Dicer-like 5 deficiency confers temperature-sensitive male sterility in maize

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Abstract

Small RNAs play important roles during plant development by regulating

transcript levels of target mRNAs, maintaining genome integrity, and reinforcing DNA

methylation. *Dicer-like 5* (*Dcl5*) is proposed to be responsible for precise slicing in many

monocots to generate diverse 24-nt phased, secondary small interfering RNAs

(phasiRNAs), which are exceptionally abundant in meiotic anthers of diverse flowering

plants. The importance and functions of these phasiRNAs remain unclear. Here, we

characterized several mutants of *dcl5*, including alleles generated by the Clustered

Regularly Interspaced Short Palindromic Repeats (CRISPR) *Cas9* system and a

transposon-disrupted allele. We report that *dcl5* mutants have few or no 24-nt

phasiRNAs, develop short anthers with defective tapetal cells, and exhibit temperature-

sensitive male fertility. We propose that DCL5 and 24-nt phasiRNAs are critical for

fertility under growth regimes for optimal yield.

Introduction

Three major classes of endogenous small RNAs (sRNAs) exist in plants:

microRNAs (miRNAs), heterochromatic small interfering RNAs (hc-siRNAs), and

phased, secondary small interfering RNAs (phasiRNAs). From extensive sRNA

sequencing in plants, numerous loci generating phasiRNAs have been reported; in

grasses, phasiRNAs are enriched in flowers, particularly male reproductive organs [1–5]. In

this context, phasiRNA production is initiated by miRNA-mediated cleavage of RNA

polymerase II transcripts of two classes of *PHAS* loci. Subsequently, the 3' portion of

cleaved transcripts is converted to double-stranded RNA, a substrate for precise chopping

by DICER-LIKE 4 (DCL4) yielding 21-nt products; a distinct, proposed role for DCL5 is generation of 24-nt phasiRNAs [3-5]. The 21-nt phasiRNAs are highly abundant during initial cell fate setting in maize anthers [1] and are important for male fertility in rice [6,7]. The 24-nt phasiRNAs accumulate coincident with meiotic start, peak during meiosis, and persist at lower levels afterwards; this pattern has generated speculation that they regulate meiosis [8,9].

In angiosperms, five DICER-LIKE (DCL) proteins have been described and partially characterized [10]. DCL1 is important for miRNA biogenesis, as illustrated by regulation of meristem determinacy in maize inflorescences [11]. In *Arabidopsis thaliana*, DCL2 processes viral- and transgene-derived siRNAs [12]; DCL3 produces 24-nt hc-siRNAs, which then direct DNA methylation of target loci [13]. In many plants including *Oryza sativa* (rice), DCL4 generates 21-nt *trans*-acting siRNAs and phasiRNAs [4]. Although the functions of these four *DCL* genes are well conserved in flowering plants, these genes have partially overlapping functions [12,14]. A fifth, more recently described and named gene, *Dcl5*, is monocot-specific [10]. To better understand the function of DCL5 and its proposed role in 24-nt phasiRNA biogenesis [1], we characterized maize *dcl5* mutants generated using either a high efficiency CRISPR-mediated gene editing system [15] or transposon-based mutagenesis. Here, we report that *dcl5* mutants have few or no 24-nt phasiRNAs, exhibit defects in tapetal cell differentiation, and show temperature-sensitive male fertility. We propose that DCL5-mediated generation of 24-nt phasiRNAs is required for fertility at temperatures that are optimal for maize yield.

Results

Null mutants of the maize *Dcl5* gene confer male-sterility

Using a CRISPR system targeting the middle of the encoded protein [15], we

generated four alleles for analysis (Fig. 1A), and from T_0 plants we developed stable lines

that show Mendelian inheritance of *dcl5-1* (Fig. 1B, Supplementary Table 1 and

Supplementary Figure 1). *dcl5-1* and *dcl5-4* are frameshift mutants with transcript levels

reduced to about a third of their wild type siblings; in contrast, *dcl5-2* (3 bp deletion) and

dcl5-3 (12 bp deletion, 1 bp substitution) have similar or higher transcript levels

compared to control siblings (Fig. 1B and Supplementary Figure 2). Wild type and

heterozygous *dcl5-1//Dcl5* plants greenhouse-grown at 32° C maximum day/21° C

minimum night were identical in whole plant architecture, anther morphology, and

fertility. Under the same conditions, homozygous *dcl5-1* plants were male sterile (Fig.

