

PROF. MEI ZHANG (Orcid ID : 0000-0001-9803-0205)

PROF. BLAKE MEYERS (Orcid ID : 0000-0003-3436-6097)

PROF. NATHAN SPRINGER (Orcid ID : 0000-0002-7301-4759)

Article type : MS - Regular Manuscript

CHH DNA methylation increases at 24-*PHAS* loci depend on 24-nt phasiRNAs in maize meiotic anthers

Mei Zhang^{1,†}, Xuxu Ma^{1,†}, Chunyu Wang^{1,2}, Qing Li³, Blake C. Meyers^{4,5}, Nathan M. Springer³, Virginia Walbot^{6,†}

¹ Key Laboratory of Plant Molecular Physiology, -Institute of Botany, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Nanxincun 20, Fragrant Hill, Beijing 100093, China.

University of Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing 100049, China.

³ Department of Plant and Microbial Biology, University of Minnesota, St. Paul, MN 55108, USA.

Donald Danforth Plant Science Center, St Louis, MO 63132, USA.

University of Missouri-Columbia, Division of Plant Sciences, 52 Agriculture Lab,

Columbia, MO 65211, USA.

This article has been accepted for publication and undergone full peer review but has not been through the copyediting, typesetting, pagination and proofreading process, which may lead to differences between this version and the <u>Version of Record</u>. Please cite this article as <u>doi:</u> 10.1111/nph.17060

⁶ Department of Biology, Stanford University, Stanford, CA 94305 USA. [†]These authors contributed equally to this work. Author for correspondence: Mei Zhang Tel: +86(10) 6283-6251 Email: mei.zhang@ibcas.ac.cn Received: 7 July 2020 Accepted: 14 October 2020 Accepte

ORCID

Mei Zhang	http://orcid.org/0000-0001-9803-0205
Xuxu Ma	https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3206-8187
Chunyu Wang	https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7104-3874
Blake C. Meyers	http://orcid.org/0000-0003-3436-6097
Nathan M. Springer	http://orcid.org/0000-0002-7301-4759

1 Summary

2

3

4

5

6

7

8

16

17

18

Plant phasiRNAs contribute to robust male fertility, however, specific functions remain undefined. In maize (*Zea mays*), *male sterile23 (ms23)*, necessary for both 24-nt phasiRNA precursor (24-PHAS) loci and *Dicer-like5 (Dcl5)* expression, and *dcl5-1* mutants unable to slice *PHAS* transcripts, lack nearly all 24-nt phasiRNAs.

• Based on sequence capture bisulfite-sequencing, we find that CHH DNA methylation of most 24-*PHAS* loci is increased in meiotic anthers of control plants but not in the *ms23* and *dcl5* mutants.

- 9 Because *dcl5-1* anthers express *PHAS* precursors, we conclude that the 24-nt
 phasiRNAs, rather than just activation of *PHAS* transcription, are required for
 targeting increased CHH methylation at these loci.
- Although *PHAS* precursors are processed into multiple 24-nt phasiRNA products,
 there is substantial differential product accumulation. Abundant 24-nt phasiRNA
 positions corresponded to high CHH methylation within individual loci, reinforcing
 the conclusion that 24-nt phasiRNAs contribute to increased CHH methylation in *cis*.

Key words: phasiRNA, DNA methylation, *Dcl5*, *Ms23*, *Zea mays* (maize)

20 Introduction

21 In flowering plants, small RNAs (sRNAs) are key regulators during reproduction in both 22 the sporophyte and gametophyte (Borges & Martienssen, 2015). Reproductive phasiRNAs were first described in male reproductive organs of maize and rice (Johnson et al., 2009; 23 24 Song et al., 2012a; Zhai et al., 2015; Fei et al., 2016) and are now known in diverse monocots and eudicots (Kakrana et al., 2018; Xia et al., 2019). Reproductive phasiRNAs 25 26 exist in two size classes with discrete spatiotemporal regulation in anthers: the "premeiotic" 21-nt phasiRNAs are preferentially expressed during the cell fate specification and 27 28 proliferation period, while the "meiotic" 24-nt phasiRNAs begin to be synthesized at the onset of meiosis and accumulate to high levels during meiosis I (Zhai et al., 2015). The 29 30 24-nt reproductive phasiRNAs are broadly present in angiosperms, and they may have originated with the evolutionary emergence of anthers (Xia et al., 2015; Shuai et al., 2016; 31 Kakrana et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2018; Yu et al., 2018; Xia et al., 2019). 32

The exact functions of phasiRNAs in anthers are unknown, but they play critical roles 33 in male reproduction. For example, a mutation in long non-coding RNA PMS1T, a PHAS 34 precursor yielding 21-nt phasiRNAs, is responsible for the agronomically important, 35 36 photoperiod-sensitive male sterility used in hybrid rice production (Fan et al., 2016). In maize, dcl5-1 mutants, which are deficient in 24-nt phasiRNAs, exhibit conditional male 37 38 fertility, with the main defect in tapetal cell differentiation during meiosis (Teng et al., 39 2020). Quantification of PHAS precursor transcripts and phasiRNA abundance in several maize male sterile mutants, demonstrated that production of 21-nt phasiRNAs requires 40 normal epidermal development, while 24-nt phasiRNAs require normally developed 41 tapetal cells (Zhai et al., 2015). In rice, tapetal cell differentiation during meiosis is also 42 43 required for 24-nt phasiRNA biogenesis (Ono et al., 2018). A fascinating aspect of male 44 reproductive phasiRNAs is the parallel with mammalian PIWI-associated RNAs (piRNAs). Like phasiRNAs, there are two size classes, the shorter class accumulating prior to meiosis 45 and the longer class occurring during meiosis (Girard et al., 2006; Grivna et al., 2006; 46 47 Vagin et al., 2006; Fu & Wang, 2014). Furthermore, like phasiRNAs, piRNAs are required for spermatogenesis (Fu & Wang, 2014), and are partly generated in a phased 48

49 pattern (Han *et al.*, 2015; Mohn *et al.*, 2015).

