# genetics

# A QTL for rice grain width and weight encodes a previously unknown RING-type E3 ubiquitin ligase

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Grain weight is one of the most important components of grain yield and is controlled by quantitative trait loci (QTLs) derived from natural variations in crops. However, the molecular roles of QTLs in the regulation of grain weight have not been fully elucidated. Here, we report the cloning and characterization of *GW2*, a new QTL that controls rice grain width and weight. Our data show that *GW2* encodes a previously unknown RING-type protein with E3 ubiquitin ligase activity, which is known to function in the degradation by the ubiquitin-proteasome pathway. Loss of GW2 function increased cell numbers, resulting in a larger (wider) spikelet hull, and it accelerated the grain milk filling rate, resulting in enhanced grain width, weight and yield. Our results suggest that *GW2* negatively regulates cell division by targeting its substrate(s) to proteasomes for regulated proteolysis. The functional characterization of *GW2* provides insight into the mechanism of seed development and is a potential tool for improving grain yield in crops.

Given the rapid increase in world population, the next century may witness serious global food shortage problems. Consequently, there is a need for an increase in crop grain yield. Many important complex traits in crops, including yield and stress tolerance, are controlled by QTLs derived from natural variations<sup>1,2</sup>. Recent studies have succeeded in isolating and characterizing genes involved in QTLs using map-based cloning techniques<sup>3–10</sup>.

Rice (Oryza sativa L.), a staple food, is the world's most important cereal crop. Grain weight, number of grains per panicle and number of panicles per plant are the most important components of grain yield. However, thus far, only one QTL for yield in rice has been cloned and functionally characterized: Gn1a, a QTL for number of grains per panicle9. Grain weight is usually represented by 1,000grain weight in breeding applications and is determined by grain width, length and thickness<sup>11,12</sup>. Many QTLs for rice grain weight have been mapped in the last decade13-20. One of them, GS3, a major QTL for grain length and weight and also a minor QTL for grain width and thickness in rice, has been mapped on chromosome 3, and the candidate gene underlying this QTL has been identified<sup>18</sup>, although functional analysis has not yet been reported. In the current study, we cloned and characterized a gene underlying a major QTL for rice grain width and weight, elucidating the molecular mechanisms that regulate grain weight and providing critical information for breeding high-yield crops through genetic engineering.

# RESULTS

#### Map-based cloning of the GW2 QTL

We chose parental varieties that showed highly significant differences in grain size to more easily identify the QTL. We crossed a Japonica variety, WY3, with a very large grain (1,000-grain weight, 41.9 g  $\pm$ 1.3 g) and a high-quality elite indica variety, Fengaizhan-1 (FAZ1), with a small grain (1,000-grain weight,  $17.9 \pm 0.7$  g) (Fig. 1a) to produce an F<sub>2</sub> population. Using the F<sub>2</sub> population, we mapped several QTLs for grain weight or size, including width, length, thickness and 1,000-grain weight (X.J. Song and H.-X.L., unpublished data). In particular, we mapped a major QTL for grain width, GW2, on chromosome 2 (Fig. 1b), with the WY3 allele at GW2 contributing to increased grain width. Previous studies have mapped two QTLs for grain width near the GW2 region on the short arm of chromosome 2 (refs. 19,20), suggesting they may be the same QTL and that the GW2 locus may contribute to increased grain width in the various rice varieties. Consequently, we selected GW2 as the target for map-based cloning.

We performed fine mapping using a  $BC_2F_2$  population and mapped *GW2* between the markers W236 and W239 (**Fig. 1b**). We carried out further high-resolution mapping of *GW2* using 6,013  $BC_3F_2$  plants and newly developed markers between W236 and W239 (**Fig. 1c**). We localized *GW2* to a high-resolution linkage map by progeny testing of homozygous recombinant plants ( $BC_3F_4$ ; **Fig. 1d**) and narrowed the *GW2* locus to an 8.2-kb region between markers W024 and W004

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(Fig. 1d). In this region, we identified only one predicted ORF considered a viable candidate for *GW2*.