1C). Compared to their fertile siblings, sterile *dcl5-1* plants lacked visible differences in

tassels and spikelets, however, the sterile anthers were shorter, contained shrunken

pollen, and did not exert from the spikelets (Fig. 1C and Supplementary Figure 3).

Sporadically, a few anthers exerted and shed viable pollen. Under field conditions, all

four alleles showed male sterility and we did not observe any differences in phenotype

between alleles. No genomic editing was detected in the homologous sequence in *Dcl3*

which is the most likely potentially off-target locus (Supplementary Figure 4). To further,

independently verify the observation of male sterility, we acquired an additional allele

from the transposon-based Illumina-Mu population [16] (*dcl5-mu03*, line mu-

illumina_139042.7). *dcl5-mu03* showed obvious male sterility in both greenhouse and

field conditions (Supplementary Figure 5 and Supplementary Table 1). We concluded

that *Dcl5* is required for robust male fertility.

***dcl5-1* mutants exhibit tapetal defects**

To investigate whether *dcl5-1* plants display defects in anther cell patterning, we

used confocal microscopy and found normal somatic layer architecture without defects in

initial cell differentiation (Supplementary Figure 6). In addition, chromosome pairing,

alignment, and meiotic progression were normal in *dcl5-1* meiocytes (Supplementary

Figure 7A-L). The *dcl5-mu03* meiocytes also routinely completed meiosis and produced

haploid gametophytes (Supplementary Figure 7M, N). Transmission electron microscopy

was utilized to visualize nuclei and other cell organelles at higher resolution. During the

mid-meiosis stage (2 to 2.5 mm anthers), normal tapetal cells were densely packed with

dark-staining materials and were mostly binucleate (Fig. 2A and Supplementary Figure

8). In contrast, the tapetal cells in *dcl5-1* were pale and mostly mononucleate, and many

cell organelles were not clearly resolved (Fig. 2B and Supplementary Figure 8). Whole

mount, fluorescence microscopy was used to quantify binucleate status in *dcl5-1* and

fertile anthers. In 1.5 mm anthers (prophase I), there were five-fold fewer binucleated

tapetal cells in *dcl5-1*; a significant difference persisted at 2.5 mm (meiosis II) and a large

difference remained at 3.0 mm (post-meiosis) (Fig. 2 and Supplementary Figure 9). In

extensive confocal microscopic examination of *dcl5-1* anthers, we observed no

significant or consistent differences in cell number or volume compared to fertile

siblings. About one week after the completion of meiosis (2.5 mm stage), the tapetum

starts programmed cell death, vacuolates, collapses, and disappears in the *dcl5-1//Dcl5*

anthers (Supplementary Figure 10); in contrast, the tapetum is developmentally delayed

and retained in the *dcl5-1* anthers (Supplementary Figure 10). The middle layer in *dcl5-*

1//Dcl5 collapses and disappears, yet it is largely retained in *dcl5-1* (Supplementary

Figure 10). Collectively, these observations indicate that tapetal development is delayed

or arrested in *dcl5* mutants and that the *dcl5* tapetal cells are therefore likely defective in

conducting post-meiotic functions supporting pollen maturation.

Tapetum- and meiocyte-specific *Dcl5* expression

To obtain a comprehensive spatiotemporal profile of maize *Dcl5* expression, we

queried microarray, published and newly-generated RNA-seq (Supplementary Table 2),

and proteomics data. *Dcl5* transcripts are highly enriched in tassels, cobs, embryos, and

seeds [17,18], as well as fertile anthers. In contrast, DCL5 protein is low in 1.0 mm, pre-

meiotic anthers and extremely high in 2.0 mm mid-meiosis anthers, but is undetectable in

ear, embryo, or endosperm [19]. Microarray analysis of laser-microdissected anther cell

types [20,21] and *in situ* hybridization analysis of anther lobes [1,22] established that *Dcl5*

transcripts are highly enriched in the tapetum and are present at lower levels in pre-

meiotic pollen mother cells and meiocytes. RNA-seq confirmed *Dcl5* expression in

isolated maize meiocytes, however, quantitatively there are even higher levels in whole

anthers [23], as confirmed by newly-generated anther data (Supplementary Table 2).

Therefore, *Dcl5* is expressed much more highly in one or more somatic cell types than in

meiocytes [23]. Integrating prior observations that 24-nt phasiRNA biogenesis is contingent

on a normal tapetum [1], with the peak of *Dcl5* and DCL5 expression in meiotic anthers,

we conclude that the 24-nt phasiRNA pathway is localized in tapetal cells. We

hypothesize that this localization and timing is of functional importance for the

redifferentiation of tapetal cells into secretory cells during the meiotic period.