The current understanding of phasiRNA biogenesis is that the precursors are long, 50 51 non-coding RNAs transcribed by DNA-DEPENDENT RNA POLYMERASE II (Pol II) from several hundred PHAS loci. The production of 21- and 24-nt phasiRNAs is initiated 52 53 by 22-nt miR2118 or miR2275, directing the cleavage of 21- or 24-PHAS primary transcripts, respectively (Johnson et al., 2009; Arikit et al., 2013; Zhai et al., 2015). 54 55 RNA-DEPENDENT RNA POLYMERASE 6 (RDR6) converts the resulting 3' cleaved RNA fragments into double-stranded RNA (Song et al., 2012b). This dsRNA is the 56 57 substrate for phased cleavage by a Dicer enzyme; DCL4 is proposed for 21-nt phasiRNAs and DCL5 for the 24-nt class based on expression timing (Song et al., 2012a; Arikit et al., 58 59 2013). Dcl5 is a duplication of Dcl3 found in many monocots (Xia et al., 2019). Proof that DCL5 is required for 24-nt phasiRNA biogenesis, but not generation of other small RNAs, 60 comes from analysis of multiple *dcl5* alleles in maize, which lack nearly all 24-nt 61 phasiRNAs (Teng et al., 2020). The entire 24-nt phasiRNA biogenesis pathway appears to 62 be regulated by MS23, a basic helix-loop-helix (bHLH) transcription factor that controls 63 the initial steps in tapetal differentiation. In maize *ms23* mutants with defective tapetum 64 development, PHAS precursors, the normal suite of miR2275 types, Dcl5, and 24-nt 65 phasiRNAs are missing (Zhai et al., 2015; Nan et al., 2017); additionally, several 66 thousand protein-coding genes are mis-regulated (Nan et al., 2017). 67 68 Biogenesis of phasiRNAs in grasses parallels that of trans-acting small interfering RNAs (tasiRNAs) (Arikit et al., 2013; Deng et al., 2018). The tasiRNAs interact with 69 70 mRNAs and result in mRNA degradation or block translation by virtue of complementarity. Arabidopsis thaliana has four TAS gene families -- TAS1, TAS2, TAS3, 71 72 and TAS4 -- and they are present at eight genetic loci (Allen et al., 2005; Rajagopalan et al., 2006). In addition to targeting mRNAs, 21-nt tasiRNAs from TAS3c and TAS1a were 73 74 reported to direct DNA methylation at their cognate TAS-encoding loci (Wu et al., 2012; Wu, 2013), a type of regulation defined as "in *cis*" in the plant small RNA community. 75 76 Elevated DNA methylation of the TAS3c locus requires DCL1, while multiple DCLs contribute to DNA methylation of TASI loci (Wu et al., 2012; Wu, 2013). Although 24-nt 77

maize phasiRNAs are proposed to be synthesized in the tapetum (Teng et al., 2020), they 78 79 also accumulate in meiocytes (Zhai et al., 2015). Dukowic-Schulze et al. (2016) proposed that phasiRNA could be involved in *cis* DNA methylation at their own loci, because they 80 81 detected elevated CHH DNA methylation at *PHAS* loci in zygotene stage maize meiocytes and in whole anthers compared to levels in seedlings. In mammalian testes, a small 82 83 fraction of piRNAs maintain genome integrity by epigenetically silencing transposons via 84 DNA methylation, especially in germline stem cells (Aravin et al., 2007; Le Thomas et al., 85 2013; Luteijn & Ketting, 2013; Fu & Wang, 2014; Zhai et al., 2015); this possible function has not been explored for 24-nt plant phasiRNAs, however, the plant phasiRNAs 86 87 are not complementary to known transposons.

88 Building on the foundation established by Dukowic-Schulze et al. (2016), we wished to address two questions. First, do the 24-PHAS loci of anthers acquire elevated CHH DNA 89 methylation after synthesis of the 24-nt phasiRNAs or do anthers have a constitutively 90 elevated level? Second, if there is developmental regulation of CHH DNA methylation, 91 92 does it occur after transcriptional activation of 24-PHAS loci or does it require successful 93 generation of the 24-nt phasiRNA products? To answer these questions and explore the potential role of 24-nt phasiRNAs in maize DNA methylation, we generated sequence 94 95 capture bisulfite-sequencing data from two male sterile mutants, dcl5-1 and ms23, where 24-nt phasiRNAs are highly reduced or eliminated, and their control plants. 96

This article is protected by copyright. All rights reserved

ACCE

97 MATERIALS AND METHODS

98 Plant materials

Maize was grown in a greenhouse at Stanford, CA with a 14-h day (28 °C)/10-h night
(22 °C) light cycle. Dissected anthers were staged using a micrometer.

101 For the *dcl5* mutant, we utilized the *dcl5-1* allele with a one-base pair deletion in the 102 coding region of the *Dcl5* gene (Teng *et al.*, 2020). We started with the T_0 generation heterozygous dcl5-1//+ plants in the HiII background. After several generations of 103 104 self-crossing or crossing among sibling plants, we obtained T₃ and T₄ generation 1:2:1 populations for dissecting the anthers of the homozygous dcl5-1 (dcl5-1//dcl5-1) mutant 105 106 and its wildtype fertile control (+//+). For ms23, a 1:2:1 population of ms23-ref in the ND101 background introgressed several times into the W23 inbred line was used; anthers 107 108 from the homozygous ms23 (ms23//ms23) mutant and its fertile control (ms23//+ or +//+) were collected. To simplify figure labeling, the fully fertile sibling plants compared to 109 110 mutants in the same family are referred to as "control plants". Table S1 provides detailed information about the biological samples. 111