#### GW2 sequence analysis and natural variation

Through genomic and cDNA sequence comparison of the parent FAZ1 allele of GW2, we identified eight exons and seven introns (Fig. 2a). The FAZ1 GW2 allele was predicted to encode a 425-residue polypeptide of  $\sim$  47 kDa. Comparison of the nucleotide sequences of the FAZ1 and WY3 alleles of GW2 uncovered three nucleotide changes, including two nucleotide substitutions in exons 1 and 8 that did not result in any amino acid variations and a 1-bp deletion resulting in a premature stop codon in exon 4 of the WY3 allele (Fig. 2a). The premature stop codon led to truncation of 310 amino acid residues; the remaining portion of the protein consisted of a 115-residue polypeptide of  $\sim$ 13 kDa. This predicted result was confirmed by SDS-PAGE of histidine-tagged GW2 proteins encoded by the FAZ1 and WY3 alleles (Fig. 2b). We also analyzed the nucleotide sequence of GW2 from Oochikara, another rice variety that has a wider grain width, similar to WY3 (Supplementary Fig. 1 online), and we found a sequence identical to the WY3 allele (Fig. 2a). These data indicate that reduction or loss of function of GW2 results in increased grain width.

We used rice transformation to produce transgenic plants expressing different levels of *GW2*. Because FAZ1 and WY3 were unable to regenerate shoots from the callus, we chose the easily regenerable **Figure 1** Map-based cloning of *GW2*. (a) Grain phenotypes of parents (FAZ1 and WY3). Scale bar, 3 mm. (b) Location of *GW2* on rice chromosome 2 in 190 BC<sub>2</sub>F<sub>2</sub> plants in which a small region (filled bar) is segregating. (c) High-resolution linkage map of the *GW2* region produced with 6,013 BC<sub>3</sub>F<sub>2</sub> plants. The number of recombinants between the adjacent markers is indicated above the linkage map. Filled bar shows a part of the PAC clone AP005004. (d) Progeny testing of fixed recombinant plants (BC<sub>3</sub>F<sub>4</sub>) narrowed the *GW2* locus to the region between markers W024 and W004. Grain widths (mean  $\pm$  s.d.; n = 12 plants) of three recombinant lines (R1–R3) and control 1 (C1; homozygous for WY3 in the target region) were higher than those of the two recombinant lines (R4 and R5), control 2 (C2; homozygous for FAZ1 in the target region) and FAZ1. Filled and open bars represent homozygous chromosomal segments for WY3 and FAZ1, respectively.

Japonica variety Zhonghua 11, which has a small grain, for the transformation<sup>8</sup>. We generated 35S:: GW2 antisense lines expressing GW2 cDNA (from FAZ1) in the antisense direction, as GW2 cDNA (the entire ORF) did not show any significant sequence homology with any other sequences in the rice genome. The transgenic plants with antisense strands of GW2 and with reduced levels of endogenous expression had a significantly wider grain width than plants containing the vector control (**Fig. 2c,d** and **Supplementary Fig. 2** online). However, we observed reduced grain width in transgenic plants overexpressing GW2 cDNA under the control of the 35S promoter, which produced high levels of expression (**Fig. 2c,d** and **Supplementary Fig. 2**). These data suggested that the cDNA from the FAZ1 allele represented the coding region of the GW2 QTL for grain width.