24-nt phasiRNA abundance is greatly reduced in *dcl5* mutants

To investigate if 24-nt phasiRNA biogenesis is affected in *dcl5* mutants, sRNA

libraries were constructed from anthers or spikelets of each *dcl5* allele (Supplementary

Table 2). Previously, we found that 24-nt phasiRNAs were readily detected from 176 24-

PHAS loci in W23 inbred anthers [1]. The 24-nt sRNAs produced from all these loci were

reduced dramatically in plants homozygous for each *dcl5* allele compared to fertile

siblings even though *dcl5-2* and *dcl5-3* encode proteins that lack only a few amino acids

(Fig. 3 and Supplementary Figure 5C). Other sRNAs, including 24-nt hc-siRNAs and 21-

nt phasiRNAs were retained (Supplementary Figure 11). We conclude that *Dcl5* is

required for 24-nt phasiRNA biogenesis and that the *dcl5-2* and *dcl5-3* mutations define

amino acids essential for DCL5 function. Analysis of *24-PHAS* precursors in RNA-seq

anther libraries from the same plants showed greater or nearly the same levels of

precursor abundance in each of the *dcl5* mutant alleles (Supplementary Figure 12).

Therefore, the absence of functional DCL5 severely disrupts processing of 24-nt

phasiRNA precursors with a modest impact on their accumulation.

Analysis of these RNA-seq data to characterize downstream transcriptional

pathways impacted in *dcl5* mutants was uninformative, consistent with prior results that

failed to identify mRNA targets for 24-nt phasiRNAs [1]. The transcriptional changes in

dcl5-1 mutants were minimal (23 transcripts altered two-fold) and mainly corresponded

to genes expressed in later tapetal stages (Supplementary Table 3). Alterations in the

transcript population are likely indirect and reflective of defective tapetal development.

dcl5 mutants are temperature-sensitive male sterile

During summer, 2016, _dcl5-1_ field-grown plants exhibited variable fertility under

typical summer conditions in Stanford, CA: 25/18° C interrupted by multi-day heat

waves exceeding 32° C and short periods of cooler weather. To test whether temperature

is a restrictive condition, three controlled greenhouse regimes were chosen -- 28/22° C,

26/20° C, and 23/20° C (14 h day/10 h night temperature) -- and maintained within

narrow limits over the life cycle (Fig. 4 and Supplementary Figure 13). At 28/22° C,

dcl5-1 mutants had shorter anthers that never exerted, while heterozygous siblings

developed normally. In contrast, under both the 26/20° C and 23/20° C regimes, _dcl5-1_

mutants were partially to fully fertile (see Methods for details of tassel development and

Supplementary Figure 13 for quantification of anther emergence); this conditional male

sterility was also observed in the transposon-disrupted _dcl5-mu03_ allele (Supplementary

Figure 14). Under permissive conditions, _dcl5-1_ pollen was viable based on Alexander

staining despite a prolonged life cycle and delayed flowering date under cooler

temperatures (Supplementary Figure 15); importantly, ears pollinated by such pollen

yielded viable progeny seed. At least one aspect of normal tapetal development was also

restored: the percentage of binucleated tapetal cells at 1.5 and 2.5 mm in _dcl5-1_ anthers

was similar to their normal siblings (Supplementary Figure 16). In contrast, in comparing

dcl5-1 transcript levels, 24-nt phasiRNA production, and _PHAS_ precursor accumulation

in _dcl5-1_ plants under restrictive and permissive temperatures, we observed no significant

differences; fertility-restored plants did not accumulate 24-nt phasiRNAs (Fig. 3, Supplementary Figure 2 and Supplementary Figure 12). Our interpretation is that the functions of *Dcl5* and 24-nt phasiRNAs are dispensable for tapetum development and maize male fertility at low temperatures (23/20° C) but are required at higher temperatures. Cool temperatures slow the pace of development and may allow alternative pathways independent of the 24-nt phasiRNAs to support tapetal cell redifferentiation.

