1	DNA-free CRISPR-Cas9 gene editing of tetraploid tomatoes using
2	protoplast regeneration
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4	Chan Tran Hau <sup>1</sup> Vu Hauan Vuon <sup>1</sup> Da Ving Zhang <sup>1,2</sup> Fu Hui Wu <sup>1</sup> Oiga Wai Chang <sup>1</sup>
4	Chem-Train Hsu, fu-Hsuan fuan, PO-Aing Zheng <sup>2</sup> , Fu-Hui Wu, Qiao-Wei Cheng, Vu Lin $Mu^{1,2}$ Stoven Lin <sup>3</sup> Jin Jun Vuo <sup>4</sup> Ving Huov Cheng <sup>5</sup> Shu LLin <sup>6</sup> Ming Che
5	Shih $^{1,*}$ len Sheen $^{7,*}$ Vao-Cheng Lin $^{1,2,*,+}$ and Choun-Sea Lin $^{1,*,+}$
_	ohim, sen oheen , rao-oheng Lin and ohoun-oea Lin
1	
8	<sup>1</sup> Agricultural Biotechnology Research Center, Academia Sinica, Taipei, Taiwan
9 10	<sup>2</sup> Biotechnology Research Center in Southern Taiwan, Academia Sinica, Tainan, Taiwan
11	<sup>3</sup> Institute of Biochemistry, Academia Sinica, Taipei, Taiwan
12 13	<sup>4</sup> Research Institute of Subtropical Forestry, Chinese Academy of Forestry, Hangzhou, China
14	<sup>5</sup> Plant Pathology Division, Taiwan Agricultural Research Institute, Taichung, Taiwan
15 16	<sup>6</sup> Department of Horticulture and Landscape Architecture, National Taiwan University, Taipei, Taiwan
17 18 19	<sup>7</sup> Department of Molecular Biology and Centre for Computational and Integrative Biology, Massachusetts General Hospital, and Department of Genetics, Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA 02114, USA
20 21	*Senior authors: <a href="mailto:mcshih@gate.sinica.edu.tw">mcshih@gate.sinica.edu.tw</a> ; <a href="mailto:sheen@molbio.mgh.harvard.edu">sheen@molbio.mgh.harvard.edu</a> ; <a href="mailto:yalin@sinica.edu.tw">yalin@sinica.edu.tw</a> ; <a href="mailto:cslin99@gate.sinica.edu.tw">cslin99@gate.sinica.edu.tw</a> ; <a href="mailto:sheen@molbio.mgh.harvard.edu">sheen@molbio.mgh.harvard.edu</a> ; <a href="mailto:yalin@sinica.edu.tw">yalin@sinica.edu.tw</a> ; <a href="mailto:cslin99@gate.sinica.edu.tw">cslin99@gate.sinica.edu.tw</a> ; <a href="mailto:sheen@sinica.edu.tw">sheen@molbio.mgh.harvard.edu</a> ; <a href="mailto:sheen@sinica.edu.tw">sheen@molbio.mgh.harvard.edu</a> ; <a href="mailto:sheen@sinica.edu.tw">sheen@molbio.mgh.harvard.edu</a> ; <a href="mailto:sheen@sinica.edu.tw">sheen@sinica.edu</a> ; <a href="mailto:sheenwide">sheen@sinica.edu</a> ; <a href="mailto:sheenwide">sheen@sinica.edu</a> .
22	+Corresponding authors:
23	Choun-Sea Lin
24 25 26 27	Agricultural Biotechnology Research Center, Academia Sinica 128 Academia Road, Section 2, Nangang, Taipei, 115201, Taiwan Tel: +886 2 2787 2094 E-mail: <u>cslin99@gate.sinica.edu.tw</u>
28	Yao-Cheng Lin
29 30 31 32	Biotechnology Research Center in Southern Taiwan, Academia Sinica No 100. Guiren 13th Road, Sec. 1, Guiren, Tainan City, 711010,Taiwan Tel: +886 6 303 2312 Email: <u>yalin@sinica.edu.tw</u>
33	
34 35	ORCID IDS: 0000-0001-5827-5865 (P-XZ); 0000-0002-7590-793X (M-CS); 0000- 0002-9390-795X (Y-CL); 0000-0001-9566-2952 (C-SL)
36 37	<b>Key words:</b> Virus resistant, DNA-free, microRNA synthesis, Ribonucleoprotein, peptide hormone

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# 39 Short title

- 40 DNA-free genome editing in tetraploid wild tomatoes
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# 42 **One-sentence summary:**

43 DNA-free CRISPR-Cas9 genome editing in wild tomatoes creates stable and44 inheritable diploid and tetraploid regenerants.

45

# 46 **Competing interests**

The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of anycommercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict ofinterest.

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59

# 60 Author contributions

61 C-SL, Y-CL, JS, and M-CS conceived and designed the experiments. C-TH, and Y-HY performed the CRISPR-Cas9 experiments. C-TH, Y-HY, Q-WC, J-JY, and F-HW 62 63 conducted the protoplast regeneration, cell biology, molecular biology, and targeted mutagenesis experiments. SL conducted SpCas9 purification. Y-LW performed WGS 64 65 library preparation and qPCR analysis. P-XZ and Y-CL performed bioinformatics analysis. Y-HC, C-TH, C-SL, Q-WC, and F-HW performed virus-related analysis. C-66 TH performed cell biology. C-TH and S-IL performed grafting. JS, M-CS, Y-CL, and 67 68 C-SL wrote the manuscript with input from all co-authors. All authors read and 69 approved the final manuscript.

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# 71 Authors' emails:

- 72 Chen-Tran Hsu: <u>hightemp@gate.sinica.edu.tw</u>
- 73 Yu-Hsuan Yuan: <u>sharon11594@gate.sinica.edu.tw</u>
- 74 Po-Xing Zheng: <a href="mailto:pxzheng@gate.sinica.edu.tw">pxzheng@gate.sinica.edu.tw</a>
- 75 Fu-Hui Wu: <u>fuhuiwu@gate.sinica.edu.tw</u>
- 76 Qiao-Wei Cheng: vivian40100@gate.sinica.edu.tw
- 77 Yu-Lin Wu: yulinwu@sinica.edu.tw
- 78 Steven Lin: <u>stevenlin@gate.sinica.edu.tw</u>
- 79 Jin-Jun Yue: yuejinjun@163.com

80 81	Ying-Huey Cheng: yhcheng@tari.gov.tw Shu-LLin: shuilin@ntu edu tw
82	Ming-Che Shih: mcshih@gate.sinica.edu.tw
83	Jen Sheen: sheen@molbio.mgh.harvard.edu
84	Yao-Cheng Lin: <u>yalin@sinica.edu.tw</u>
85	Choun-Sea Lin: <u>cslin99@gate.sinica.edu.tw</u>
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# 101 Abstract

102 Wild tomatoes are important genomic resources for tomato research and breeding. 103 Development of a foreign DNA-free CRISPR-Cas delivery system has potential to 104 mitigate public concern about genetically modified organisms. Here, we established 105 a DNA-free protoplast regeneration and CRISPR-Cas9 genome editing system for 106 Solanum peruvianum, an important resource for tomato introgression breeding. We 107 generated mutants for genes involved in small interfering RNAs (siRNA) biogenesis, RNA-DEPENDENT RNA POLYMERASE 6 (SpRDR6) and SUPPRESSOR OF 108 109 GENE SILENCING 3 (SpSGS3); pathogen-related peptide precursors,

110 PATHOGENESIS-RELATED PROTEIN-1 (SpPR-1)and PROSYSTEMIN 111 (SpProsys); and fungal resistance (MILDEW RESISTANT LOCUS O, SpMIo1) using 112 diploid or tetraploid protoplasts derived from in vitro-grown shoots. The ploidy level of 113 these regenerants was not affected by PEG-calcium-mediated transfection, CRISPR 114 reagents, or the target genes. By karvotyping and whole genome sequencing 115 analysis, we confirmed that CRISPR-Cas9 editing did not introduce chromosomal 116 changes or unintended genome editing sites. All mutated genes in both diploid and 117 tetraploid regenerants were heritable in the next generation. spsgs3 null T<sub>0</sub> 118 regenerants and sprdr6 null  $T_1$  progeny had wiry, sterile phenotypes in both diploid 119 and tetraploid lines. The sterility of the spsgs3 null mutant was partially rescued, and 120 fruits were obtained by grafting to wild-type stock and pollination with wild-type pollen. 121 The resulting seeds contained the mutated alleles. Tomato yellow leaf curl virus 122 proliferated at higher levels in spsqs3 and sprdr6 mutants than in the wild type. 123 Therefore, this protoplast regeneration technique should greatly facilitate tomato 124 polyploidization and enable the use of CRISPR-Cas for *S. peruvianum* domestication 125 and tomato breeding.