#### GW2 encodes a RING protein with E3 ubiquitin ligase activity

A search of the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) database and the Institute for Genomic Research (TIGR) Gene Indices database identified one GW2 homolog in Zea mays, two in Triticum aestivum, three in Arabidopsis thaliana, six in yeast or fungi and one in human, which were all annotated as proteins of unknown function (Fig. 2e); we did not find GW2 homologs in rice. Whereas the homologous genes in Zea mays and Triticum aestivum (TC257250) had high amino acid sequence identities with GW2 (81% and 86.5%, respectively), the one in Triticum aestivum (TC254212) had only a 43.5% amino acid sequence identity with GW2. Homologous genes in A. thaliana showed a 39%-45% amino acid sequence identity with GW2, and the remaining seven homologous genes in other species had only 11%-25% amino acid sequence identity. None of the homologous genes has been functionally characterized. An analysis of the conserved domain demonstrated that GW2 might share homology with the consensus sequence of the RING-type protein (Fig. 2e). The cysteine-rich RING motif was first identified in a protein encoded by the gene Really Interesting New Gene (hence the motif name)<sup>21</sup>. RINGtype proteins are widely present in animals, plants, yeast, fungi and viruses and are predicted to contain a large diversity of RING domains<sup>22-24</sup>. To date, seven types of RING domain have been identified in A. thaliana, including two canonical RING types, RING-HC (C3HC4) and RING-H2 (C3H2C3), and five modified RING domain types, RING-v, RING-C2, RING-D, RING-S/T and RING-G<sup>24-27</sup>. Notably, the GW2 RING-like domain did not correspond to any of the previously described RING domains and is characterized by a cysteine residue at metal ligand position 5 and a histidine residue at metal ligand position 6 (C5HC2) (Fig. 2e), rather than the configuration found in the RING-v domain (C4HC3). This feature was also identified in the RING domain of maize, wheat, yeast and fungal homologs (Fig. 2e), indicating that GW2 probably represents a new type of RING domain protein in plants. Although



proteins were detected by protein blot analysis using an antibody to ubiquitin (g) E3 ubiquitin ligase activity of WY3 GW2 (lane 1).

RING-like domains of a homologous gene in *Triticum aestivum* (TC254212) and three homologous genes in *A. thaliana* encode proteins that share high amino acid sequence identity with GW2, they might not be considered RING domain proteins, as they lacked one metal ligand amino acid (a histidine residue). Similarly, the RING-like domain of the human homolog, which lacks the same amino acid, also cannot be categorized as a RING domain.

Several studies have reported that RING-type proteins function as E3 ubiquitin ligases in *vitro*, targeting proteins for degradation<sup>24,28–31</sup>. We expressed affinity-purified GW2 protein as a fusion with a six-histidine tag (HIS-GW2) in *Escherichia coli* to investigate whether GW2 also had E3 activity (**Fig. 2f**). *A. thaliana* E3 ubiquitin ligase constitutive photomorphogenic 1 (COP1) was used as a positive control<sup>31</sup>. In the presence of ubiquitin, E1 and E2 (UbcH5b), HIS-GW2 (from FAZ1) or maltose-binding protein (MBP)-COP1 could carry out self-ubiquitination, whereas in the absence of any of the E1, E2 or E3 enzymes, we did not detect any clear protein ubiquitination (**Fig. 2f**). These results demonstrate that GW2 possesses intrinsic E3 ligase activity. Although the WY3 GW2 protein was truncated by 310 amino acids, it possessed an intact RING domain (**Fig. 2g**).

#### Subcellular localization and tissue localization of GW2

To investigate the subcellular localization of GW2, we constructed a green fluorescent protein (GFP)-GW2 fusion whose expression was driven by the CaMV 35S promoter. Transient expression in onion epidermal cells showed that GFP-GW2 localized to the cytoplasm (**Fig. 3a**). We examined temporal and spatial expression patterns of

GW2 by RT-PCR and by analysis of transgenic rice plants expressing the GW2 promoter–GFP transgene. RT-PCR data in both FAZ1 and NIL(GW2) showed that GW2 mRNA was expressed constitutively in shoots and roots of seedlings, inflorescent meristems, young flowers, leaves and spikelet hulls and endosperms 4 d after fertilization (**Fig. 3b**). We did not observe any differences in GW2 expression between FAZ1 and NIL(GW2), suggesting that the sequence change in the coding region accounted for the functional variation in the two alleles (FAZ1 and WY3). The GW2 promoter–GFP expression analysis showed that GFP was strongly expressed in roots (**Fig. 3c**), leaves (**Fig. 3d**) and floral organs including stamens, pistils and hulls (**Fig. 3e**). Thus, our GW2 transcript and GW2 promoter-GFP expression analysis demonstrates that GW2 is expressed constitutively in various tissues and organs.