Maize tassels contain anthers representing seven days of development [24], and we wondered if sporadic anther exertion in *dcl5-1* plants reflected a short phenocritical period when some anthers experienced permissive conditions. Homozygous *dcl5-1* plants were greenhouse-grown at 28/22° C until the tassel inflorescence formed (~30 days), then plants were moved into two walk-in chambers: permissive 23/20° C or restrictive 28/22° C regimes. In the next three weeks, 14 sets of three plants were swapped between the two regimes for 3, 6, 9, 12, 15, 18 or 21 days, and then all plants finished their life cycle in the 28/22° C greenhouse (Supplementary Figure 17). Plants in the 23/20° C regime from the start of meiosis through the release of mononucleate microspores (~9 day period, swaps 7 to 11, Supplementary Figure 17) were more fertile. Sample plants were assessed during the 6th through 9th days to check anther staging in the main tassel spike, confirming that this interval corresponds to meiosis and post-meiotic stages in the most mature part of the tassel. These stages also encompass the initiation, peak, and continued presence of 24-nt phasiRNAs in normal anthers [1]. Plants in the permissive temperature for fewer than nine days during this interval had reduced fertility (swaps 1 to 6, 12 to 14); we hypothesize that this extended interval is required to allow all anthers to proceed

through the phenocritical period to ensure full fertility. The temperature swap experiment

demonstrates that there is a short period in which DCL5 is required to "buffer"

development at elevated temperatures. Surprisingly, the restrictive temperature is similar

to what is considered optimal day temperature for the U.S. corn belt; historical data

indicate that growth between 20° to 29° C generates optimal yield, with higher yields

associated with warmer temperatures within this range [25,26].

Discussion

Maize DCL5 is essential for robust male fertility: *dcl5* plants are temperature-

sensitive during meiosis, show arrested tapetal development at this and later stages, and

lack 24-nt phasiRNAs. In rice, perturbed 21-nt, premeiotic phasiRNAs confer

photoperiod and temperature-sensitive male fertility [27-29]. Molecular and *in situ* analyses

in maize indicate that the 24-nt phasiRNA biogenesis factors and these sRNAs are

located primarily in the tapetum [1]. For maize, we conclude that 24-nt phasiRNAs play a

direct role in tapetal redifferentiation and only an indirect role in meiocytes or

gametophytes. We hypothesize that the 24-nt phasiRNAs are essential for tapetal

redifferentiation for biosynthesis and secretion of materials that support haploid

microgametophytes. The molecular mechanisms by which 21- and 24-nt reproductive

phasiRNAs act remain unclear, because they lack complementarity to mRNAs.

Conditional male sterility is common in rice. A number of loci regulating

photoperiod-sensitive genic male sterility (PMS) and thermo-sensitive genic male

sterility (TMS) have been mapped [27,28]. Two of these loci, *PMS1* and *PMS3*, encode long

non-coding RNAs [28,29]. *PMS1* is a *PHAS* locus that generates 21-nt phasiRNAs

associated with male fertility under long-day conditions [28]. *PMS3* also produces a small

RNA of 21-nt [29]. The rice *rna-dependent rna polymerase 6-1* (*rdr6-1*) mutant displays

various degrees of spikelet defects at high temperatures [5]. These findings suggest that

long non-coding RNAs and small RNAs are important regulators of male fertility

controlled by cross-talk between genetic pathways and environmental factors. Abiotic

stress-induced male sterility has been associated with alterations in tapetal development

in many plant species [30]. For example, *TMS10* and its close homolog *TMS10L* encode two

rice receptor-like kinases and are essential for tapetal degeneration and male fertility

under high temperatures [31].

In maize, conditional or partial male sterility has been reported, but not

extensively studied. The maize *ocl4-1* and *ocl4-2* mutants both show varying degrees of

male sterility, and the severity of the phenotype is strongly influenced by environmental

conditions [32]. OCL4 is a HD-ZIP IV transcription factor [32], and *ocl4* mutants lack 21-

phasiRNAs [1]. The OCL4 regulation of 21-nt phasiRNA biogenesis and the fact that male

sterility in the *dcl5* mutants is also sensitive to temperature indicate that the functions of

some secondary small RNAs support normal development and cellular functions during

environmental fluctuations outside the optimal temperature regime. The finding that *dcl5-*

1 mutants are sterile under the 28/22° C regime suggests that 24-nt phasiRNA biogenesis

is essential for high corn yield under optimal U.S. summer farming conditions.