#### 126 Introduction

127 Tomato is an important vegetable crop, representing the sixth most economically 128 important crop worldwide (http://www.fao.org/faostat/en/#data/QV). Wild tomato 129 species are resistant to diverse biotic and abiotic stresses, and are often used for 130 tomato introgression breeding. De novo domestication of wild tomato was recently 131 achieved within a short period by gene editing using clustered regularly interspaced 132 short palindromic repeats (CRISPR) and CRISPR-associated protein (Cas) (Li et al., 133 2018; Zsogon et al., 2018). Thus, CRISPR-Cas mutagenesis of wild tomato 134 represents a new strategy for tomato breeding and basic research.

135 Genome multiplication is a frequent occurrence during crop domestication. 136 Many of the most economically important crops are polyploid, including potato, 137 wheat, and cotton. Polyploidy conveys advantages in terms of genomic buffering, 138 viability, and environmental robustness (Van de Peer et al., 2021). Triploids can also 139 be used as seedless crops, such as watermelon and bananas. Thus, CRISPR-Cas-140 edited tetraploid versions of crop species and their relatives represent important 141 materials for crop breeding in the face of rapid climate change caused by global warming, among other challenges, as was recently demonstrated for tetraploid wild 142

rice (*Oryza alta*) (Yu et al., 2021). Therefore, it is important to establish a gene
editing platform for polyploid crops and related species.

145 The CRISPR-Cas system uses Agrobacterium-mediated stable transformation 146 to deliver DNA encoding Cas protein and single guide RNA (sgRNA) into the nuclei 147 of tomato cells. As an alternative approach, CRISPR ribonucleoprotein (RNP) or 148 plasmids harboring the Cas and sgRNA sequences can be introduced directly into 149 protoplasts using transient transfection, allowing recombinant DNA-free plants to be 150 regenerated to circumvent concerns about genetically modified organisms (GMOs) 151 (Woo et al., 2015; Andersson et al., 2018; Lin et al., 2018; Hsu et al., 2019; De Bruyn 152 et al., 2020; Hsu et al., 2021; Hsu et al., 2021; Yu et al., 2021). This protocol is 153 important for use with hybrids or plants with a long juvenile period and for vegetative 154 propagation because the transgenes from stable transformation (selection markers 155 and CRISPR reagent genes) cannot be removed from these crops by crossing. Also, 156 the progeny will be different from their heterozygous parental lines due to 157 segregation. The gene editing efficiency and specificity could be validated by 158 targeted sequencing (Woo et al., 2015; Nekrasov et al., 2017) or whole genome 159 sequencing (WGS) (Fossi et al., 2019; Hsu et al., 2021). Nevertheless, previous 160 analysis paid little attention to the overall chromosomal changes, especially in polyploid regenerants (Fossi et al., 2019). 161

162 The protoplast regeneration gene editing system has two other major 163 advantages: (1) Gene-edited transformants derived from tissue-culture-based 164 Agrobacterium-mediated transformation are often chimeric, especially in 165 dicotyledons (Shimatani et al., 2017). If the transformant is an edited/wild-type (WT) 166 chimera and the edited allele occurs only in somatic cells (and not germ cells), edited 167 alleles cannot be passed on to the next generation (Zheng et al., 2020). In protoplast 168 regeneration, there is a low incidence of chimerism, and all mutated alleles detected 169 in the T<sub>0</sub> generation can be transmitted to the next generation (Lin et al., 2018; Hsu 170 et al., 2019; Hsu et al., 2021; Hsu et al., 2021). (2) The protoplast regeneration 171 system can be used to introduce many CRISPR reagents and donor DNAs into 172 plants for targeted insertion at the same time without the limitation of vector size 173 (Hsu et al., 2019; Hsu et al., 2021). In addition, the second transfer step can be 174 performed directly to obtain homozygous alleles in polyploids without self-fertilization 175 which is very useful for hybrid, long juvenile period, and sterile plants (Hsu et al.,

176 2019). However, the main bottleneck of this strategy is the difficulty of performing177 protoplast regeneration.

178 Here, we established a diploid/allotetraploid protoplast regeneration protocol 179 for S. peruvianum, an important stress-resistant wild tomato, for use with CRISPR-180 Cas-mediated genome editing. We targeted several genes for editing, including 181 RNA-DEPENDENT RNA POLYMERASE6 (SpRDR6) and SUPPRESSOR OF GENE 182 SILENCING3 (SpSGS3), two key genes in the plant RNA silencing pathway 183 (Mourrain et al., 2000) that mediate defense against tomato yellow leaf curl virus 184 (TYLCV) (Verlaan et al., 2013); PATHOGENES/S-RELATED PROTEIN-1 (SpPR-1) 185 encoding the cysteine-rich secretory proteins antigen 5 and pathogenesis-related 1 186 protein (CAP)-derived peptide 1 (CAPE1) precursor (Chen et al., 2014) and 187 PROSYSTEMIN (SpProsys), two pathogen-resistance peptide precursors; and 188 MILDEW RESISTANT LOCUS O (SpMIo1) (Nekrasov et al., 2017). Targeting of 189 these genes, which was performed using two types of CRISPR reagents, plasmids 190 and RNPs, yielded diploid and tetraploid transgene-free lines. Stable genome 191 structures of ten plants, including one explant derived from stem cutting, three diploid 192 regenerants and six tetraploid of *SpProsys* or *SpMlo1* RNP transfection regenerants 193 were confirmed by WGS.

194

#### 195 **Results**

#### 196 Protoplast regeneration in S. peruvianum

To obtain a high proportion of tetraploid protoplasts, we analyzed the genome sizes of different explants (leaves and stems) using flow cytometry to determine the proportion of tetraploid cells. In leaves, the ratio of diploid to tetraploid nuclei was 5:1 (Figure 1a), and in stems, the ratio was 1:1 (Figure 1b). The same ratio was detected in protoplasts derived from stems (Figure 1c). Therefore, since stems had a higher proportion of tetraploid cells, we used them in subsequent studies to increase the proportion of tetraploid regenerated plants.

Using a method previously published for *Nicotiana tabacum* (Lin et al., 2018), we successfully isolated *S. peruvianum* protoplasts from *in vitro*-grown shoots. We incubated the purified protoplasts in liquid medium consisting of half-strength Murashige and Skoog medium (1/2 MS), 0.4 M mannitol, 3% sucrose, 1 mg/L 208 naphthaleneacetic acid (NAA), and 0.3 mg/L kinetin, pH 5.7, for 1 month in the dark, 209 leading to the formation of fine, sand-like calli (Figure 2a). Next, we subcultured 210 these calli in liquid medium containing 1/2 MS, 0.4 M mannitol, 3% sucrose, 2 mg/L 211 kinetin, and 0.3 mg/L Indole-3-acetic acid (IAA), pH 5.7, in the light (Figure 2b). After 212 one month, these white calli turned green and were transferred to solid medium (1/2 213 MS, 0.2 M mannitol, 3% sucrose, and 2 mg/L kinetin; Figure 2c). We transferred the 214 calli to fresh medium every month to induce the formation of small shoots (Figure 2d). 215 which were incubated in medium without plant growth regulators until adventitious 216 roots formed at the bottoms of the shoots (Figure 2e). Finally, we transferred the 217 rooted plants to pots (Figure 2f) and grew them in the greenhouse (Figure 2g). The 218 regenerated plants flowered (Figure 2h), fruited (Figure 2i), and produced seeds.

219

#### 220 Optimized protoplast regeneration protocol

221 Compared to tobacco (Lin et al., 2018), S. peruvianum protoplasts take longer to 222 regenerate. According to our observations, the most important steps in the tomato 223 regeneration process are those in liquid culture: callus induction in the dark (the 1<sup>st</sup> step) and callus proliferation in the light (the 2<sup>nd</sup> step). Therefore, we tested several 224 225 modifications to the composition of the culture medium to shorten the regeneration 226 time. The results indicated that zeatin and 6-Benzylaminopurine (BA) are the best 227 hormonal treatments for the two liquid culture steps (Figure S1), and zeatin is the best cytokinin for the 3<sup>rd</sup> subculture step in solid medium (Figure S2). 228

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#### 230 CRISPR-Cas9-targeted mutagenesis in S. peruvianum

We used this protoplast regeneration system to establish a method for CRISPR-Cas9-targeted gene mutagenesis of *S. peruvianum*. First, we used plasmids as CRISPR-Cas9 reagents for targeting mutagenesis of three important diseaseresistance-related genes: *SpSGS3*, *SpRDR6*, and *SpPR-1*.