## GW2 increases grain width and weight and affects other traits

To investigate the effects of GW2 on the rice grain, we bred a nearly isogenic line, NIL(GW2), on the FAZ1 genetic background, containing a very small GW2 region (1.4 cM, **Fig. 1b**) between markers W236 and W005 from WY3. We observed a substantial increase in grain width (+26.2%) in NIL(GW2) but only a slight increase grain thickness (+10.5%) and grain length (+6.6%) (**Fig. 4a,b**) compared with the FAZ1 isogenic control. We also observed a significant increase (+49.8%) in 1,000-grain weight in NIL(GW2) (**Fig. 4b**). These results indicated that the increase grain weight in NIL(GW2) was primarily due to increased grain width, followed by grain thickness and length. The data indicated that the GW2 allele from WY3 with the natural mutation predominantly increases grain width and weight but increases grain thickness and length only slightly.

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**Figure 3** Cellular properties and expression pattern of *GW2*. (a) *GW2* was localized to the cytoplasm. The DAPI was used to stain the nucleus of onion epidermal cells. Left: three-dimensional reconstruction of individual image stacks. Right: three-dimensional image rotated  $60^{\circ}$  along its *y*-axis. Scale bar, 100 µm. (b) Expression of *GW2* analyzed using RT-PCR in various organs. F, FAZ1; N, NIL(*GW2*). Actin was used as a control. (c–e) *GW2* promoter–GFP expression pattern in transgenic rice plants. Left, empty vector plants; right, *GW2* promoter–GFP plants. There was strong GFP expression in roots (c), leaves (d) and floral organs, including stamens, pistils and hulls (e). s, stamen; p, pistil; h, hull. Scale bars: 300 µm (c), 100 µm (d) and 500 µm (e).

To test whether *GW2* affects grain yield, we compared the grain yields of FAZ1 and NIL(*GW2*). We found that the grain yield per plant of NIL(*GW2*) increased by 19.7% (P < 0.05), although the number of grains per main panicle was 29.9% lower in NIL(*GW2*) than in FAZ1 (**Fig. 4c**). Additionally, the plant type of NIL(*GW2*) was similar to

FAZ1, an elite variety (**Fig. 4c**). Although the grain yield per plant measured in plants grown in paddies under normal cultivation conditions (25 plants) showed that NIL(GW2) has the potential to increase grain yield, we still need to carefully evaluate the potential of NIL(GW2) for higher grain yield in plots with randomized blocks in



**Figure 4** Phenotypic characterization of grains in FAZ1 and NIL(*GW2*). (a) Grains (left) and brown rice grains (right) of FAZ1 and NIL(*GW2*). Scale bar, 3 mm. (b) Comparisons of grain width, thickness, length and 1,000-grain weight in FAZ1 and NIL(*GW2*) (n = 25 plants). (c) Comparison of grain yield per plant, grain number per main panicle and plant type in FAZ1 and NIL(*GW2*) plants (n = 25 plants). Scale bar, 1 m. (d) Spikelets and comparison of spikelet hull width and length in FAZ1 and NIL(*GW2*) just before heading (n = 12 plants). All phenotypic data were measured from the plants, which were grown with a distance of  $15 \times 15$  cm in paddies under normal cultivation conditions. Scale bar, 3 mm. All data are given as mean ± s.d. A Student's *t*-test was used to generate the *P* values in **b**-d.



between the dorsal side and the central point of the endosperm cross-section. Scale bar, 500  $\mu$ m. (e) Comparison of total area, cell number and mean cell area in the endosperm cross-section of FAZ1 and NIL(*GW2*) (n = 10 endosperms). All data are given as mean  $\pm$  s.d. A Student's *t*-test was used to generate the *P* values in **c** and **e**.

paddies. Nevertheless, our present results indicate that *GW2* is a useful locus for high-yield crop breeding.

Full rice grains are formed by milk filling the spikelet hull. Therefore, we measured the width and the length of the spikelet hull just before heading. The spikelet hull of NIL(GW2) was markedly wider (23.4%) than the that of FAZ1 (**Fig. 4d**). However, the length of the spikelet hull in NIL(GW2) was only 6.7% longer than in FAZ1. These results demonstrated that the increase in the width of the spikelet hull produced by the WY3 allele at GW2 resulted in rice grains of greater width and weight.