We can only speculate why the incredibly diverse and abundant 24-nt phasiRNAs

are required to support normal tapetal development under mild temperature stress. Plants

were well-watered under all growth conditions, and there were no obvious indicators of

water stress such as leaf rolling or leaf damage. Under warm temperatures, plant

development is accelerated relative to cooler conditions: the transition to flowering is

earlier and pollen shed is precocious. In the case of the temperature regimes we

employed, pollen shed was about 10 days earlier under the 28/22° C growth condition

than under cooler daytime temperatures (Fig. 4). It is possible that during more rapid

growth, there is a more stringent requirement for coordination of developmental

processes, requiring more rapid and complete switches from one developmental state to

another. Tapetal cells redifferentiate during meiosis, evidenced by accumulation of future

exine components and binucleate status. Because this is the only anther cell type with

obvious defects at peak 24-nt phasiRNA production at 2.0 mm, we hypothesize that the

abundant phasiRNAs are used to reset tapetal capabilities. Because 24-nt phasiRNAs lack

a high degree of complementarity to mRNAs other than their own precursors, one

hypothesis is that it is their sheer abundance that permits a resetting of development. For

example, the 24-nt phasiRNAs could bind to diverse AGO proteins, in effect displacing

miRNAs or other sRNAs involved in gene regulation associated with pre-meiotic tapetal

development. The 24-nt phasiRNAs could thus contribute to rapid redifferentiation of

tapetal cells during meiosis by eliminating gene expression regulation persisting from an

earlier developmental state. It is also possible that 24-nt phasiRNAs perform this or

another role in meiocytes or in other anther cell types, although their abundance is much

less than in non-tapetal cells. Alternatively, the functions of 24-nt phasiRNAs may

involve targeted action utilizing Argonautes or other RNA-binding proteins with as-yet

uncharacterized activities required in tapetal differentiation.

Our study in maize establishes that DCL5 plays a unique role, having

subfunctionalized from DCL3 for 24-nt phasiRNA biogenesis in anthers. *Dcl5* transcripts

are still expressed in diverse organs, however, protein and critical functions are restricted

to anthers. Expression analysis found just 23 genes differentially expressed in our *dcl5-1*

mutants, but all of these are likely reflective of arrested tapetal development. That the

thousands of 24-nt phasiRNAs fail to impact mRNA abundances significantly indicates

that 24-nt phasiRNAs are distinct from tasiRNAs which have specific mRNA targets and

modulate transcript abundances. DCL5 and therefore the 24-nt phasiRNAs are

dispensable at cool growing temperatures for maize, however, DCL5 is required for

robust fertility at temperatures for optimal yield in the U.S. corn belt. As climate

disruption, including more extensive heat waves, and a general warming trend increase

field temperatures, buffering maize tapetal development from adverse effects may be

possible by enhancing 24-nt phasiRNA functions. The 24-nt phasiRNAs may permit

development during other untested environmental challenges. Given the high degree of

variation typically observed across maize inbreds for many traits, the *dcl5* mutant

phenotype may also vary across inbreds. More generally, it is unknown how many crop

plants utilize reproductive phasiRNAs and whether their tapetal health and functions

could benefit by introduction or optimization of these or other sRNA pathways [30-32].

Methods

Dcl5 mutant generation and characterization

To increase the CRISPR-based mutagenesis frequency in the targeted region, two

target sites separated by 76 bp were selected for guide RNA (gRNA) construction,

designed using the CRISPR Genome Analysis Tool [15]. Rice *U6* small nuclear RNA gene

promoters (P*U6.1* and P*U6.2*) were used to drive the expression of each gRNA. Two

guide RNAs (first gRNA, 5'-GTTCATGGTCTATCTGGAAAC-3'; second gRNA, 5'-

CTGGGTTCGTTCTCTTAA-3') were first selected; then two complementary

oligonucleotides for each guide RNA (g*ZmDcl5*-F1, 5'-

tgttGTTCATGGTCTATCTGGAAAC-3'; g*ZmDcl5*-R1, 5'-

aaacGTTTCCAGATAGACCATGAAC-3'; *gZmDcl5*-F3, 5'-

gtgtGCTGGGTTCGTTCTCTTAA-3'; g*ZmDcl5*-R3, 5'-

aaacTTAAGAGAACGAACCCAGC-3') were annealed to produce double-stranded

DNA oligos, then inserted into a pENTR based vector using *Btg*ZI and *Bsa*I (New

England BioLabs) restriction enzymes. These constructs were transferred using Gateway

recombination to the binary vector containing the *Cas9* gene driven by the maize

Ubiquitin 1 promoter and the *bar* gene driven by *35S* promoter [15]. The final construct was

transformed into *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* for delivery into HiII maize immature

embryos, followed by screening of positive calli with T7E1 assay and Sanger sequencing

[15].