In the *SpSGS3* experiment, we chose four target sites (Table 1), and the total efficiency of mutagenesis was 8.3%. Based on sequencing results, mutations occurred in all three target sites except GTAACAATGCTGGATCAGGC. Among these, GCGCAATTGAATGGTTTACA was targeted the most effectively, and mutations at this position were observed in all mutants (Table S1). *spsgs3*#6, #11, and #13 are null mutants and *spsgs3*#6 contains four mutated alleles. *SpSGS3*#7
also contains three mutated alleles and one non-mutated WT allele. A 68-bp
insertion from the vector was detected in *spsgs3*#11.

In the *SpRDR6* experiment, we selected two target sites (Table 1). Based on the sequencing results, both target sites could be mutated by CRISPR-Cas9, with a total mutation efficiency of 13.2%. TTAAAGCTGGGACCATTGCG gave the best results, as all five mutant plants contained mutations at this target site. The mutation TGCGAGGTCGAATTGAAACA was only identified in *SpRDR6*#38 (Table S2). All regenerated mutants were heterozygous, and *SpRDR6*#38 had two mutated alleles and at least one WT allele.

250 In the SpPR-1 experiment, seven target sites were selected and used to 251 construct two vectors. These two constructs, harboring sgRNAs targeting seven 252 target sites, were co-transfected into protoplasts (Table 1). Among the 10 253 regenerated mutants, 4 contained fragment deletions, indicating that at least two 254 Except for TGTCCGATCCAGTTGCCTAC cleavages had occurred. and 255 CTATGATCCTGTAGGCAAC there were no mutations in the target sites; the five 256 other sgRNAs caused mutations at the expected positions. The mature CAPE1 257 peptide is derived from the C-terminal end of tomato PR-1b. sppr-1#28, #31, and 258 #52 were mutated only in the target sites located in CAPE1, all at 259 ATCCTGTAGGCAACTGGAT, resulting in a 5-bp deletion. All SpPR-1 mutants were 260 null mutants except for SpPR-1#72 (Table S3).

261 In the experiments with *N. tabacum* (Lin et al., 2018) and SpSGS3 (Table S1), 262 the use of plasmid CRISPR reagent may still result in foreign DNA insertions. 263 Therefore, RNP is used as a CRISPR reagent to achieve DNA-free gene editing. 264 Here, we delivered two RNPs that target sites located in SpProsys to protoplasts and 265 regenerated the transfected protoplasts into plants. Upon sequencing of the 24 266 regenerated SpProsys plants, 11 showed target mutagenesis (45.8%, Table 1). Prosystemin is a precursor of systemin, which is processed by phytaspase 267 268 (Beloshistov et al., 2018). The target site GGAGGATCACGCTTTGATGG is at the C 269 terminus of SpProsys, which is the position of systemin, and the mutations in lines 270 #5, #16, and #19 occurred only at this site (Table S4). Using two published SIMIo1 271 target sites (Nekrasov et al., 2017), we synthesized RNPs targeted to these sites in

*vitro* and simultaneously delivered them into protoplasts. Of the regenerated calli and

273 plants, 63.6% showed targeted mutagenesis (Table 1, Table S5).

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# 275 Analysis of the genome sizes, phenotypes, and progeny of diploids and 276 tetraploids

277 A higher proportion of tetraploid cells was observed in protoplasts derived from 278 diploid stems compared to leaf tissue (Figure 1). In addition, during target gene 279 genotyping, we observed that some mutants contained more than three alleles. For 280 example, SpRDR6#38 contained three alleles (+1 bp, -7 bp, and WT, Table S2), 281 and its genome size was  $4.40 \pm 0.03$  pg. Therefore, targeted mutant plants of 282 tetraploids can be obtained using this method. We performed karyotype analysis of 283 these regenerated plants ( $T_0$ , sterile mutants) or their offspring ( $T_1$ ) to confirm the 284 chromosome numbers (Figure 3). Except for a SpPR-1 tetraploid without targeting 285 regenerant, we obtained diploid and tetraploid regenerated plants with or without 286 targeting mutations derived from plasmid CRISR-Cas9 reagent-transfected 287 protoplasts (Figure 3, Table S6). Similar results were obtained for SpProsys RNP 288 transfection (Figure S3, Table S7). The ploidy of the plants that were regenerated 289 from transfected protoplasts is provided in Table S6 and S7. These results indicate 290 that most tetraploid plants were derived from tetraploid protoplasts from the explants 291 rather than by protoplast fusion caused by the presence of PEG-Ca<sup>+</sup> in the 292 transfection medium.

In regenerated plants derived from *SpSGS3* transfection, the tetraploids had a reduced seed set (Figure S4a). The seeds of tetraploids were larger than those of diploids; this phenomenon was also observed in tetraploid regenerated plants derived from transfection with other CRISPR reagents (Figure S4b). The tetraploid plants grew more slowly than the diploid plants (Figure S4c). The leaf edges of tetraploid plants were more rounded than those of the diploid plants (Figure S4c).

We subjected the offspring of *SpSGS3*#7, and #10 (Figure S5); *SpRDR6*#6, 300 #33, and #38 (Figure S6); and *sppr-1*#52 and #61 (Figure S7) to target gene 301 sequencing. Except for *sppr-1*#52, which contained one mutant locus not present in 302 the parent, all other offspring had the same mutated locus as the parent. These

303 results demonstrate that these mutated loci can be transmitted to the next generation304 in diploids and tetraploids.

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## 306 Stable genome structures in diploids and tetraploids

307 To further confirm the stability of genome structure in regenerants, we performed 308 whole genome sequencing of ten samples, including one diploid plant propagated by 309 stem cutting (SpB), three diploids and six tetraploids derived from SpProsys or 310 *SpMIo1* RNP transfection (Table S7). Taking into account the different genome sizes 311 between diploid and tetraploid plants, each sample was sequenced to the anticipated 312 30x genome coverage. That is, 141-171 million pair-end reads were sequenced for 313 diploid plants and at least 252-373 million pair-end reads were sequenced for 314 tetraploid plants (Table S7).

315 Multiple analysis strategies were used to study the genome structures. 316 Despite the low mapping rate of both diploid and tetraploid samples at some 317 chromosome locations, sequencing coverage analysis did not show inconsistent 318 coverage changes between samples (Figure S8). Deletion of large chromosomal 319 segments, which were commonly seen in aneuploid cells (Musacchio and Salmon, 320 2007) cause allelic imbalance. By calculating heterozygous allele frequency of 321 sequenced plants, we did not identify abnormal allele frequency variations or loss of 322 heterozygosity (Figure 4a). A Bayesian approach to determine copy number 323 variations along chromosomes and compared between uneven sequencing depth of 324 samples did not identify abnormal copy number changes in sequenced plants 325 (Figure 4b). Taking these findings together, we concluded that there is no abnormal 326 chromosomal gain or loss in diploid and tetraploid plants. Neither the protoplast 327 regeneration process nor the CRISPR reagents caused detectible chromosomal 328 changes.

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## 330 spsgs3 and sprdr6 diploid and tetraploid null mutants show wiry phenotypes

The regenerated plants containing a WT allele(s) produced flowers and fruits (Figure with morphology and development similar to those of WT plants in the greenhouse. Biallelic *spsgs3* mutants (carrying two distinct genome-edited alleles: *spsgs3*#11, Figure 5; *spsgs3-6* and *spsgs3-13*; Figure S9a) had a wiry leaf phenotype and

abnormal flowers, which is similar to the previously reported sgs3 domesticatedtomato mutants (Yifhar et al., 2012).

337 Among the six progeny of SpSGS3#7, two progeny harbored the mutated 338 alleles only (Figure S5); these plants also showed a wiry phenotype (spsgs3#7-2; 339 Figure S9b). A similar phenomenon was also observed in the *SpRDR6* regenerants. 340 Although all SpRDR6 T<sub>0</sub> plants were heterozygous and contained WT SpRDR6 341 alleles in their genomes, no wiry phenotypes were observed. The SpRDR6#33 and 342 SpRDR6#38 offspring had wiry phenotypes (sprdr6#33-G, Figure 5b; sprdr6#38-16, 343 Figure S9b). The pollen of both null  $T_0$  and  $T_1$  mutated plants, including SpSGS3 and 344 SpRDR6 mutants, was abnormal (Figure S9c) and failed to produce seeds.