Because GW2 is expressed constitutively in various tissues or organs, we examined other traits in FAZ1 and NIL(GW2) to test whether GW2 has pleiotropic effects (Supplementary Fig. 3 online). Plant height and flag leaf width did not differ between FAZ1 and NIL(GW2). However, we observed increases in panicle number per plant and days to heading in NIL(GW2) compared with FAZ1. We observed a decrease in main panicle length in NIL(GW2). These results indicated that GW2 has pleiotropic effects, at least on the panicle number per plant, days to heading and main panicle length, in addition to on the grain numbers per main panicle (Fig. 4c). The presence of these pleiotropic effects implies that GW2 may be involved in the development of other tissues or organs, beyond its influence on grain size. The A. thaliana E3 ubiquitin ligase COP1, which has a RING-type domain (C3HC4), also has pleiotropic effects (the cop1 mutant has a pleiotropic phenotype), suggesting that COP1 may function in all photoreceptor signaling pathways<sup>32,33</sup>.

A genetic analysis of *A. thaliana* seed mass has demonstrated that both maternal and nonmaternal QTLs affect seed mass, implicating both maternal and zygotic genomes in processes that determine seed size<sup>34</sup>. To test whether *GW2* acts maternally or zygotically, we compared grain width, thickness, length and weight in reciprocal crosses between FAZ1 and NIL(*GW2*) (**Supplementary Fig. 4** online). These traits did not differ between the reciprocal crosses FAZ1/NIL(*GW2*) and NIL(*GW2*)/FAZ1, suggesting that *GW2* acts nonmaternally on grain (seed) size. Similarly, there is no maternal effect on seed size in *A. thaliana iku* class mutants<sup>35</sup>.

# GW2 increases number of cells and milk filling rate

Given that the NIL(*GW2*) spikelet hull was wider than that of FAZ1 before fertilization, we compared cross-sections of the central part of the spikelet hull in NIL(*GW2*) and FAZ1 to investigate the origins of the observed size differences (**Fig. 5a,b**). The outer parenchyma cell layer of NIL(*GW2*) was longer (by 29.6%) and contained substantially more cells (22.4% more) than that of FAZ1 (**Fig. 5c**), with only a 5.8% increase in cell length (**Fig. 5c**). These data demonstrate that the increased width of the NIL(*GW2*) spikelet hull results mainly from an increase in cell number, but not in cell size, suggesting that *GW2* may be involved in regulation of cell division.

We compared cross-sections of mature grains from NIL(GW2) and FAZ1 (**Fig. 5d,e**) to investigate differences in endosperm cells. Although endosperm cells of NIL(GW2) were larger than those of FAZ1, there was no significant difference in endosperm cell number, suggesting that the increase in NIL(GW2) endosperm size (**Fig. 4a**) resulted mainly from cell expansion, not from an increase in cell number.

Because NIL(GW2) has a larger endosperm and a heavier grain, we investigated the grain milk filling rate in NIL(GW2) and FAZ1. There



**Figure 6** Characterization of grain milk filling in FAZ1 and NIL(*GW2*) and proposed model for the role of GW2. (a) Time-course of endosperm fresh weight increase. (b) Time-course of endosperm dry weight increase. Data are mean  $\pm$  s.d. (n = -10 to -15 plants) in a and b. (c) Proposed model for the role of GW2 in regulation of grain width (size) and weight. GW2 recruits the targeted substrate for degradation, thereby inhibiting cell division, and then influences spikelet hull size, subsequently indirectly influencing milk filling rate, endosperm cell size, endosperm size and, ultimately, grain size (width, weight and yield).

were no differences in either endosperm fresh weight or dry weight 3 d after fertilization (**Fig. 6a,b** and **Supplementary Fig. 5** online). On day 6 after fertilization, NIL(GW2) endosperm fresh weight was slightly higher than that of FAZ1, although there was no difference in dry weight. NIL(GW2) endosperm fresh weight and dry weight were significantly higher than FAZ1 starting 11 d after fertilization, with those differences almost reaching a maximum 17 d after fertilization. NIL(GW2) increased endosperm fresh weight and dry weight by 47.8% and 49.7%, respectively, on day 17 after fertilization. These results indicated that the larger endosperm (or the larger cell size of endosperm) and heavier grain in NIL(GW2) resulted from a faster rate of accumulation of dry matter, suggesting that the WY3 allele of GW2 may increase the rate of dry matter accumulation.