112 WGBS library preparation and data analysis

113 Whole genome bisulfite sequencing (WGBS) was performed using 0.5 mm, 2.0 mm, and 114 4.0 mm W23 anthers. DNA was extracted from each sample using CTAB, and libraries were prepared for WGBS as previously described (Urich et al., 2015). Sequencing was 115 116 performed on a HiSeq 2000 platform and generated 101-bp paired reads, followed by quality control using FASTQC and adaptor trimming using Trim Galore. For each sample, 117 118 reads were aligned to the maize B73 reference genome B73 AGPv4 (Jiao et al., 2017) by 119 BSMAP (Xi & Li, 2009). We calculated the methylation level for each cytosine using 120 methratio.py in BSMAP in the uniquely mapped, duplication-removed and properly paired reads. 121

ViewBS was utilized to construct the plots based on WGBS data (Huang *et al.*, 2018).
Briefly, the 2 kb up- and down-stream regions of 21- and 24-*PHAS* loci, protein-coding
genes, and transposons (TEs), and their body regions were divided into 100, 60, and 100

- bins, separately. Then, the methylation level of each bin was summarized by dividing detected methylated autocines (#C) by total autocines (#C and # data T) (Sabultz et al.
- detected methylated cytosines (#C) by total cytosines (#C and # delta T) (Schultz *et al.*,
 2012).

128 Sequence capture bisulfite-sequencing library preparation and data mapping

To gain high-resolution methylation profiles for 24-PHAS loci, we chose ~20,000 specific 129 130 regions from the B73 genome, including 176 24-PHAS and 463 21-PHAS loci (Zhai et al., 2015). We found that 122 of the 176 24-PHAS loci and 416 of 463 21-PHAS loci 131 identified in the B73 reference genome v4, contained a predicted miR2275 or miR2118 132 cleavage site (CS), and were used as analyzable PHAS loci in our study. The capture 133 probes of those regions were designed by Roche (Han et al., 2018). Briefly, we 134 constructed a standard genome bisulfite library and extracted capture target regions by 135 hybridization to probes as described previously (Li et al., 2014). Then the capture library 136 was sequenced on an Illumina MiSeq instrument using 150 cycles from both ends after 137 PCR amplification. The computational methods described for WGBS data were used to 138 analyze sequence capture bisulfite-sequencing data. 139

To plot the methylation profiles at 21- and 24-*PHAS* loci based on sequence capture
bisulfite-sequencing, the 200 bp upstream region, transcribed regions prior to the CS, the
transcribed region after the CS, and the 200 bp downstream region were divided into 5, 15,
45, and 5 bins, respectively. The same strategy was utilized to calculate the DNA
methylation of each bin as for WGBS data.

145 Handling replicate samples: 1) The replicates of 2.0 mm anther of dcl5-1 mutant and its controls were from the T_3 and T_4 generations; data were analyzed separately for 146 147 methylation level change among 21-PHAS and 24-PHAS loci. Subsequently, only the T₃ generation data were used, because of the relatively low coverage in the T₄ generation 148 149 dataset. 2) Regarding the replicates of 1.0 mm anthers, we used the average for the analysis of methylation levels at 24-PHAS loci and 21-PHAS loci in the dcl5-1 mutant and 150 151 its controls in pre-meiotic (0.5 and 1.0 mm) and meiotic 2.0 mm anthers. Other biological samples did not have replicates. 152

153 sRNA-seq and RNA-seq library construction and sequencing

sRNA-seq and RNA-seq libraries were prepared as previously described (Mathioni *et al.*,

155 2017; Teng et al., 2020). In brief, total RNA was isolated and libraries were constructed

156 for *dcl5-1* and its wild-type control, with two biological replicates, and sequenced using

the Illumina HiSeq2500 platform.

158 For sRNA-seq data, adapters were trimmed by Trim Galore (version 0.6.0), and Bowtie

159 (version 1.2.2) (Langmead *et al.*, 2009) was performed for the alignment with the

160 parameter "-q -e 1 -l 31 -n 0 -p 5 -m 20 -a -S --nomaqround --chunkmbs 524" to the maize

161 B73 reference genome v4. Only uniquely mapped reads were used in this study. The

abundance of sRNA is normalized on the basis of the total count of mapped reads in that

sample. The abundance of 24-nt phasiRNAs in the *ms23* mutant and its control was

164 calculated based on the published sRNA-seq data from Zhai *et al.* (2015).

165 For RNA-seq data, read quality was checked using Fastp (Chen *et al.*, 2018) and then

166 mapped to the maize B73 reference genome B73_AGPv4 (Jiao *et al.*, 2017) by Hisat2

167 (Kim et al., 2015). Only uniquely aligned reads, as input for StringTie (Pertea et al., 2015),

168 were used to calculate 24-*PHAS* transcript expression levels.

169 Updating the list of 24-PHAS loci in maize anthers

sRNA-seq data from 2.0 mm anthers of the control of the *dcl5-1* mutant were used for

171 24-PHAS detection. Only 24-nt intervals were used for genome-wide phasing analysis,

and the phasing scores were calculated as previously described (De Paoli *et al.*, 2009).

173 With the criterion of a phasing score higher than 25 plus a manual check, we had an

updated list of 151 24-*PHAS* loci, 23 of which were newly identified.

175 Identification of 24-*PHAS* in the 2.0 mm *dcl5-1* mutant anthers

176 Considering the relatively low abundance of 24-nt small RNAs mapped to 24-PHAS in

177 *dcl5-1* 2.0 mm anthers, we required the largest phasing score of one 24-nt siRNA per

178 locus to be greater than or about 20. For some examples with an obviously good phasing

pattern -- at least 3 continuous and high phasing score elements with a 24-nt spacing
interval by manual checking -- the largest phasing score can be low as 15.