DNA samples were extracted from Basta®-resistant calli and screened for

mutations in the target region by PCR using primers *Dcl5*_F1 (5'-

ATCTAGATCTCCAGACCATTGAACCCTGTC-3') and *Dcl5*_R1 (5'-

GTATTCTAGACTTGAATAACCTGCTCTTTG-3'). Positive calli were transferred to

regeneration media; multiple plants regenerated from the same callus were considered to

be biological clones [15]. No chimeric plants were detected, consistent with Cas9 action in a

single cell. Leaves from mature T_0 plants were genotyped for a second time using PCR

amplification and Sanger sequencing to confirm the mutations. Over several generations

families were established that segregated 1:1 for *dcl5//+* fertile: *dcl5//dcl5* homozygous

sterile individuals using standard maize genetic procedures.

Mu transposon population were first screened online (www.maizegdb.org and

teosinte.uoregon.org). Three candidates from Illumina-Mu population were identified

(*dcl5-mu01*, mu-illumina_252772.6; *dcl5-mu02*, mu-illumina_254833.6; *dcl5-mu03*, mu-

illumina_139042.7); one candidate from UniformMu was identified (*dcl5-mu04*, UFMu-

03512). The mutant information provided online showed the Mu insertions are expected

in either 5'-UTR region (*dcl5-mu02* and *dcl5-mu04*) or introns (*dcl5-mu01* and *dcl5-*

mu03), but we amplified the approximate region and found the third exon of *Dcl5* is

disrupted in *dcl5-mu03* with Sanger sequencing, using primer *Dcl5*-F2 (5'-

CATTAGTCAGGCAGTTGGTAGG-3') and *Dcl5*-R2 (5'-

GTGGCCCGTTTGTCTTCTCC-3'). Because the *Mu* transposon was in an exon, the

dcl5-mu03 allele was the most promising candidate and pursued further. The

heterozygous plants were self-crossed to obtain a 3:1 segregating family, and

homozygous plants were identified by PCR and used for molecular and phenotypic

characterization.

Microscopy and imaging

For anther wall structure analysis with confocal microscopy, the anthers of precisely measured sizes were dissected and stored in 70% ethanol for fixation. Fixed anthers were then stained by propidium iodide and visualized on a Leica SP8 confocal microscope [20]. Meiocytes were extruded and stained by DAPI (4',6-diamindino-2-phenylindole) [33]. The Alexander's staining solution [34] was used to test the viability of the pollen grains in the permissive conditions. For TEM [35], anthers were dissected and fixed in fresh 0.1 M PIPES buffer (pH 6.8). A 2% osmium tetroxide stain was applied with brief washes, followed by dehydration in an acetone gradient. Specimens were infiltrated using a gradient of Spurr's resin (Sigma-Aldrich) and embedded. The sections were cut using a Leica UCT ultramicrotome, stained in urayl and lead salts, and observed using a Zeiss TEM instrument with a LEO 912 AB energy filter. Semi-thin sections were obtained with the same method as TEM except for the heavy metal staining steps, and imaged with Aperio Digital Pathology Slide Scanner with a 40x lens.

ScaleP clearing of maize anthers

Maize anthers were fixed directly into 4% paraformaldehyde in phosphate-buffered saline (pH 7.4), and then prepared following the ScaleP protocol [36]. After 8 h KOH treatment, anthers were stained for a week at room temperature with 1 mM Calcofluor white for imaging of cell walls and 5 μM Syto13 (ThermoFisher) for imaging nuclei. Samples were then cleared for three days with ScaleP solution consisting of 6 M urea, 30% (v/v) glycerol, and 0.1% (v/v) Triton X-100 in sterile water. Cleared samples were then imaged with a Zeiss 880 multi photon confocal microscope with a 40x LD C-

Apochromat water lens (numerical aperture of 1.1; working distance of 0.62 mm). The

3D rendering was performed with Amira (FEI, ThermoFisher) software. Tapetal cells

were classified as mononucleate or binucleate manually for the 2-D images, or

segmentated automatically for the 3-D images, and then artificially colored.

sRNA-seq and RNA-seq library construction and sequencing

Total RNA for sRNA-seq and RNA-seq libraries was isolated using the PureLink

Plant RNA Reagent (ThermoFisher). Total RNA quality was assessed by denaturing

agarose gel electrophoresis and quantified by the Qubit RNA BR Assay Kit

(ThermoFisher). For library preparation, 20 to 30 nt RNAs were excised from a 15%

polyacrylamide/urea gel, and ~25 ng of sRNA used for library construction with the

TruSeq Small RNA Prep Kit (Illumina); alternatively, RealSeq®-AC kits (SomaGenics)

were used for ultra-low amount of total RNA starting from 100 ng. For RNA-seq, 2 µg of

total RNA was treated with DNase I (New England BioLabs) and then cleaned with RNA

Clean and Concentrator-5 (Zymo Research). The TruSeq Stranded Total RNA with

RiboZero-Plant Kit (Illumina) or NEBNext Ultra II Directional RNA Library Prep Kit

(New England BioLabs) was used for library construction with 500 ng of treated RNA.