345 Because AUXIN RESPONSE FACTOR3 (ARF3) and ARF4 are the target 346 genes of trans-acting secondary siRNA3 (TAS3), whose biogenesis requires RDR6 347 (Marin et al., 2010), we investigated the transcript levels of these genes in WT, 348 spsqs3 and sprdr6 plants (Figure 5a). The spsqs3 null mutants (T<sub>0</sub>: spsqs3#11 and 349 spsqs3#13; T<sub>1</sub>: spsqs3#7-1) lacked SpSGS3 expression. In contrast to the WT, the 350 transcript levels of SpARF3 and SpARF4 was increased in the spsgs mutants, not 351 only for null diploid mutants spsqs3#11 and spsqs3#13 but also for tetraploid mutant 352 spsqs3#7-1 (Figure 5a). Similarly, the transcript levels of SpARF3 and SpARF4 were 353 also increased in the SpRDR6  $T_1$  mutant sprdr6#33-G (Figure 5a).

354

# 355 **Tomato yellow leaf curl virus proliferation**

We evaluated the infectivity of TYLCV in the mutants by *in vitro* inoculation (Al Abdallat et al., 2010). After 8 weeks *in vitro* inoculation, plant growth was severely retarded (Figure S10) and leaf morphology changed in the  $T_1$  diploid *spsgs3*#11 (Figure 6a) and the  $T_2$  tetraploid *sprdr6*#38-6 (Figure 6b). Compared to the WT, all of the null mutants (*spsgs3/sprdr6* and diploid/tetraploid) showed higher levels of TYLCV accumulation (Figure 6a, b, Figure S10).

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# 363 Grafting rescued the fertility of the sgs3#11 null mutant

We used WT pollen for hybridization, which failed to pollinate the fruits of the *spsgs3* and *sprdr6* null mutants. Based on these results, these mutants could not produce 366 the substrate(s) needed for the development of male or female reproductive organs. 367 However, using grafting, the substrate(s) produced in WT stock was successfully 368 transported to the spsqs3#11 scion (Figure 7a). Although there were no significant 369 differences in leaf (Figure 7b) or flower morphology (Figure 7c), spsgs3#11 failed to 370 produce viable pollen (Figure S9c) and the pollen viability of spsqs3#11 increased to 371 20% by grafting to the WT stock. Grafted *spsgs3*#11 produced fruits (Figure 7d), but 372 non-grafted spsgs3#11 did not. The fruits from spsgs3#11 scions were smaller 373 (Figure 7e) and contained fewer seeds than the WT (Figure 7f). Genotyping 374 indicated that all of the progeny harbored spsgs3#11 mutated alleles (Figure 7g).

375

### 376 **Discussion**

377 In addition to its use in wild tomatoes, CRISPR is also utilized in commercial 378 varieties of *S. lycopersicum*. Dozens of studies using this technique in tomato have 379 been published, most involving breeding trials for traits such as guality (fruit 380 architecture, color, metabolism, postharvest), anti-stress (biotic and abiotic stress), 381 and domestication (Li et al., 2018; Zsogon et al., 2018). These studies were 382 performed using several CRISPR platforms established in tomato, including (1) Cas9 383 (Brooks et al., 2014) and Cas12a (Bernabe-Orts et al., 2019), to generate DNA 384 double-strand breaks that are preferentially repaired by non-homologous end joining 385 to introduce target mutations; (2) precise modification of plant genomes using DNA 386 repair templates via homologous recombination (Cermak et al., 2015); and (3) the 387 cytidine base editor, an inactive Cas9 fusion with cytidine deaminase, which converts 388 cytosine to uracil without cutting DNA and introducing mutations (Shimatani et al., 389 2017). Therefore, CRISPR is emerging as a powerful tool for tomato breeding.

For commercial breeding, however, it is desirable to produce DNA-free plants to avoid concerns about GMOs. Although there are several reports demonstrating successful DNA-free genome editing via biolistic methods in many crops (Svitashev et al., 2016; Liang et al., 2018; Banakar et al., 2020), protoplast regeneration systems have higher efficiency. Many studies have been performed using RNPs and plasmids to achieve DNA-free genome editing (Woo et al., 2015; Andersson et al., 2018; Lin et al., 2018; Hsu et al., 2019; De Bruyn et al., 2020; Hsu et al., 2021; Hsu

et al., 2021; Yu et al., 2021). These reports indicate that it is possible to establish
protoplast regeneration platforms for tomato and various target crops/plants.

399 Tomato and related species have been important materials in the 400 development of protoplast isolation and regeneration techniques. Tomato protoplasts 401 were isolated by enzymatic digestion, and this landmark achievement allowed 402 sufficient amounts of protoplasts to be obtained for further application (Cocking, 403 1960). S. peruvianum was the first tomato-related species for which a protoplast 404 regeneration system was reported, and such systems have subsequently been 405 achieved in many tomato and wild tomato species (Kut and Evans, 1982). In this 406 study, we combined these techniques to achieve DNA-free genome editing of a wild 407 tomato. This method could be applied to other tomato-related species to facilitate 408 breeding.

409 Although protoplast regeneration was first reported 50 years ago (Takebe et 410 al., 1971), it still represents a major bottleneck in DNA-free genome editing. The 411 major issue is that various species have different regeneration capacities. Moreover, 412 no single protocol can be directly applied to all species efficiently because the 413 requirements for plant medium and regeneration are diverse (Kut and Evans, 1982) 414 and must be individually modified. Understanding how a cell is regenerated into a 415 complete plant is an important topic of scientific and agricultural research (Maher et 416 al., 2020), but information about this process is still limited. Such knowledge could be 417 applied to develop efficient tissue culture, gene transformation, and genome editing 418 system, tools that are important for *de novo* plant domestication (Li et al., 2018; 419 Zsogon et al., 2018; Maher et al., 2020; Yu et al., 2021). In this study, we assessed 420 the effects of plant growth regulators in the medium on protoplast regeneration. In 421 addition to the chemical approach, several genes encoding morphogenic regulators 422 have been identified and used to improve the efficiency of plant regeneration. It is 423 possible to control the expression of these genes to establish a non-tissue-culture 424 regeneration system for gene editing (Maher et al., 2020).

In addition to their roles in the domestication of wild species, polyploid crops have other benefits, including larger plants (Chung et al., 2017), and higher yields (Chen et al., 2018). In addition, triploid crop cultivars of species such as bananas and watermelons can produce commercially desirable seedless fruits. Most previous methods for chromosome multiplication have used colchicine. This procedure is

430 complicated and inefficient, producing regenerated plants with mixed cell populations 431 of various ploidy levels (Cola et al., 2014). Similar to haploid culture, in this report, 432 using isolated protoplasts from polyploid cells in explants for regeneration and gene 433 editing, we were able to obtain edited polyploid regenerated wild tomatoes without 434 colchicine treatment. This phenomenon has also been reported in other plant 435 species. In witloof chicory plants generated from CRISPR/Cas-edited protoplasts, 436 77.2% diploid and 21.5% tetraploid plants were produced and the remaining 1.3% 437 consisted of haploids, hexaploids, and mixoploids (De Bruyn et al., 2020). Therefore, 438 explants containing high proportions of polyploidized cells could be widely used for 439 protoplast regeneration for crop polyploidization. However, in this study, we found no 440 significant enlargement in the leaves or flowers of tetraploid versus diploid lines, 441 similar to the pattern reported for tetraploid tomatoes (Nilsson, 1950).

442 In addition to technological difficulties, the presumed mutagenicity of 443 protoplast regeneration is another reason why researchers are reluctant to use this 444 system as a gene editing platform. Indeed, whole genome sequencing has revealed 445 widespread genome instability in potatoes regenerated from protoplasts (Fossi et al., 446 2019), which has increased the concerns about this technology. The original purpose 447 of protoplast regeneration was to use protoplast fusion to improve hybridization or as 448 a platform for mutagenesis. Since only successful cases of mutation or fusion have 449 been reported, and most such experiments have not been compared with other 450 tissue culture methods, many researchers have the impression that protoplast 451 regeneration readily leads to mutagenesis. In fact, other tissue culture technologies, 452 including multiple shoot proliferation (Lin et al., 2007) and somatic embryogenesis 453 (Lin et al., 2007), can also cause mutations. Although this study involved the use of 454 PEG-Ca<sup>2+</sup> in the transfection process, which could promote cell fusion, non-455 transfected tetraploid regenerated plants were also obtained. Based on our finding 456 that the proportion of tetraploid regenerated plants was similar to that of shoot 457 explants, we believe that the formation of polyploid regenerated plants was primarily 458 due to the presence of polyploid cells in the explants. In addition to protoplast 459 regeneration, there are also opportunities to obtain polyploid plants using other 460 tissue culture technologies (Chung et al., 2017). In an Agrobacterium-mediated 461 transformation experiment in tomato, the rate of tetraploid transgenic plants ranged 462 from 24.5% to 80% and depended on both the genotype and the transformation

463 procedure (Ellul et al., 2003). In *Arabidopsis* T-DNA insertion mutagenesis, large-464 scale genomic rearrangements have occurred (Pucker et al., 2021). Therefore, we 465 believe that protoplast regeneration is an excellent tool for gene editing as well as 466 other transgenic platforms.

