mm

TAP, and *Rdr6* was enriched in both ME and TAP. Differences among the LCM cell samples
were considered significant for *P* values ≤ 0.05 (* *P* ≤ 0.05; ** *P* ≤ 0.01; *** *P* ≤ 0.001; **** *P*
≤ 0.0001) using one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey tests. (**c**) RT-qPCR analysis for *Dcl5* at
multiple anther stages and in LCM cell samples. The tapetal cell samples are significantly higher
than ME and OSC (** *P* ≤ 0.01). Note that each graph has a different scale. (**d**) and (**e**) smFISH
detection and quantification analysis for *Dcl5* transcripts in W23 maize anthers (1.0-2.0 mm).
Probes are conjugated with Texas Red dye. The images below each panel are the enlarged
portions of red rectangle areas. Yellow smFISH spots correspond to *Dcl5* transcripts are
significantly higher in TAP (*** *P* ≤ 0.001). Scale bars = 10 μm. (**f**) smFISH detection of *Dcl5*
transcripts in homozygous *dcl5-mu03//dcl5-mu03* anthers. Probes are conjugated with Texas Red
dye. The red boxes designated as I and II indicate the area enlarged in the adjacent image. To
validate the lack of *Dcl5* transcripts, no signal was detected in a control hybridization assay
utilizing *Dcl5* probes applied to homozygous *dcl5-mu03//dcl5-mu03* anthers. Scale bars = 10 μm.

643
F**ig. 4. 24-nt phasiRNA distribution in maize anthers.** (**a**) Heat map depicting 24-nt phasiRNA
abundance from 118 24-*PHAS* loci in fixed anthers and LCM cell sample collections. Solid
bubbles on the left represent the total abundance of miR2275 family members and 24-nt

phasiRNAs in that sample. The highest levels of 24-nt phasiRNAs and miR2275 family members
are in 2.0 mm meiocytes, followed by tapetum at this stage. (**b**) The abundance of miR2275
family members in three LCM cell sample collections. (**c**) Box plot depicting the distribution of
24-nt phasiRNAs from the 20 most abundant 24-*PHAS* loci (same as panel **2c**). (**d**) and (**e**) 24-nt
sRNA distributions from *PHAS116* and *PHAS296* in FA and LCM cells. The dotted lines
represent the miR2275 cleavage sites, and each of the grid lines are spaced 24- nucleotide apart.
The accumulation of 24-nt sRNA fragments generated from the same locus are not uniform: only
a few of the 24-nt sRNAs show high abundance despite the expectation of equal stoichiometry
from a single precursor molecule (15). Overall, accumulation patterns are similar in fixed anthers
and LCM cells at each locus. (**f**) 24-nt phasiRNA localization from *PHAS116* in W23 maize
anthers (1.25-2.0 mm). Probes are conjugated with Texas Red dye. The red box in each image is
enlarged in the panel immediately below each image. Below are negative control images
obtained with probes against mouse Hexokinase H (HKH) RNA in W23 maize anthers (1.25-2.0
mm). Yellow smFISH spots corresponding to 24-nt phasiRNAs are expressed in all three cell
types. Scale bars = 10 μm. (**g**) 24-nt phasiRNA localization from *PHAS296* in W23 maize
anthers (1.25-1.75 mm). Probes are conjugated with Texas Red dye. The red box in each image
is enlarged in the panel immediately below each image. Yellow smFISH spots corresponding to
24-nt phasiRNAs are expressed in all three cell types. No signal was detected in an unlabeled
control hybridization. Scale bars = 10 μm.
666

667
Fig. 5. Model of 24-nt phasiRNAs biogenesis and mobility in maize anthers. On the left is a
colorized confocal image as a transverse section of a single anther. On the right is an
enlargement of a portion of a single lobe using the same color scheme. During the leptotene-
zygotene transition, 24-nt phasiRNAs are generated in TAP and are proposed to move to other
cell types. The 30 TAP cells in contact with each meiocyte are proposed to each export a small
fraction of their 24-nt phasiRNAs to ME; similarly, a small amount of TAP 24-nt phasiRNA is
exported to first to the adjacent Middle Layer (ML) and then distributed to other OSC.

Supplementary information
676
677 **Supplementary Figures**
678
679 **Supplementary Fig. 1.** Sequential application of LCM to isolate ME, TAP, and OSC in 1.5 mm
680 and 2.0 mm W23 anthers.
681
682 **Supplementary Fig. 2.** Transcript abundances of three *24-PHAS* loci (*PHAS15*, *PHAS116*, and
683 *PHAS296*) in LCM cell sample collections in RNA-seq data.
684
685 **Supplementary Fig. 3.** *PHAS15* localization in maize anthers.
686
687 **Supplementary Fig. 4.** Negative control hybridization assay.
688
689 **Supplementary Fig. 5.** *ZmCyanase* localization in maize anthers.
690
691 **Supplementary Fig. 6.** No labeled control hybridization assay.
692
693 **Supplementary Fig. 7.** *Dcl5* localization in maize anthers.
694
695 **Supplementary Fig. 8.** The distribution of four tapetal-enriched TFs (*Ms23*, *Ms32*, *bHLH51*,
696 and *bHLH122*) in LCM cell sample collections at 1.5 mm and 2.0 mm in RNA-seq data.
697
698 **Supplementary Fig. 9.** sRNA distribution in maize anthers.
699
700 **Supplementary Fig. 10.** 24-nt phasiRNAs localization in maize anthers.
701
702
703 **Supplementary Tables**
704
705 **Supplementary Table 1.** List of LCM cell sample collections from 1.5 mm and 2.0 mm maize
706 anthers.
707
708 **Supplemental Table 2.** Summary of RNA-seq and sRNA-seq libraries prepared from FA and
709 LCM cell sample collections.
710
711 **Supplementary Table 3.** Coordinates and abundance of the 126 24-*PHAS* loci and their
712 corresponding 24-nt phasiRNAs in FA and LCM cells.
713
714 **Supplementary Table 4.** Primer sequences for CEL-seq 2 library preparation.
715
716 **Supplementary Table 5.** Primer sequences for RT-qPCR by the TaqMan assay.
717
718 **Supplementary Table 6.** Probes sequences (5'-> 3') used for smFISH or sRNA-FISH.