181 CHH DMR detection

To detect differentially methylated regions, we summarized CHH methylation levels for 182 183 each 50-bp non-overlapping sliding window with CHHs and at least 10 reads, dividing 184 detected methylated cytosines (#C) by total cytosines (#C and # delta T). Then, the *p*-value of Fisher's exact test was calculated for each window, to weigh the significance of 185 allele bias. The criteria were as follows: 1) Q-values (converted by p-value) < 0.05186 between the DNA methylation level of the mutant and its control; 2) absolute methylation 187 difference between wild-type and mutant > 5%; 3) and the change relative to wild-type 188 ((wild-type - mutant)/wild-type) greater than 40%. Finally, we combined the adjoining 189 windows detected as DMRs within 200 bp, and then recalculated the percentage using the 190 same strategy. 191

192 Abundant 24-nt siRNA position detection

193 Because we observed that 24-nt phasiRNAs are unevenly distributed across individual

194 24-PHAS loci, we defined the 24-nt siRNA with the highest number of normalized reads

as the most abundant 24-nt siRNA position. Further, if other 24-nt siRNA positions

- 196 possessed a representation level at least half as high as the most abundant 24-nt siRNA
- 197 position, we also considered these 24-nt siRNA positions as abundant positions.

199 **RESULTS**

24-PHAS exhibited increased CHH DNA methylation only at the meiotic stage of maize anther development

202 Meiosis is an essential stage in sexual reproduction. To explore if any DNA methylation 203 changes occur before, during, or after meiosis, we performed low-coverage whole genome 204 bisulfite sequencing at three stages of W23 inbred anther development: 0.5 mm anther length (cell proliferation and differentiation), 2.0 mm (prophase I of meiosis), and 4.0 mm 205 (microspore development) anthers (Kelliher & Walbot, 2011) (Fig. 1a-c; Table S1). First, 206 the average levels of CG, CHG, and CHH methylation were determined for each stage 207 208 (Fig. 1d-f). The W23 anthers had DNA methylation levels for the CG (75%), CHG (60%), and CHH (2%) contexts that are similar to levels in other inbred lines and tissues 209 examined in previous studies (Li et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2014). Second, we compared 210 DNA methylation of protein-coding genes, transposons (TEs), and the *PHAS* loci among 211 these three stages. The up- and down-stream regions of protein-coding genes display 212 elevated CHH context DNA methylation at the 2.0 mm stage: about 2-3 times higher than 213 214 either the 0.5 or 4.0 mm stage (Fig. 1i). In contrast, there is no major DNA methylation change in the CG and CHG contexts in the gene body regions of protein-coding genes or 215 216 any contexts for the TEs across the three stages (Fig. 1j, Fig. S1c, d, g, h). Prior work has 217 shown that the 21-nt phasiRNAs peak in abundance by 0.5 mm while the 24-nt 218 phasiRNAs peak at 2.0 mm (Zhai et al., 2015), therefore, we determined if the corresponding *PHAS* loci are differentially methylated at these stages or show any 219 220 differences relative to protein-coding genes (Fig. 1g, h, Fig. S1a, b, e, f). As with protein-coding genes, no major DNA methylation differences were found in the CG or 221 CHG context across the three stages for either the 21- or 24-PHAS loci (Fig. S1a, b, e, f). 222 223 Strikingly, in the CHH context, both 21- and 24-PHAS transcribed regions exhibit the highest DNA methylation at 2.0 mm, followed by 0.5 mm; the lowest level occurred at the 224 225 4.0 mm stage (Fig. 1g, h).

To quantify the stage-specific effects of CHH DNA methylation at various genomicfeatures, we separately analyzed their relative DNA methylation changes compared to the

0.5 mm stage (Fig. 1k). All regions analyzed exhibit increased CHH methylation at the 2.0 228 229 mm stage and reduced CHH methylation at 4.0 mm suggesting dynamic levels of CHH methylation during anther development. Further, we observed that the CHH methylation 230 levels of the transcribed and the up-stream regions of 24-PHAS loci, as well as the up- and 231 down-stream regions of protein-coding genes, are more than 50% higher than that of the 232 233 0.5 mm stage (Fig. 1k). Taken together, these results suggest that 2.0 mm meiotic anthers 234 exhibit distinct CHH DNA methylation patterns and establish that there is developmental 235 regulation of this epigenetic feature.

Elevated CHH DNA methylation of 24-*PHAS* at the meiotic stage is related to the presence of 24-nt phasiRNAs

The period of peak DNA methylation at 2.0 mm was investigated further with sequence 238 capture bisulfite-sequencing to enrich for PHAS loci. Our main question was whether the 239 elevated CHH DNA methylation on 24-PHAS at the 2.0 mm stage depends on the 240 activation of transcription of the loci or on 24-nt phasiRNA abundance. Two male-sterile 241 maize mutants with a profound loss of 24-nt phasiRNAs were utilized. In the ms23 mutant 242 -- MS23 encodes a master transcriptional regulator of tapetal development -- few 24-PHAS 243 244 transcripts exist, there are almost no 24-nt phasiRNAs, and Dcl5 is not expressed (Nan et 245 al., 2017). In the downstream dcl5-1 mutant, 24-PHAS transcripts are as high or higher than in the control plants, however, in the absence of DCL5 protein, very few 24-nt 246 247 phasiRNAs are present (Teng et al., 2020). Analysis of these two mutants can distinguish whether transcriptional activation of the 24-PHAS loci or the production of 24-nt 248 phasiRNAs are required for the change in CHH context DNA methylation at 24-PHAS 249 loci in 2.0 mm anthers. 250 251 To pursue the analysis, we generated in-depth, sequence capture bisulfite-sequencing

data, as well as sRNA-seq data for 2.0 mm anthers of fully sterile homozygous *dcl5-1*mutants, and the control plants in the T₃ generation (see the Materials and Methods
section). In the *dcl5-1* anthers, CG and CHG DNA methylation levels are
indistinguishable from control plants (Fig. 2a, b). There was obviously reduced DNA
methylation in the CHH context within the transcribed region of 24-*PHAS* loci,

particularly 3' of the miRNA cleavage site (CS), in the *dcl5-1* sterile individuals, 257 258 compared to its control (Fig. 2c). In contrast, 21-PHAS loci CHH methylation levels are similar in *dcl5-1* and its control anthers at 2.0 mm (Fig. S2), about 10 days after peak 259 transcript and 21-nt phasiRNA abundances (Zhai et al., 2015). To confirm these results, 260 we generated sequence capture bisulfite-sequencing data from 2.0 mm anthers in T_4 261 262 generation plants. The substantial CHH methylation difference was present in the 263 transcribed region of 24-PHAS loci, but not in the 21-PHAS loci in the dcl5-1 mutant (Fig. 264 **S3**). Because the sequence capture bisulfite-sequencing data from 2.0 mm anthers in the T_4 generation plants were limited, we did further analysis with data from the T_3 generation 265 plants. 266