467 Unlike the previous report of widespread genome changes in the 468 autotetraploid potato (Fossi et al., 2019), the whole genome sequencing analysis in 469 this study does not identify an uploidy and abnormal chromosomal changes in either 470 diploid or tetraploid regenerants. Chromosomes in the autotetraploid genome, such 471 as cultivated potato, were derived from merging of two different chromosome sets 472 (Van de Peer et al., 2021). On the other hand, tetraploid plants in this study, which 473 were derived from chromosome doubling, contained the two identical sets of 474 chromosomes. As the tissue culture steps caused a certain level of cell stresses, 475 pairing of non-homologous chromosomes in the autotetraploid genomes (Fossi et al., 476 2019) likely has a higher probability of incorrect chromosome pairing than in the 477 allotetraploid genomes (Hsu et al., 2019; Yu et al., 2021). Incorrect chromosome 478 segregation during mitosis in the autotetraploid cells likely has a higher probability of 479 evading the spindle-assembly checkpoint (Musacchio and Salmon, 2007). 480 Furthermore, by analyzing changes in the allele frequency and copy number 481 variation, we confirmed that the CRISPR-Cas9 editing did not introduce large scale 482 chromosomal changes and unintended genome editing sites (Hsu et al., 2021).

483 In this study, all tetraploid and diploid spsqs3 and sprdr6 null mutants had wiry 484 phenotypes, similar to other microRNA biogenesis null mutants in tomatoes (Yifhar 485 et al., 2012; Brooks et al., 2014). sgs3 and rdr6 null mutants show various 486 phenotypes in different species. N. benthamiana spsqs3 and sprdr6 mutants have a 487 wiry flower morphology and sterile phenotype, but their leaves are similar to those of 488 the WT (Hsu et al., 2021). The Arabidopsis sqs3 mutant shows no significant 489 phenotype (Adenot et al., 2006). Therefore, we would like to discover ways to 490 improve the fertility of these mutants.

Grafting is a traditional agricultural tool that is used to control flowering, improve fruit quality, and increase resistance to biotic and abiotic stress (Haroldsen et al., 2012). In *N. benthamiana*, gene silencing was transmitted with 100% efficiency in a unidirectional manner from silenced stocks to non-silenced scions expressing the corresponding transgene (Palauqui et al., 1997). In this study, a mutant of

496 SpSGS3, an RNA silencing-related gene, was used as a scion and grafted onto 497 RNA-silenced normal wild-type rootstock. The fertility of spsgs3#11 scions was 498 rescued, and they produced seeds with mutated alleles. In Arabidopsis, more than 499 3,000 mobile genes have been identified. The mRNA from these genes could be 500 transported long distance, including SGS3 mRNA (Thieme et al., 2015). In addition 501 to mRNA, organellar DNA, proteins, and plant growth regulators can also move 502 across graft unions (Haroldsen et al., 2012). Whether these mobile substances were 503 also involved in rescuing the fertility of the *spsgs3#11* scions or whether grafting with 504 wild-type plants could rescue other sterile mutants of mobile RNA requires further 505 investigation.

506

## 507 **Conclusions**

508 To obtain tetraploid S. peruvianum DNA-free genome-edited plants, we used 509 in vitro-grown shoots, which contain high proportions of tetraploid cells, as explants 510 for protoplast isolation and regeneration. The medium components were optimized, 511 and genome-edited regenerants were obtained within 6 months. This is the first 512 study in S. peruvianum describing the use of both RNP and plasmid CRISPR 513 reagents for DNA-free genome editing, yielding a targeted mutagenesis efficiency of 514 60% without the need for marker gene selection. Diploid and tetraploid heritable 515 mutants were obtained for all pathogen-related genes targeted in this study, 516 including SpSGS3, SpRDR6, SpPR-1, SpProsys, and SpMIo1, and the expected 517 phenotypes were obtained. In comparative whole genome sequencing analysis, 518 protoplast derived CRISPR-Cas9 edited plants, either diploid or tetraploid, showed 519 stable genome structure. The proliferation of TYLCV, an important viral disease of 520 tomato, was increased in *spsqs3* and *sprdr6* null mutants. The reproductive growth 521 defect of the SpSGS3 mutant was successfully rescued by grafting with WT stock. 522 The protocols and materials described in this study will be useful for tomato breeding.

523

#### 524 Materials and methods

#### 525 Plant materials

526 Sterile *S. peruvianum* plantlets were propagated by cutting and growing them in half-527 strength Murashige and Skoog (1/2 MS) medium supplemented with 30 mg/L 528 sucrose and 1% agar, pH 5.7. The plantlets were incubated in a 26°C culture room 529 (12 h light/12 h in dark, light intensity of 75 µmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>). The plantlets were cut and 530 subcultured in fresh medium monthly.

531

#### 532 **Protoplast isolation and transfection**

533 Protoplast isolation and transfection of S. peruvianum were performed following our 534 previously published method with minor modifications (Hsu et al., 2019). Protoplasts 535 were isolated from the stems and petioles of *in vitro*-grown plantlets. Five or more 536 stems (approximately 5 cm/each, total 0.2-0.25 g) were used to isolate roughly 1 x 10<sup>6</sup> protoplasts. These materials were place in a 6-cm glass Petri dish with 10 mL 537 538 digestion solution [1/4 Murashige and Skoog (MS) liquid medium containing 1% cellulose and 0.5% macerozyme, 3% sucrose, and 0.4 M mannitol, pH 5.7] and cut 539 540 into 0.5-cm-wide strips longitudinally. The material was incubated at room 541 temperature in the dark overnight. The digested solution was diluted in 10 mL W5 542 (154 mM NaCl, 125 mM CaCl<sub>2</sub>, 5 mM KCl, 2 mM MES, and 5 mM glucose) solution and filtered through a 40-µm nylon mesh. The sample was centrifuged at low speed 543 544  $(360 \times q)$  for 3 min to collect the protoplasts. The protoplasts were purified in 20% 545 sucrose solution and washed three times with W5 solution. The protoplasts were 546 transferred to transfection buffer (1/2 MS medium supplemented with 3% sucrose, 547 0.4 M mannitol, 1 mg/L NAA, and 0.3 mg/L kinetin, pH 5.7) and adjusted to a concentration of  $3 \times 10^5$  cells/mL. 548

The protoplasts were transfected with plasmids by PEG-mediated transfection (Woo et al., 2015; Lin et al., 2018). A 400- $\mu$ L sample (1.2 × 10<sup>5</sup> protoplasts) was combined with 40  $\mu$ L of CRISPR reagent (DNA: 20-40  $\mu$ g; RNP: 10  $\mu$ g) and mixed carefully. The same volume (440  $\mu$ L) of PEG solution was added to the sample, mixed, and incubated for 30 min. To end the reaction, 3 mL of W5 was added, and the sample was mixed well. Transfected protoplasts were collected by centrifugation

at  $360 \times g$  for 3 min. The protoplasts were washed with 3 mL of W5 and centrifuged at  $360 \times g$  for 3 min. The target sites are shown in Table 1.

557

#### 558 CRISPR/Cas reagents

559 The SpCas9 vector for dicot transformation (pYLCRISPR/Cas9P35S-N) (Ma et al., 560 2015) was isolated using a Plasmid Midi-prep kit (Bio-Genesis). Preparation of Cas9 561 protein and sgRNA and Cas9 RNP nucleofection were performed according to 562 Huang et al., 2020. Cas9 RNP complexes were assembled immediately before 563 nucleofection by mixing equal volumes of 40  $\mu$ M Cas9 protein and 88.3  $\mu$ M sgRNA 564 at a molar ratio of 1:2.2 and incubating at 37°C for 10 min.

565

#### 566 **Protoplast regeneration**

567 Pooled protoplast DNA was used as a template to amplify the target genes for 568 validation by sequencing. The putatively edited protoplasts were transferred to 5-cm-569 diameter Petri dishes containing 3 mL 1/2 MS liquid medium supplemented with 3% 570 sucrose, 0.4 M mannitol, 1 mg/L NAA, and 0.3 mg/L kinetin for plant regeneration. 571 Calli formed from the protoplasts after 1 month of incubation in the dark. The calli 572 were subcultured in a 9-cm-diameter Petri dish containing fresh medium with 573 cytokinin for 3-4 weeks in the light. Calli that had turned green were transferred to 574 solid medium containing the same plant growth regulators. The explants were 575 subcultured every 4 weeks until shoots formed after several subcultures. The shoots 576 were subcultured in solid rooting medium (HB1: 3 g/L Hyponex No. 1, 2 g/L tryptone, 577 20 g/L sucrose, 1 g/L activated charcoal, and 10 g/L Agar, pH 5.2) for adventitious 578 roots formation.