Because increased grain size may have a negative effect on rice grain quality<sup>36</sup>, we observed the six grain quality traits in NIL(GW2) and FAZ1 to test whether the WY3 GW2 allele, which results in a large grain size, also influences grain quality. A grain's cooking and eating quality traits are determined mainly by amylose content and gel consistency<sup>37</sup>. Amylose content and gel consistency did not differ between NIL(GW2) and FAZ1 (Supplementary Fig. 6 online), indicating that the WY3-GW2 allele does not influence the grain's cooking and eating quality traits. There were significant but small difference in milling quality traits, brown rice percentage and milled rice percentage between FAZ1 and NIL(GW2) (Supplementary Fig. 6). However, an appearance quality trait, chalky rice grain percentage in NIL(GW2), was significantly increased, whereas head milled grain appearance in NIL(GW2) was not as poor as in FAZ1 (Supplementary Fig. 6). On the other hand, protein content, a nutritional quality trait, did not differ between NIL(GW2) and FAZ1 (Supplementary Fig. 6). These results suggest that the WY3 GW2 allele could increase grain size and yield with little influence on appearance and no reduction in cooking or eating quality and thus could be useful in breeding. Whether this is associated with an accelerated milk filling rate mediated by the WY3 GW2 allele remains to be determined in future studies.

### DISCUSSION

In the current study, we have successfully cloned a QTL, GW2, that increases grain size and yield in rice. Our data show that GW2 is a new RING-type protein with intrinsic E3 ubiquitin ligase activity (Fig. 2e,f) that localizes to the cytoplasm and is constitutively expressed in various tissues (Fig. 3). Reduced expression of GW2 increases grain size (mainly grain width), resulting in enhanced grain weight, whereas overexpression decreases grain size and weight (Fig. 2c,d). The naturally occurring WY3 allele of GW2, which encodes a truncated version of the protein with a 310-amino acid deletion (Fig. 2a,b), increases the number of cells of the spikelet hull, resulting in a wider spikelet hull (Fig. 5a-c), and subsequently accelerates the grain milk filling rate (Fig. 6a,b), resulting in increased grain width, weight and yield (Fig. 4a-c).

Many RING-type proteins function as E3 ubiquitin-protein ligases, targeting proteins for ubiquitin-dependent degradation by the 26S proteasome<sup>28–31,38,39</sup>. Such RING proteins are involved in the regulation of numerous cellular processes, including transcription,

signal transduction, recombination and cell cycle progression. A previous study has shown that the RING-type (C3H2C3) protein BIG BROTHER, which has E3 ligase activity, acts as a central negative regulator of *A. thaliana* floral organ size, most likely by marking cellular proteins for degradation<sup>39</sup>. In contrast, we found that GW2, a new RING-type protein, has E3 ubiquitin ligase activity and alters the number of cells in the spikelet hull, suggesting that GW2 E3 ligase functions as a regulator of cell division through ubiquitin-mediated proteolysis. However, the mechanism of cell cycle regulation mediated by GW2 remains to be elucidated.