267 In analyzing the sequence capture bisulfite-sequencing data for the 2.0 mm anthers of the *ms23* mutant, we found slightly elevated CG and CHG DNA methylation in the 268 24-*PHAS* transcribed regions in the mutant compared to its fertile control (Fig. 2d, e). 269 Paralleling the results with *dcl5-1*, CHH DNA methylation levels were dramatically 270 271 reduced 3' of the miR2275-mediated CS across the transcribed region compared to its 272 fertile control (Fig. 2f). In contrast, no major CHH DNA methylation difference was observed at the 21-PHAS loci, and CG and CHG DNA methylation levels at these loci 273 274 were elevated in the mutant as was observed for the 24-*PHAS* loci (Fig. S4). We concluded that these elevated CG and CHG DNA methylation levels in the ms23 mutant 275 do not compensate for reduced CHH methylation here, because it also occurred in 276 21-PHAS loci (without reduced CHH DNA methylation) as well. We propose that absence 277 278 of the MS23 protein (and failure of tapetal cells to specify and differentiate) affected DNA demethylases required to maintain the CG and CHG methylation in the genome. Because 279 280 the tapetal cells are such a large fraction (approximately one-third, Kelliher & Walbot, 281 2011) of all anther cells at 2.0 mm, significant changes in this one cell type will show up in whole anther data. 282

Collectively, these data establish that defects in genes required for 24-nt phasiRNA
biogenesis result in lower CHH DNA methylation in the corresponding transcribed region
of 24-*PHAS* loci, with the most profound impact in the region immediately distal to the

- miR2275 CS. *ms23* mutants lack both *PHAS* precursors and 24-nt phasiRNAs while
- 287 *dcl5-1* mutant anthers contain abundant precursors (Teng *et al.*, 2020), but few phasiRNA
- 288 products. Therefore, we conclude that the elevated CHH DNA methylation of 24-*PHAS*
- loci at the 2.0 mm stage requires 24-nt phasiRNAs.

290 Differentially methylated regions in the CHH context at 24-PHAS loci

291 To explore methylation patterns, we identified the CHH-context differentially methylated regions (DMRs) for the *dcl5-1* or *ms23* mutant and their control plants (Table S2; see the 292 Materials and Methods section). For the *dcl5-1* mutant and its control, among 120 293 analyzable 24-PHAS loci, we identified dcl5-DMRs (DMRs between the dcl5-1 mutant 294 and its control in the CHH context, abbreviated as *dcl5*-DMRs) from 49 (49/120, 40.8%) 295 24-PHAS loci. There were a total of 70 dcl5-DMRs at these 49 loci; 19 loci had two or 296 three detected DMRs (Fig. S5). Among 70 dcl5-DMRs, 69 of the 70 DMRs display 297 decreased methylation in the *dcl5-1* mutant. In contrast, among 407 analyzable 21-PHAS 298 loci, we only identified 34 dcl5-DMRs present in 32 (32/407, 6.9%) 21-PHAS loci and 299 only two loci had two DMRs; 30 of these DMRs display decreased methylation level in 300 the *dcl5-1* mutant (Fig. S5). Therefore, DMRs involving lower CHH methylation levels, 301 302 comparing the *dcl5-1* mutant to its controls, are more abundant in the 24-PHAS loci than in the 21-PHAS loci in 2.0 mm anthers. 303

For the *ms23* mutant and its control there are 96 DMRs located in 68 (68/118, 57.6%)
24-*PHAS* loci from 118 analyzable loci; again nearly all are hypomethylated (95/96
DMRs) (Table S2). Thirty DMRs were detected (30/398, 7.5%) among 398 analyzable
21-*PHAS* loci. There were 22 24-*PHAS* with two or three detected DMRs, and 46 with one
DMR, whereas only one DMR was detected in each 21-*PHAS* locus (Fig. S5). In summary,
DMRs at 24-*PHAS* loci are more abundant than those found at 21-*PHAS* loci in both the *dcl5-1* and *ms23* mutants.

Next, we compared the representation of CHH DMRs in the two mutants. We found 28 shared DMRs, 41 *dcl5* specific DMRs, and 67 *ms23* specific DMRs (Fig. **2g**, Table **S2**). If we utilized a lower DMR identification criterion of an absolute methylation change of 2%,

then >72% of the DMRs are shared by these mutants. As summarized in the heatmap in 314 315 Fig. 2g, almost all analyzable DMRs exhibit decreased CHH DNA methylation in both mutants. Further analysis shows, for the shared 28 DMRs, that both the controls of the 316 dcl5-1 and ms23 mutant display relatively consistent CHH DNA methylation with the 317 median value of around 10%. In contrast, DMRs restricted to either *dcl5-1* or *ms23* have 318 319 relatively lower DNA methylation levels with the median value of around 5% in their 320 corresponding fertile controls (Fig. S6). We conclude that the elevated CHH DNA 321 methylation in 2.0 mm control anthers is focused on specific sites in 24-PHAS loci and that the extent of CHH methylation depends on the presence of 24-nt phasiRNAs. 322

323 CHH DNA methylation at 24-PHAS loci normally increases at the meiotic stage

Having established that 24-PHAS loci in both dcl5-1 and ms23 mutant anthers exhibit low 324 levels of CHH DNA methylation after the CS and across the transcribed gene body at the 325 2.0 mm stage, we sought to distinguish whether this pattern reflected either (i) a failure to 326 maintain higher DNA methylation established at an earlier stage, or (ii) a failure to 327 increase DNA methylation at the 2.0 mm stage. The initial whole genome data presented 328 329 in Figure 1 established that overall CHH methylation peaked at 2.0 mm. The abundances of 24-nt phasiRNAs from each loci peak at 2.0 mm, with low to moderate level at 1.0 mm, 330 and very low at 0.5 mm (Zhai et al., 2015): transitioning from 0.5 and 1.0 mm there is a 331 332 slightly increased expression level of 24-nt phasiRNAs, while at the 2.0 mm anther stage 333 there is copious 24-nt phasiRNAs.