579

#### 580 Analysis of the genotypes of regenerated plants

Two pairs of primers were designed to amplify the sgRNA-targeted DNA region for each target gene. The PCR conditions were 94°C for 5 min, 35 cycles of denaturing (94°C for 30 s), annealing (55°C for 30 s), and polymerization (72°C for 30 s), followed by an extension reaction at 72°C for 3 min. The PCR product was sequenced by Sanger sequencing to confirm mutagenesis. The multiple sequences

derived from mutated regenerated plants were bioinformatically separated using Poly
Peak Parser (http://yosttools.genetics.utah.edu/PolyPeakParser/; (Hill et al., 2014))
or further confirmed by sequential T/A cloning and sequencing. The primer
sequences are listed in Table S7.

590

#### 591 Estimation of genome size

592 Fresh leaves were finely chopped with a new razor blade in 250 μL isolation buffer 593 (200 mM Tris, 4 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>-6H<sub>2</sub>O, and 0.5% Triton X-100) and mixed well (Dolezel et 594 al., 2007). The mixture was filtered through a 40-μm nylon mesh, and the filtered 595 suspensions were incubated with a DNA fluorochrome (50 μg/mL propidium iodide 596 containing RNase A). The samples were analyzed using a MoFlo XDP Cell Sorter 597 (Beckman Coulter Life Science) and an Attune NxT Flow Cytometer (Thermo Fisher 598 Scientific). Chicken erythrocyte (BioSure) was used as an internal reference.

599

#### 600 Whole genome sequencing

601 Leaves of S. peruvianum regenerates were harvested and genomic DNA was 602 extracted using two independent protocols. A nuclei isolation protocol (Sikorskaite et 603 al., 2013) was used on the wild type (SpB) sample to recover higher quality and 604 quantity of DNA samples. Briefly, nuclei were extracted by 36mM sodium bisulfite, 605 0.35M Sorbitol, 0.1M Tris-base, 5mM EDTA, 2M NaCl, 2% (w/v) CTAB, and 2 ml 5% 606 N-lauroylsarcosine sodium salt. The genomic DNA was then extracted by 607 chloroform-isoamyl alcohol (24:1), ethanol precipitation, and further cleaned up by 608 DNeasy Blood & Tissue Kit (69504, Qiagen) and AMPure (Beckman Coulter). The 609 other nine samples used the chloroform-isoamyl alcohol (24:1) for DNA extraction, 610 followed with Zymo Genomic DNA Clean & Concentrator-25 (D4064, Zymo), and 611 Zymo OneStep PCR Inhibitor Removal Kit (D6030, Zymo) to obtain high quality 612 genomic DNA. DNA integrity was checked using the D1000 Screen Tape on the 613 Agilent TapeStation 4150 System with DIN value > 8. Genomic DNA were sheared 614 using a Covaris E220 sonicator (Covaris) and paired- end sequencing libraries were 615 constructed by the NEBNext Ultra DNA Library Prep Kit II for Illumina (E7370S, 616 NEB). DNA libraries were validated again on the Agilent TapeStation 4150, and were 617 quantified by qPCR (E7630, NEB). The 2×150 bp paired-end sequencing with

average insert size of 700 bp was performed by Welgene Biotech on an IlluminaNovaSeq 6000 platform.

620

#### 621 WGS data analysis

622 Since there was no assembled S. peruvianum genome, high quality Illumina reads 623 were mapped to the S. lycopersicum Heinz 1706 reference genome (SL4.0) 624 (Hosmani et al., 2019) by the GPU-based NVIDIA Clara Parabricks package 625 (NVIDIA). To determine the variant frequency, we used the deep learning-based 626 Google DeepVariant (Yun et al., 2021) with 'WGS model' to identify variants. All 627 samples were then combined by GLnexus (Yun et al., 2021) to perform 'joint 628 genotype calling' using 'DeepVariant' model to combine samples. We then calculated 629 the heterozygous allele frequency by dividing the read depth of the heterozygous 630 allele (labeled as 0/1 by GLnexus) over the total read depth of the variant. A large 631 chromosomal region with heterozygous allele frequency lower than 0.5 indicated 632 either the chromosome region with low recombination rate or deletion of the chromosome fragments. To determine CNVs between samples, we used the 633 634 cn.mops pipeline (Klambauer et al., 2012) to analyze mapped Illumina reads. To 635 minimize the effects of repetitive sequence regions, we set the segment size to 636 3,000 bp and minimum number of segments as 10 to identify high confidence CNVs.

637

#### 638 Quantitative real-time PCR (RT-qPCR)

Expression of four genes was analysed using real-time PCR. These genes were: *SpSGS3, SpARF3, SpARF4,* and *SpRDR6.* Transcripts of all four genes were profiled with three biological replications and each with at least three technical replications using the RNA samples of regenerants. RT-qPCR was carried out in 96well optical reaction plates using the iQ<sup>™</sup> SYBR<sup>®</sup> Green Supermix (Bio-Rad). The reference gene Actin and gene-specific primers for the RT-qPCR are listed in Supplementary Table S8.

#### 646

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657

## 658 **Competing interests**

The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

662

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671

## 672 Author contributions

673 C-SL, Y-CL, JS, and M-CS conceived and designed the experiments. C-TH, and Y674 HY performed the CRISPR-Cas9 experiments. C-TH, Y-HY, Q-WC, J-JY, and F-HW

675 conducted the protoplast regeneration, cell biology, molecular biology, and targeted 676 mutagenesis experiments. SL conducted SpCas9 purification. Y-LW performed WGS 677 library preparation and qPCR analysis. P-XZ and Y-CL performed bioinformatics 678 analysis. Y-HC, C-TH, C-SL, Q-WC, and F-HW performed virus-related analysis. C-679 TH performed cell biology. C-TH and S-IL performed grafting. JS, M-CS, Y-CL, and 680 C-SL wrote the manuscript with input from all co-authors. All authors read and 681 approved the final manuscript.

682

# 683 Data Availability Statement

- The Illumina sequencing reads generated for this study have been deposited at
- 685 NCBI under BioProject PRJNA768623.
- 686 (https://dataview.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/object/PRJNA768623?reviewer=m0ufmjvjdqsj9evn
- 687 f4ek6qtl8l)

# 689 Tables

690 Table 1. CRISPR-Cas9 target sites and mutagenesis efficiencies.

Reagent	Target Gene	Target Site		Mutation (%)
Plasmid	SpSGS3	ATTCCCCCCAGGATAAAAGC	GCGCAATTGAATGGTTTACA	8.3 (6/72)
		GTTCCTCCTGCTCTGAAGAA	GTAACAATGCTGGATCAGGC	
	SpRDR6	TTAAAGCTGGGACCATTGCG	TGCGAGGTCGAATTGAAACA	13.2 (5/38)
	SpPR-1	CCAGGAGAGAATCTTGCCAA	CTGAATTGTGGGTGGCGGAG	13.9 (10/72)
		GGGCTCGTTGCAACAACGGA	TCTTGCAACTATGATCCTGT	
		ACTATGATCCTGTAGGCAAT	GATCCTGTAGGCAATTGGGT	
		GTAGGCAATTGGGTCGGACA		
RNP	SpProSys	TCATGGTGAAGTTTCACCTT	GGAGGATCACGCTTTGATGG	45.8 (11/24)
	SpMIo1	GGTGTACCTGTGGTGGAGAC	GTACAAAGTTAATCAAGAAT	63.6 (14/22)

## 692 Figure legends

Figure 1. Flow cytometric analysis of the nuclear DNA contents of *S. peruvianum* tissues. The genome sizes of (a) leaves, (b) stems (c), and protoplasts derived from stems. X: fluorescence density; Y: count. Chicken erythrocyte nuclei (CEN: 2.5 Gb) were used as the calibration standard. The bar indicates the area used for counting nuclei. 2C: diploid; 4C: tetraploid. The number in brackets after the ploidy is the percentage of each different ploidy level versus the total counts.