In the majority of RING-type proteins, the N terminus contains the RING domain that binds E2, and the remainder contains other protein-protein interaction domains that may function as the substrate-binding domain of the E3 ligase<sup>24</sup>. For example, COP1 has both a RING-type domain in the N terminus and a WD-40 repeat domain in the C terminus that can bind several protein targets, including HY5, thereby recruiting an E2 and targeting HY5 and other substrates for ubiquitination and degradation by the proteasome<sup>40</sup>. In addition, the WY3 variant of GW2 has an intact RING domain, thereby retaining E3 ubiquitin ligase activity, but is truncated by 310 amino acids that might contain the substrate-binding domain. The absence of a substrate-binding domain suggests that WY3 GW2 is a null allele. The coincidence of the GW2 null allele and the increased number of cells in the spikelet hull suggest that WY3 GW2 protein does not interact with the substrate(s) involved in cell division and does not target them for ubiquitination and subsequent degradation. These data suggest that GW2 E3 ligase is a new negative regulator of cell division, targeting its substrate(s) to proteasomes for regulated proteolysis. We examined GW2 for the presence of other known domains but did not find any known domains in GW2. Identification and characterization of both the substrate-binding domain of GW2 and the GW2 target substrate will be challenging but worth pursuing. BRCA1, a well-known gene that encodes a breast- and ovarian-specific tumor suppressor protein with a RING domain (C3HC4), is expressed

in numerous tissues, including breast and  $\text{ovary}^{41}$ . Many subsequent studies have found that *BRCA1* not only has an E3 ubiquitin ligase function but also has a transcriptional activation function<sup>42</sup>. Such findings prompted us to speculate whether GW2 may also be involved in transcriptional regulation, aside from its E3 ubiquitin ligase function. Future studies will need to address this question.

The persistent endosperm forms the bulk of the mature seed in most monocots, including rice, maize and wheat. Consequently, the seed size and weight are attributable mainly to the extent of endosperm growth<sup>43,44</sup>. In the current study, we found that the *GW2* null allele (the naturally occurring WY3 allele) has a wider (larger) spikelet hull owing to increased numbers of cells. The larger spikelet hull allows greater endosperm growth and provides a greater area of contact for endosperm with the seed coat (**Supplementary Fig. 5** and ref. 45), leading to an accelerated milk filling rate (**Fig. 6a,b**) and ultimately to enhanced endosperm size, grain size and grain weight. Therefore, we suggest that the enhanced endosperm size might be an indirect effect of *GW2*. Based on our data, we hypothesize a model to explain the potential role of GW2 in the regulation of grain width (size), weight and yield, shown in **Figure 6c**.

Although a thorough understanding of seed development is important for the improvement of grain yield through genetic manipulation, little is known about the genetic mechanisms that determine final seed size and weight in plants. Thus, our findings provide an initial step toward dissecting the mechanism by which the ubiquitination system contributes to the regulation of seed development and seed yield in plants. As a key regulator of grain (seed) size, the *GW2* gene (and its homologs in other cereals such as maize and wheat) will facilitate breeding efforts to improve grain yield in staple crops.

#### METHODS

The molecular marker primers and primers for *GW2* molecular analysis are listed in **Supplementary Table 1** online.

**Plant materials.** A large-grain WY3 *japonica* variety was crossed with Fengaizhan-1 (FAZ1), an elite *indica* small-grain variety. The resultant  $F_1$  plants were selfed to produce  $F_2$  seeds and were backcrossed with FAZ1 plants as the recurrent to produce  $BC_1F_1$  seeds. We selected several plants in which the region around *GW2* was heterozygous, and almost all other regions were homozygous for FAZ1 so as to develop the segregating populations for fine mapping and high-resolution mapping of *GW2* by repetitive backcrossing and marker-assisted selection. From the  $BC_4F_2$  generation, we developed a nearly isogenic line for *GW2*, NIL(*GW2*), with a very small WY3 chromosomal region containing the *GW2* locus in the FAZ1 genetic background.

Fine mapping and high-resolution mapping. A BC<sub>2</sub>F<sub>2</sub> population was used for fine mapping of *GW2*, based on rough mapping of the F<sub>2</sub> population. To perform *GW2* QTL analysis, we used the grain width measured in 190 BC<sub>2</sub>F<sub>2</sub> plants and 11 molecular markers in a target region containing *GW2*, as described previously<sup>46</sup>. Molecular markers W236 and W239, which flank *GW2*, were used to detect recombinants in 6,013 BC<sub>3</sub>F<sub>2</sub> plants. To further determine the location of the recombinations nearest to *GW2*, we developed markers on the basis of the sequence of the bacteriophage P1–derived artificial chromosome (PAC) clone AP005004 and determined genotypes of the recombinants with these markers. The BC<sub>3</sub>F<sub>3</sub> progeny derived from recombinant plants were used to screen for homozygous recombination products. We used fixed recombinant plants (BC<sub>3</sub>F<sub>4</sub>) to measure the grain width and determine the *GW2* genotypes. The candidate *GW2* genes from FAZ1 and WY3 genomic DNA were sequenced and compared.