We generated sequence capture bisulfite-sequencing data for 0.5 and 1.0 mm anthers of 334 the dcl5-l mutant and its control (see the Materials and Methods section). First, we 335 336 compared the methylation patterns for both 21- and 24-PHAS in the three developmental 337 stages (0.5, 1.0, and 2.0 mm) from the control plants. No major DNA methylation difference was observed in CG and CHG contexts for either the 21- or 24-PHAS across the 338 approximately 10 days of development (Fig. **3a**, **b**, Fig. **S7a**, **b**). There was, however, an 339 obvious CHH DNA methylation difference in the transcribed regions of 24-PHAS loci 3' 340 341 of the microRNA CS with relatively low levels in pre-meiotic (0.5 and 1.0 mm) and higher levels in meiotic (2.0 mm) anthers (Fig. 3c); no such difference was observed for 342

21-PHAS loci (Fig. S7c). These data clarify that the CHH methylation observed in 343 344 24-PHAS loci in 2.0 mm anthers represents an increase from earlier stages paralleling both normal development and production of 24-nt phasiRNAs. In the *dcl5-1* mutant, CHH 345 methylation levels in the CS to the transcription termination site (TTS) region of 24-PHAS 346 loci are nearly constant across the three developmental stages and similar to control 347 348 anthers at the 0.5 and 1.0 mm stages (Fig. 3c, f). The developmental analysis supports the 349 conclusion that elevated CHH methylation at 24-PHAS loci requires the 24-nt phasiRNAs. 350 A parallel analysis of 21-PHAS loci identified no obvious DNA methylation differences in any context (Fig. S7d-f). 351

352 We analyzed CHH DNA methylation patterns of the *dcl5*-DMRs (detected between the 353 *dcl5-1* mutant and its control at the 2.0 mm stage) in the 0.5 and 1.0 mm anthers. Almost all dcl5-DMRs showed consistent low levels of CHH DNA methylation across these two 354 stages (Fig. 3g). Collectively, we conclude that the elevated CHH DNA methylation on 355 24-PHAS (but not 21-PHAS) in the 2.0 mm control anthers is highly related to the burst of 356 24-nt phasiRNAs. Therefore, we conclude that the elevated CHH DNA methylation of 357 358 24-PHAS loci is dependent on the presence of 24-nt phasiRNAs during the period when both transcription of the loci and production of the small RNA products are normally very 359 high in the control anthers. 360

Abundant phasiRNAs are necessary but not specifically predictive of increased CHH DNA methylation at individual 24-*PHAS* loci

363 There is a low to moderate level of 24-nt phasiRNAs present in 1.0 mm control anthers, 364 with a peak 6 days later at 2.0 mm (Zhai *et al.*, 2015). Despite this, we did not observe an 365 increased CHH DNA methylation level in the 1.0 mm control anthers (Fig. 3c), suggesting 366 that the methylation change requires abundant 24-nt phasiRNAs. We sought to answer the question of whether increased CHH DNA methylation is correlated to the level of 24-nt 367 small RNAs derived from that location. First, we evaluated the CHH DNA methylation 368 level for five 24-PHAS subgroups, ranking loci by the levels of 24-nt phasiRNA 369 370 abundance in the controls of the *dcl5-1* mutant. As shown in Fig. 4a, the median value of the average CHH DNA methylation lowest abundance subgroup is around 3%, while the 371

subsequent 4 subgroups steadily increase from 5% to 9% (Fig. 4a). Moreover, we found
that 24-*PHAS* with *dcl5*-DMRs tend to have a higher level of 24-nt phasiRNAs in control
plants (Fig. S8).

Second, we calculated the CHH DNA methylation levels and small RNA abundance for 375 376 each 24-PHAS locus. Obviously, almost all analyzable 24-PHAS loci display relatively elevated CHH DNA methylation in the control plants, and much lower in both dcl5-1 and 377 378 *ms23* mutants (Fig. 4b). Importantly, we also observed that 24-*PHAS* loci with the highest CHH methylation are not the ones with the most abundant 24-nt phasiRNAs (Table S3). 379 380 In other words, the level of CHH methylation at individual 24-PHAS loci is not highly correlated with the cumulative abundance of the 24-nt phasiRNA products of that locus. 381 When we investigated the distributions of 24-nt phasiRNA, as well as the dcl5- and 382 *ms23*-DMRs, we found that neither the 24-nt phasiRNAs nor the DMRs are evenly 383 distributed. Both show a higher abundance 3' of the microRNA CS (Fig. **S9**). Additionally, 384 a higher proportion of ms23-DMRs was seen than of dcl5-DMRs across analyzable PHAS 385 (Fig. S9b), which is consistent with the differential abundance of 24-nt siRNAs on 386 24-PHAS in the ms23 (lower) and dcl5-1 (higher) mutants (Fig. 4b). 387 388 Finally, we examined small RNA and the DNA methylation patterns for individual 389 24-PHAS loci in the dcl5-1 and ms23 mutants and their controls. Fig. 4c and Fig. S10 display two examples: 24-PHAS NO291 (Fig. 4c) and 24-PHAS NO132 (Fig. S10). For 390 391 24-PHAS NO291, based on the sRNA-seq data, there are two abundant 24-nt phasiRNA positions after the miRNA CS in the controls of both the *dcl5-1* and *ms23* mutants; only a 392

few small RNA reads are detected in the *dcl5-1* mutant, and almost no 24-nt phasiRNAs

were present in the *ms23* mutant (Fig. 4c). Based on the sequence capture

bisulfite-sequencing data, it is obvious that the controls possess higher CHH DNA

methylation levels across the whole 24-PHAS transcript compared to the dcl5-1 and ms23

397 mutants. Three DMRs after the CS were identified in the dcl5-l mutant and its control,

- 398 while another three DMRs were detected in the *ms23* mutant and its control. Two
- 399 *ms23*-DMRs partially overlap or are adjacent to the three DMRs detected in the *dcl5-1*
- 400 mutant. And for non-shared *ms23*-DMR regions, the methylation difference was also

401 observed in *dcl5-1* and its control plants. Similar patterns were observed in the

402 24-*PHAS*_NO132 (Fig. **S10**).