700

701 Figure 2. Regeneration of S. peruvianum protoplasts. (a) Protoplasts 702 incubated in 1/2 Murashige and Skoog (MS) medium supplemented with 3% 703 sucrose, 0.4 M mannitol, 1 mg/L naphthaleneacetic acid (NAA), and 0.3 mg/L 704 kinetin, pH 5.7 liquid medium for 1 month. (b) Calli subcultured in 1/2 MS 705 medium supplemented with 3% sucrose, 0.4 M mannitol, 2 mg/L kinetin, and 706 0.3 mg/L Indole-3-acetic acid (IAA), pH 5.7 liquid medium in the light. (c) Calli 707 subcultured in 1/2 MS medium supplemented with 3% sucrose, 0.4 M 708 mannitol, 2 mg/L kinetin, pH 5.7, solid medium. (d) Shoot bud formation after 709 two subcultures in 2 mg/L kinetin solid medium. (e) Adventitious root 710 formation in plant growth regulator-free 1/2 MS solid medium supplemented 711 with 3% sucrose. (f) Regenerated plants after 1 month of growth in a pot. (g) 712 Regenerated plants grown in the field. (h) Flowers of a regenerated plant. (i) 713 Fruits of a regenerated plant. Throughout, bars = 1 cm.

714

Figure 3. Karyotypes of *S. peruvianum* plants regenerated from
protoplasts. Gray font: null mutant. Black font: heterozygous or wild-type.
Underline: 4*n*. Bars = 5 µm.

718

Figure 4. Stable genome structures in plants regenerated from stem
cutting and protoplasts. (a) Heterozygous allele frequency of WGS samples.
The heterozygous allele frequency was attained by dividing the read depth of
the heterozygous allele (labeled as 0/1 by GLnexus) by the total read depth of

723 the variant. Heterozygous frequency is plotted using 10-kb chromosome 724 window size on the X axis. A value of heterozygous allele frequency 0.5 725 indicates the frequency of the heterozygous genotype (0/1) from the 726 DeepVariant is 0.5, regardless the ploidy level. (b) Copy number variation 727 (CNV) of WGS samples. CNV was predicted as 3kb fragment size with 728 minimum 10 fragments. Predicted CNV is plotted using 30 bins per 729 chromosome on the X axis. Dot colors indicate the CNV density per bin. A 730 value of zero on the Y axis indicates no copy number change was detected. 731 Values above zero indicate copy number gain and below zero indicate copy 732 number loss.

733

Figure 5. Gene expression and phenotypic profiles of *S. peruvianum* sgs3 and rdr6 mutants. (a) RT-qPCR analysis of auxin response regulator genes (*SpSGS3*, *SpARF3*, *SpARF4* and *SpRDR6*) in the wild type and protoplast-derived regenerants. T<sub>0</sub>: regenerated plants derived from protoplasts. T<sub>1</sub>: seedlings derived from T<sub>0</sub> plants. (b) Phenotypes of *spsgs3* and *sprdr6* mutants. Bars = 1 cm.

740

Figure 6. Symptoms and TYLCV proliferation on *in vitro*-cultured *S. peruvianum* plants inoculated with the infectious TYLCV clone. (a) Diploid wild type and *spsgs3#11* mutant. (b) Tetraploid regenerated plant (#24) and *sprdr6#38-6* mutant. Gray: null mutant. Black: Un-edited tetraploid regenerated plant (#24) or the wild type. Underline: 4n. Bars = 1 cm.

746

Figure 7. Growth of a sterile *spsgs3 #11* plant grafted with wild-type stock. (a) Grafted plant. Gray: null mutant. Leaves (b), flowers (c), and fruit of spsgs3 #11 scion. Mature fruit (e) and seeds (f) of wild-type stock (left) and *spsgs3* #11 scion (right). (g) Results of Sanger sequencing of the seedling derived from *spsgs3* #11 scion fruit, which is heterozygous, harboring *spsgs3*#11 mutated alleles mixed with the wild-type allele. Bars = 1 cm.

753

## 754 Supplemental Figures

Figure S1. Effects of cytokinins on callus induction (1<sup>st</sup> subculture) and 755 callus proliferation (2<sup>nd</sup> subculture). The effects of cytokinins [kinetin, zeatin, 756 757 6-(v,v-Dimethylallylamino)purine (2ip), and 6-Benzylaminopurine (BA)] during 758 these two stages were investigated separately. Different cytokinins were added during callus induction [1<sup>st</sup> subculture, 1/2 Murashige and Skoog (MS) 759 medium supplemented with 3% sucrose, 0.4 M mannitol, pH 5.7 liquid 760 761 medium supplemented with 0.2 mg/L cytokinin and 1 mg/L NAA]. Kinetin yielded the fewest calli, and the three other cytokinins led to better callus 762 induction. During callus proliferation [2<sup>nd</sup> subculture, 1/2 MS medium 763 supplemented with 3% sucrose, 0.4 M mannitol, pH 5.7 liquid medium 764 765 supplemented with 2 mg/L cytokinin and 0.3 mg/L Indole-3-acetic acid (IAA)], 766 the addition of zeatin, 2ip, and BA caused the callus to grow and turn green. 767 Inclusion of 2ip during callus induction yielded the same number of cells as 768 the other cytokinin treatments, but the cell clusters were smaller and did not 769 grow easily when directly transferred to callus proliferation medium in the light. 770 Therefore, zeatin and BA are the best treatments for liquid culture. Bar = 1 cm.

771

Figure S2. Effects of cytokinins on callus in solid medium (3<sup>rd</sup> 772 **subculture).** Calli from media containing different cytokinins (2<sup>nd</sup> subculture) 773 774 were transferred to solid medium containing the same cytokinin (3<sup>rd</sup> 775 subculture). Cytokinin in the medium had a strong effect on callus growth 776 (Figure S4). Regardless of the callus induction medium used, browning of the callus occurred in solid medium supplemented with kinetin. Callus derived 777 778 from 2ip callus induction medium proliferated only in 2ip solid medium. BA 779 and zeatin had similar effects on callus growth, but calli on zeatin medium 780 showed more greening. We therefore identified zeatin as the most suitable 781 cytokinin for use in solid medium. Bar = 1 cm.

782

Figure S3. Flow cytometric analysis of the nuclear DNA contents of
 tetraploid plants regenerated from *SpProsys* RNP-transfected
 protoplasts. The number of regenerated plants is shown at the top left of

786 each panel. Gray font: null mutant. The genome sizes are shown at the top 787 right. The results are derived from three technical repeats. Unit: pg. Un-edited: 788 The SpProsys sequences are similar to the wild type. Chicken erythrocyte 789 nuclei (CEN: 2.5 Gb) were used as the calibration standard. The bar indicates 790 the area used to count nuclei. The genome sizes of all seven regenerants 791 were measured by flow cytometry, including two un-edited, three 792 heterozygous, and two biallelic plants that were tetraploid. Both tetraploid and 793 diploid regenerants (Table S7) derived from SpProSys RNP transfections 794 flowered normally, and no distinctive phenotype was observed. Bar = 1 cm.

795

Figure S4. Phenotypes of diploid and tetraploid plants regenerated from protoplasts transfected with CRISPR reagents. Underline: 4n. Bars = 1 cm. SpSGS3#10, SpSGS3#7 and SpRDR6#38 contained mutated alleles. (a) the fruits of diploid and tetraploids regenerated from transfected protoplasts. (b)  $T_1$  seeds of the heterozygous diploid (SpSGS3#10) and tetraploid (SpSGS3#7 and SpRDR6#38) mutants. (c) 1.5-month-old  $T_1$  seedling derived from  $T_0$  transfected protoplast regenerated plants.

803

804 Figure S5. Progeny analysis of SpSGS3. Underlined regenerated plant name: tetraploid. Red font: mutated nucleotide. Green/blue font: sequences 805 806 shown in the green/blue boxes in the Sanger sequencing results. WT: wild 807 type. M: mutant. WT:M: wild type/mutant ratio based on Sanger sequencing results. No.: number of progeny in this ratio. (a) SpSGS3#7 T<sub>1</sub> progeny 808 809 analysis. The allele sequences in the GTTCCTCCTGCTCTGAAGAA target 810 site are listed; 0–3 mutated alleles were identified. This regenerated plant was 811 shown to be allotetraploid. (b) The PCR product of the spsqs3#7-2 null mutant 812 was subjected to T/A cloning, and the clones were subjected to Sanger 813 sequencing (GCGCAATTGAATGGTTTACA target site and 814 ATTCCCCCCAGGATAAAAGC target site). Three types of mutated alleles were identified. (c) Analysis of diploid SpSGS3#10 T<sub>1</sub> progeny. 815

816

817 Figure S6. Progeny analysis of SpRDR6. Underlined regenerated plant 818 name: tetraploid. Red font: mutated nucleotides. Blue font: sequences shown 819 in blue boxes in the Sanger sequencing results. (a) SpRDR6#6-2 genotyping. 820 Top: allele sequences. Middle: The Sanger sequencing results indicate the 821 presence of multiple peaks after TTAAGCT. Bottom: The T/A cloning results 822 demonstrate that SpRDR6#6-2 contains a mutated allele (M) similar to 823 SpRDR6#6. (b) RT-PCR product of the sprdr6#33-G null mutant. The result 824 indicates that sprdr6#33-G is a homozygous null mutant. The mutated allele 825 can still generate a transcript. (c) Genotyping of the *sprdr6*#38-6 null mutant. 826 Top: The allele sequences of SpRDR6#38. Middle: Sanger sequencing 827 results of sprdr6#38-6 genomic DNA. Bottom: The M1 and M2 mutated alleles 828 identified by T/A cloning without wild-type alleles.