Sequencing in single-end mode on an Illumina HiSeq 2500 or NextSeq (University of

Delaware) yielded 51 or 75 bp reads for both sRNA-seq and RNA-seq.

For sRNA-seq data [37], we first used Trimmomatic version 0.32 to remove the

linker adaptor sequences [38]. The trimmed reads were then mapped to version 4 of the B73

maize genome using Bowtie [39]. Read counts were normalized to 20 million to allow for

the direct comparison across libraries. phasiRNAs were designated based on a 24-nt

length and mapping coordinates within the previously identified 176 *24-PHAS* loci [1],

updated to version 4 of the B73 genome using the assembly converter tool [40]. If a 24-nt

phasiRNA did not uniquely map to the genome, we divided the abundance equally to

each location to which the read mapped, i.e. a hits-normalized abundance. These hits-

normalized abundances were then summed for each of the 176 loci to calculate the 24-nt

phasiRNA abundances.

RNA-seq libraries were trimmed as above, and mapped to version 4 of the B73

genome using Tophat version 2.0.12 [41]. For differential expression analysis of genes, we

assembled the transcripts using the Cufflinks package [42] and raw gene expression levels

were quantified using FeatureCounts version 1.5.0 [43] to generate count tables that were

imported into R for statistical analysis [44]. Weakly expressed transcripts (fewer than 1

read) were filtered out, and the remaining transcripts were normalized using DEseq2 to

identify a set of differentially expressed genes for anthers homozygous for each mutant

allele [45]. Due to a lack of a replicate for the *dcl5-1* restrictive library, we calculated

dispersions using the mean of libraries to identify differentially expressed transcripts

without a complete set of replicates.

For differential expression analysis of the *PHAS* precursors, we were unable to

assemble the transcripts that mapped to these regions because of the absence of

annotation in any feature files. Instead, we conducted this analysis in parallel to the

analysis of the sRNA data. We first normalized the mapped fragmented reads as counts

per 15 million, and applied the hits-normalized abundance approach described above.

Using the annotated *24-PHAS* loci (above), we then identified the summed abundance of

RNA-seq transcript fragments that mapped to these regions to identify a representative

abundance for each *24-PHAS* precursor. Replicate libraries were averaged together prior

to the construction of the heatmap, and we added 1 to all abundances in order to prevent

$\log_2(0)$ error while also giving the added benefit of removing negative log transformed

values. Boxplots were generated for each replicate's log transformed values.

Determination of male fertility

Anther exertion on male fertile tassel take approximately seven days: Anthers

emerge from the upper florets of the center of main spike on day 1; day 2 will include

anthers from the lower florets in the center of the main spike and additional upper florets

from the main spike (above and below the middle zone); day 3 will include lower floret

spikes from the zones that stated on day 2, plus the upper florets at the base of the main

spike and the middle of the primary branches; day 4 will include lower florets from the

spikelets involved on day 3, plus upper florets from more regions on the primary

branches; day 5 will include the lower florets from spikelets involved on day 4; day 6 will

include the upper florets on the secondary branches, and day 7 will include the lower

florets of the secondary branches [24]. Based on the maize anther emergence, tassel at

similar stages in anther emergence were chosen for photographs and quantification.

Tassel RGB images were obtained with cell phones with digital cameras. Then, a

quantitative image-based color trait analysis pipeline on the PlantCV V2 [46,47] platform

(https://plantcv.danforthcenter.org) was applied to determine the male fertility, with a

computational segmentation algorithm. In brief, the naïve Bayes approach was applied

and three classes (anther; other tassel parts; and background) of labeled pixels were used

to segment tassel images. By using these three classifiers, anthers and other parts of tassel

were highlighted in red and green. Then, area of anther and tassel from each tassel was

summed and used to calculate anther/tassel area ratio, as an indicator for male fertility.

Data Availability

Requests for materials should be addressed to walbot@stanford.edu. Raw data were

submitted to GEO under GSE122449

[https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/query/acc.cgi?acc=GSE122449] (including sRNA-

seq as GSM3466686 to GSM3466700 and GSM4180400 to GSM4180404; and RNA-seq

data as GSM3466701 to GSM3466714, and GSM4180405 to GSM4180408), and the

processed data are available via our maize genome browser at

https://mpss.danforthcenter.org. Other supporting data are available from the

corresponding authors upon request.