Taken together, the high CHH DNA methylation at 24-*PHAS* requires the presence of 24-nt phasiRNAs, but the abundance of 24-nt phasiRNAs is not highly predictive of the CHH methylation level at a *PHAS* locus, although a general low to moderate correlation was observed (Fig. **4a** and Fig. **S11**).

407 Only one or a few abundant 24-nt phasiRNA(s) accumulate from individual 408 24-*PHAS* and likely influence increased CHH DNA methylation

409 Surprisingly, despite being derived from the same precursor, the abundance of individual

410 24-nt phasiRNAs is highly variable across a locus, similar to the report of

411 non-stoichiometric yield of 21-nt reproductive phasiRNAs from their precursor transcripts

412 (Tamim *et al.*, 2018). The reason for this is unclear: equivalent stoichiometry would be

413 predicted for each 24-nt phasiRNA from the same precursor, but this pattern is not true for

414 any of the expression abundance classes of 24-*PHAS* loci. Therefore, we can investigate

within individual loci, whether DMRs are correlated with the abundant 24-nt phasiRNApositions at that locus.

417 To explore as many 24-PHAS loci as possible, we re-identified 24-nt phasiRNAs using our newly generated sRNA-seq data of HiII line fertile anthers at the 2.0 mm stage, using 418 419 the same strategy as previously described (Zhai et al., 2015) (see the Materials and 420 Methods section). As a result, we detected 151 24-PHAS loci, 23 of which were newly 421 identified, compared with the list of 24-*PHAS* in the previous study of W23 anthers. Among 176 published 24-PHAS in RefB73 v2 in Zhai et al. (2015), only 163 of them 422 423 were evident in RefB73 v4. Among these, only 128 of them were detectable in our sRNA-seq data. Altogether, 186 24-PHAS have been detected in different datasets and 424 425 maize genome assemblies (Zhai et al., 2015 in B73 v4) (Table S4).

By looking at the 24-nt small RNA distribution across these 24-*PHAS* individually, we
found that 24-*PHAS*_NO132 and 24-*PHAS*_NO291 each had only one or a few highly
accumulated 24-nt phasiRNA(s) in the fertile control of the *dcl5-1* mutant (Fig. 4c, Fig.

S10). These are not exceptional cases as we observed that all *PHAS* loci tend to possess 429 430 one or a few highly accumulated 24-nt small RNA type(s), violating the expected stoichiometry from a single precursor. Among 151 expressed 24-PHAS loci in our data, 96 431 (63.6%) have only one abundant 24-nt phasiRNA with a super-high accumulation level 432 (35.4 to 1.2 million-fold higher than the lowest accumulated 24-nt type). This is visualized 433 434 for 24-PHAS NO210 and 24-PHAS NO296 in the fertile control of the dcl5-1 mutant (Fig. 435 5a, b). Another 35 (23.2%) 24-PHAS loci have two abundant positions, exemplified by 24-PHAS NO173 (Fig. S12a), and 20 (13.2%) have three to six abundant positions, as 436 found in 24-PHAS NO203 (Fig. S12b). 437

To address if the abundant 24-nt phasiRNA position is well correlated with elevated 438 439 CHH DNA methylation in 2.0 mm control anthers, we analyzed the methylation distribution across 24-PHAS loci. As a result, the average value of the CHH DNA 440 methylation levels of the abundant 24-nt phasiRNA position was 4.6%, while other 441 regions with the lowest expressed 24-nt siRNAs were about 2.3%, and this two-fold 442 443 difference is highly significant (P value < 0.001 in the Wilcoxon signed-rank test) (Fig. 5e). The average abundance of small RNAs from abundant position(s) is around 3,200 444 reads per million, more than three orders of magnitude higher than the value of 2 in other 445 regions (Fig. 5f). Overall, these results indicate that within an individual locus and then 446 collectively in all highly expressed 24-PHAS loci, one or a few 24-nt phasiRNAs with 447 high abundance products are most likely resulting in the elevated DNA methylation levels. 448

449 Some 24-nt phasiRNAs accumulate in the *dcl5-1* mutant, but not in *ms23* anthers

450 The *dcl5-1* mutants retain accumulation of some 24-nt small RNAs generated from

451 24-PHAS loci (Fig. S13). We were curious to know whether these small RNAs are actual

452 phasiRNAs or another class of small RNA. Interestingly, we observed fifty 24-PHAS loci

453 with 24-nt siRNAs generated in an obvious phasing pattern by manual check (phasing

454 score greater than 15, and passing our manual check, see the Materials and Methods

- 455 section) (Table **S5**). Compared to fertile anthers, however, the accumulation of these
- 456 phasiRNAs was 73-fold lower in *dcl5-1* mutants at 2.0 mm. Therefore, other DCLs,
- 457 perhaps DCL3 given its propensity to process heterochromatic siRNAs into 24 nt lengths,

458	substitute by slicing the abundant precursor transcripts, albeit inefficiently, when DCL5 is
459	absent (Teng et al., 2020). In the ms23 mutant, none of the detected 24-nt small RNAs
460	exhibited a phasing pattern, as expected because there is no detectable expression of
461	24-PHAS loci.