829

830 Figure S7. Progeny analysis of SpPR-1. Red font: mutated nucleotide(s). 831 Blue/green font: sequences shown in blue/green boxes in the Sanger 832 sequencing results. (a) Progeny analysis of *sppr-1*#52. Top: allele sequences. 833 Middle: Sanger sequencing results of different genotypes. Multiple peaks are 834 shown in heterozygous lines (M1M2, M1M3, M2M3). No.: number of progeny 835 of each genotype. Bottom: M3 sequence identified by T/A cloning. (b) 836 Progeny analysis of sppr-1#61. Top: allele sequences. Middle: SpPR-1 837 genomic PCR products of *sppr-1*#61 progeny. The genotypes of individual 838 progeny were determined based on DNA size and are shown below the image. 839 Sanger sequencing results for the LL and SS genotypes.

840

Figure S8. Illumina sequencing coverage for the tomato SL4.0 genome assembly. The Illumina PE reads were mapped by BWA and the sequencing depth was calculated in 10kb window size. Coverage is plotted using 30 bins per chromosome on the X axis. Black dashed line: median of the sequencing coverage of each chromosome.

846

Figure S9. Phenotypes of the *spsgs3* and *sprdr6* null mutants. Underlined
regenerated plant name: tetraploid. Wiry phenotypes of T<sub>0</sub> diploid *spsgs3* null

mutants #6 and #13. Bar = 1 cm. (b) Wiry phenotypes of  $T_1$  tetraploid spsgs3#7-2 and sprdr6#38-16. Bar = 1 cm. (c) Alexander staining of wild-type and spsgs3#11 pollen. Bar = 50 µm.

852

Figure S10. Symptoms and TYLCV proliferation on *in vitro*-cultured *S. peruvianum* plants inoculated with the infectious TYLCV clone. Gray: null
mutant. Underline: 4n. Bars = 1 cm. *SpRDR6*#2 and *SpSGS3*#24 were nonmutated protoplast regenerated plants. Line 1, 7: *SpRDR6*#2; 2, 8: *sprdr6*#386; 3, 9: Wild type; 4, 10: *spsgs3*#11; 5, 11: *SpSGS3*#24; 6, 12: *spsgs3*#7-2

858

859 **Supplemental Tables** 

860 Table S1. SpSGS3 gene sequences of the SpSGS3 mutants. Gray: null

861 mutant. Underline: 4*n*. Red font: mutated nucleotide(s). Number in brackets:

862 length of nucleotide sequence. -: deletion. +: insertion.

863

864 Table S2. SpRDR6 gene sequences of the SpRDR6 mutants. Underline:

865 4*n*. Red: mutated nucleotide(s). -: deletion. +: insertion.

866

867 Table S3. SpPR-1 gene sequences of the SpPR-1 mutants. Gray: null

868 mutant. Underline: 4n. Red: mutated nucleotide(s). Number in brackets:

869 length of nucleotide sequence. -: deletion. +: insertion.

870			
871	Table S4. SpProsys gene sequences of the SpProsys mutants. Gray: null		
872	mutant. Underline: 4n. Red: mutated nucleotide(s). Number in brackets:		
873	length of nucleotide sequence: deletion. +: insertion.		
874			
875	Table S5. SpMIo1 gene sequences of the SpMIo1 mutants. Gray: null		
876	mutant. Underline: 4n. Red: mutated nucleotide(s). Number in brackets:		
877	length of nucleotide sequence: deletion. +: insertion.		
878			
879	Table S6. Karyotypes of plants regenerated from protoplasts transfected		
880	with CRISPR reagents. WT: the target gene sequences are un-edited, like		
881	the wild type. *: the genome size was determined by flow cytometry.		
882			
883	Table S7. Overview of Illumina WGS sequencing, mapping rate and SRA		
884	number.		
885			
886	Table S8. Primers used in these studies.		
887			
888			
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Figure 1. Flow cytometric analysis of the nuclear DNA contents of *S. peruvianum* tissues.

The genome sizes of **(a)** leaves, **(b)** stems **(c)**, and protoplasts derived from stems. X: fluorescence density; Y: count. Chicken erythrocyte nuclei (CEN: 2.5 Gb) were used as the calibration standard. The bar indicates the area used for counting nuclei. 2C: diploid; 4C: tetraploid. The number in brackets after the ploidy is the percentage of each different ploidy level versus the total counts.



#### Figure 2. Regeneration of *S. peruvianum* protoplasts.

(a) Protoplasts incubated in 1/2 Murashige and Skoog (MS) medium supplemented with 3% sucrose, 0.4 M mannitol, 1 mg/L naphthaleneacetic acid (NAA), and 0.3 mg/L kinetin, pH 5.7 liquid medium for 1 month. (b) Calli subcultured in 1/2 MS medium supplemented with 3% sucrose, 0.4 M mannitol, 2 mg/L kinetin, and 0.3 mg/L Indole-3-acetic acid (IAA), pH 5.7 liquid medium in the light. (c) Calli subcultured in 1/2 MS medium supplemented with 3% sucrose, 0.4 M mannitol, 2 mg/L kinetin, pH 5.7, solid medium. (d) Shoot bud formation after two subcultures in 2 mg/L kinetin solid medium. (e) Adventitious root formation in plant growth regulator-free 1/2 MS solid medium supplemented with 3% sucrose. (f) Regenerated plants after 1 month of growth in a pot. (g) Regenerated plants grown in the field. (h) Flowers of a regenerated plant. (i) Fruits of a regenerated plant. Throughout, bars = 1 cm.



Figure 3. Karyotypes of *S. peruvianum* plants regenerated from protoplasts. Gray font: null mutant. Black font: heterozygous or wild-type. Underline: 4n. Bars = 5  $\mu$ m.



# Figure 4. Stable genome structures in plants regenerated from stem cutting and protoplasts.

(a) Heterozygous allele frequency of WGS samples. The heterozygous allele frequency was attained by dividing the read depth of the heterozygous allele (labeled as 0/1 by GLnexus) by the total read depth of the variant. Heterozygous frequency is plotted using 10-kb chromosome window size on the X axis. A value of heterozygous allele frequency 0.5 indicates the frequency of the heterozygous genotype (0/1) from the DeepVariant is 0.5, regardless the ploidy level. (b) Copy number variation (CNV) of WGS samples. CNV was predicted as 3kb fragment size with minimum 10 fragments. Predicted CNV is plotted using 30 bins per chromosome on the X axis. Dot colors indicate the CNV density per bin. A value of zero on the Y axis indicates no copy number change was detected. Values above zero indicate copy number gain and below zero indicate copy number loss.



# Figure 5. Gene expression and phenotypic profiles of *S. peruvianum sgs3* and *rdr6* mutants.

(a) RT-qPCR analysis of auxin response regulator genes (*SpSGS3, SpARF3, SpARF4* and *SpRDR6*) in the wild type and protoplast-derived regenerants. T0: regenerated plants derived from protoplasts. T1: seedlings derived from T0 plants. (b) Phenotypes of *spsgs3* and *sprdr6* mutants. Bars = 1 cm.



# Figure 6. Symptoms and TYLCV proliferation on *in vitro*-cultured *S. peruvianum* plants inoculated with the infectious TYLCV clone.

(a) Diploid wild type and *spsgs3#11* mutant. (b) Tetraploid regenerated plant (#24) and *sprdr6#38-6* mutant. Gray: null mutant. Black: Un-edited tetraploid regenerated plant (#24) or the wild type. Underline: 4n. Bars = 1 cm.



## Figure 7. Growth of a sterile *spsgs3 #11* plant grafted with wild-type stock.

(a) Grafted plant. Gray: null mutant. Leaves (b), flowers (c), and fruit of spsgs3#11 scion. Mature fruit (e) and seeds (f) of wild-type stock (left) and spsgs3#11 scion (right). (g) Results of Sanger sequencing of the seedling derived from spsgs3#11 scion fruit, which is heterozygous, harboring spsgs3#11 mutated alleles mixed with the wild-type allele. Bars = 1 cm.

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