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Fig. 1. CRISPR-Cas9 was used in maize to mutate *Dcl5*.
(A) Schematic diagram of the *Dcl5* gene model. Conserved domains were identified using the NCBI conserved domain search tool against database CDD v3.16. All domains were found with extremely high confidence except the double stranded RNA-binding (dsRB) domain, which had an e-value of 0.05. **(B)** Sequences of the four CRISPR-Cas9-generated mutant alleles selected for this study. **(C)** A *dcl5-1* tassel lacking any exerted anthers (left) and a sibling heterozygous *dcl5-1//Dcl5* plant at peak pollen shed with hundreds of exerted anthers (right).

Fig. 2. Tapetal cells in *dcl5-1* plants are delayed or arrested in achieving binucleate status.

(A) Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) of a fertile *dcl5-1//Dcl5* 2 mm anther lobe. At this stage, the tapetal cells (TPM) are packed with dark staining materials, likely exine components later secreted onto haploid microspores. The middle layer (ML), endothecial (EN), and epidermal (EPI) cells are highly vacuolated. The orange boxes mark two binucleated tapetal cells in which both nuclei were visible (red dots). **(B)** TEM of a sterile *dcl5-1* anther lobe at the same stage, demonstrating distended, pale-staining, and mononucleate tapetal cells. Two anthers as replicates from *dcl5-1//Dcl5* and two anthers

from *dcl5-1* were used for TEM study. The other replicate is shown in Supplementary Figure 8. **(C)** *dcl5-1//Dcl5*, and **(D)** *dcl5-1:* three-dimensional reconstructions of cleared, 2.5 mm anthers stained with the nuclear marker Syto13. Individual nuclei of mononucleate tapetal cells are marked in purple, and binucleated cells are marked in yellow. **(E)** Quantification of binucleated cells in *dcl5-1*, *dcl5-1//Dcl5,* and *Dcl5//Dcl5* siblings at the meiotic I (1.5 mm) and meiotic II (2.5 mm) stages, in a family segregating 1:2:1. Statistics: two-tailed Student's T test. Three replicates were used for 1.5 mm anthers of each genotype; five replicates were used for 2.5 mm anthers of each genotype. Grey dots represent individual replicates (see Source Data File).

Fig. 3. Near absence of 24-nt phasiRNAs in CRISPR-derived *dcl5* mutant alleles.
(A) Total 24-nt phasiRNAs from 176 *24-PHAS* loci are highly abundant in both 1.5 and
2.0 mm fertile heterozygous anthers, but abundance is reduced by >99% in *dcl5-1, dcl5-2,* and *dcl5-4*, and by >90% in *dcl5-3* anthers. Altered temperature regimes do not restore
24-nt phasiRNA abundances in either fertile (permissive) or sterile (restrictive) *dcl5-1*
anthers (see main text). W23 inbred fertile anthers have similar 24-nt phasiRNA
abundance under both temperature regimes. **(B, inset)** Representative *24-PHAS* locus #12
(B73, v4; chr 1, 178454619 bp) in a genome browser showing ~1.5 kbp with sRNAs in
the fertile heterozygote (left) and *dcl5-1* (right). Orange dots are individual 24-nt
phasiRNAs; x-axis is genome position on the top or bottom strand, and the y-axis depicts
abundance in each genotype. Other colored dots are as indicated in the key, lower right.

Fig. 4. *dcl5-1* anther fertility is temperature sensitive.
Three sets of *dcl5-1* and sibling *dcl5-1//Dcl5* plants grown in greenhouses with differing temperature regimes: 28°/22° C, 26°/20° C, or 23°/20° C (day/night). **(A, B, C)** Temperatures were recorded every 2 h for 60 days (grey dots, average in red; day/night indicated as white or black, below). **(D, E, F)** Heterozygous *dcl5-1//Dcl5* siblings were fully fertile under all three regimes. **(G, H, I)** *dcl5-1* plants in the restrictive regime **(G)** were completely male sterile, while those in permissive conditions were partially **(H)** or fully **(I)** fertile. Images were taken at 60±3 days after planting (DAP) (top row), 70±2 DAP (middle row), and 71±3 DAP (bottom row); the pace of tassel development is temperature-dependent and full anther exertion occurs at different days after planting, for example **(F)** was photographed on the first day of anther exertion, a seven-day process (See Methods). The scale bar in **(D)** is approximate and pertains to all tassel images.

Inventory of Supplementary Materials:

Supplementary Figures 1-17

Supplementary Tables 1-3