**RNA extraction, cDNA isolation and RT-PCR.** Total RNA was extracted from various plant tissues in FAZ1 and NIL(*GW2*) and was converted into first-strand cDNA. The full-length *GW2* cDNA (1,634 bp) was amplified from the first-strand cDNA and sequenced. RT-PCR was carried out to amplify the *GW2* 

transcripts with 30 PCR cycles, using the first-strand cDNA as a template. Actin was also amplified as the control.

**Transgenic analysis.** We overexpressed *GW2* using a full-length *GW2* cDNA from FAZ1 that was inserted into the plant binary vector pHB<sup>47</sup>, in which transgene expression was under the control of the CaMV 35S promoter. We performed antisense expression of *GW2* using an antisense fragment of the entire *GW2* coding region (1,278 bp) from FAZ1 that was inserted into the binary vector pHB. Both constructs were introduced into *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* strain EHA105 and transferred into a *japonica* variety, Zhonghua 11, as reported previously<sup>48</sup>. The empty pHB vector was also transformed into Zhonghua 11 as a control.

**E3 ubiquitin ligase activity assay.** We cloned cDNA encoding *GW2* from FAZ1 or WY3 into pET32a (+) (Novagen) and prepared the fusion protein following the manufacturer's protocol. Assays for *in vitro* ubiquitination were carried out as described previously<sup>49</sup>, with slight modifications. In brief, 0.25 µg E1, 0.2 µg E2, 5 µg of ubiquitin (Ub) and 0.5 µg purified FAZ1 GW2, purified WY3 GW2 or purified COP1 fusion protein were incubated in a 30-µl reaction mix containing 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.4), 2.5 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 6.6 mM ATP and 0.5 mM DTT (incubated at 30 °C for 5 h). The reaction was stopped with 1× SDS-PAGE loading buffer (100 °C, 5 min). Samples (15 µl) were analyzed by SDS-PAGE. Polyubiquitinated proteins were detected by protein blotting using an antibody to ubiquitin. Human E1 and E2 (UbcH5b) were purchased from Merck.

Subcellular localization and tissue localization. To investigate the cellular localization of *GW2*, a 35S *GFP-GW2* (from FAZ1) fusion construct was bombarded into onion epidermal cells using a helium biolistic device (Bio-Rad PDS-1000). Onion epidermal cell nuclei were stained with 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI, 5 µg ml<sup>-1</sup> in PBS). We amplified a 1.5-kb *GW2* promoter region upstream of the ATG start codon from FAZ1 genomic DNA by PCR to make the *GW2* promoter-GFP fusion construct (the binary vector pHB) and generated transgenic plants carrying this construct as described above. Samples were examined with a Zeiss LSM510 confocal laser microscope.

Sample preparation and microscopy. Plant materials were fixed in FAA (50% ethanol, 5% glacial acetic acid and 5% formaldehyde) for 16 h, dehydrated in an ethanol series, and embedded in Paraplast (Sigma). Tissue sections (8  $\mu$ m thick) were cut with a rotary microtome, mounted and stained with safranine T and fast green. Endosperms were embedded in Epon812 resin, and sections (2  $\mu$ m) were stained with toluidine blue. Sections were photographed under an Olympus BX51 with a DP70 CCD camera.

Accession codes. GenBank: GW2, EF447275.

Note: Supplementary information is available on the Nature Genetics website.

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#### AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

H.-X.L. designed the experiments. X.J.S. and W.H. performed most of the experiments. H.-X.L., S.M. and M.Z.Z. performed some of the experiments. H.-X.L. wrote the manuscript.

#### COMPETING INTERESTS STATEMENT

The authors declare no competing financial interests.

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