Two representative examples of the distribution of 24-nt small RNAs in the 2.0 mm 462 *dcl5-1* mutants are displayed in Fig. 5. Notably, only one 24-nt small RNA with highly 463 464 abundant accumulation is present in 24-PHAS NO296 and another in 24-PHAS NO210. In both cases, these map 3' of the miR2275 CS (Fig. 5a, b). Other 24-nt small RNAs 465 466 (minor peaks) from these two 24-PHAS loci have relatively low accumulation levels. Importantly, the 24-nt siRNAs from 24-PHAS NO296 exhibited a clear phased pattern in 467 468 the dcl5-1 mutant (phasing score greater than 25), whereas 24-PHAS NO210 24-nt RNAs were not in a phased pattern (Fig. 5c, d). Consequently, some 24-PHAS loci generate 469 24-nt siRNAs independently of the usual biogenesis of phasiRNAs. 470

Accepted

472 Discussion

This study sought to further explore the hypothesis that 24-nt phasiRNAs can impact 473 474 DNA methylation at their cognate loci, a type of *cis* regulation (Dukowic-Schulze *et al.*, 2016). We first demonstrated that CHH DNA methylation levels are developmentally 475 476 regulated, being highest in 2.0 mm, mid-meiosis anthers compared to earlier or later stages. In fertile anthers, CHH DNA methylation levels increase significantly at 2.0 mm, the stage 477 478 of peak 24-nt phasiRNA abundance. To distinguish whether transcriptional activation of 24-PHAS loci or the 24-nt phasiRNA products contribute to the observed CHH DNA 479 480 methylation increase, we analyzed two mutants: ms23, in which transcriptional activation of the 24-PHAS loci fails to occur, and *dcl5-1*, in which transcript abundance is nearly 481 482 normal (Fig. S14), but far fewer 24-nt phasiRNA products exist. Both ms23 and dcl5-1 mutants failed to exhibit the elevated CHH methylation at the 24-PHAS loci found at 2.0 483 mm in normal anthers, suggesting that 24-nt phasiRNAs are necessary to direct increased 484 CHH DNA methylation at this developmental stage. Further support for a role of 24-nt 485 486 phasiRNAs in modulating CHH DNA methylation is provided by the observation that elevated CHH DNA methylation of each 24-PHAS locus requires the abundant 24-nt small 487 RNA derived from that 24-PHAS. Additionally, within a locus, there is enormous 488 variation in the abundance of individual 24-nt phasiRNAs despite derivation from a 489 common precursor; this matches observations from 21-PHAS loci (Tamim et al., 2018). 490 The CHH DNA methylation level of the abundant 24-nt phasiRNA position is obviously 491 higher than that at the genomic positions corresponding to low abundance 24-nt siRNAs 492 493 across the locus (Fig. 5e, f). Collectively, these three lines of evidence support the idea that 24-nt phasiRNAs can direct increased CHH DNA methylation in cis. 494 495 In whole anthers, the detectable changes in DNA methylation will be from the abundant 496 somatic cells, not the meiocytes. The tapetum synthesizes 24-nt phasiRNAs (Zhai et al., 497 2015; Teng *et al.*, 2020) and both the *ms23* and *dcl5-1* mutants impact tapetal 498 development. Therefore, we propose that the CHH DNA methylation changes we 499 quantified reflect events in the tapetum. As CHH DNA methylation flanking genes

500 exhibits a positive relationship to gene expression (Gent et al., 2013), we speculate that

501	the presumably tapetal CHH DNA methylation might regulate expression of these PHAS
502	loci (up or down) or help with chromatin compaction or binucleation of tapetal cells.
503	A reasonable question is whether <i>cis</i> -directed enhancement of methylation is the actual
504	or only function of 24-nt reproductive phasiRNAs. It seems somewhat unlikely, as it
505	would represent a closed circuit: highly expressed 24-nt phasiRNAs -> high CHH
506	methylation> increase of PHAS transcription. At a minimum, our results do
507	demonstrate that 24-nt phasiRNAs are competent to direct CHH DNA methylation. This
508	could result from mis-loading, in an abundance-dependent manner into AGO4, the
509	Argonaute typically loaded with 24-nt heterochromatic siRNAs to direct DNA
510	methylation (Zilberman et al., 2003). Like the observations described here, 21-nt
511	reproductive phasiRNAs in rice and maize have been shown and validated to function in
512	cis to direct slicing of their own precursors (Tamim et al., 2018). But it is unclear also in
513	that case if this cis activity is the primary function of the phasiRNAs or an unintended
514	consequence of highly abundant small RNAs misloaded into the 'wrong' AGO protein.
515	Until we know the precise functions of 24-nt reproductive phasiRNAs, the AGO proteins
516	into which they are loaded, and their predominant targets if any exist, the importance of
517	the <i>cis</i> -directed DNA methylation reported here may remain unclear.

519 Acknowledgments

- 520 The seeds of *dcl5-1* and *ms23* mutants were generously provided by Han Zhang and
- 521 Guo-ling Nan, respectively. We thank Peter Hermanson for the preparation of sequence
- 522 capture bisulfite-sequencing libraries and Sandra Mathioni for small RNA-seq libraries.
- 523 This work was supported by U.S. National Science Foundation Plant Genome Research
- 524 Program (NSF-PGRP) award #1649424 (B.C.M. and V.W.), the International Postdoctoral
- 525 Exchange Fellowship Program award #20140067 (M.Z.), U. S. National Science
- 526 Foundation Grants DBI-1237931 (N.M.S), and Starting Funding of the Chinese Academy
- of Sciences (Y971RG1001 to M.Z.). Requests for materials should be addressed to
- walbot@stanford.edu. Raw data were submitted to NCBI's Short Read Archive under
- 529 BioProject accession PRJNA639640.

530 Author contributions

- 531 M.Z. and V.W. conceived of the project; M.Z. performed experiments of the project as
- part of M.Z.'s postdoctoral training at Stanford University; X.M., C.W., and Q.L.
- analyzed sequencing data and built graphs; M.Z. and V.W. wrote the manuscript with
- editing by B.C.M., N.M.S., and with input from all co-authors. MZ, XM and VW
- 535 contributed equally to this work.

Accer

537 **References**

- Allen E, Xie Z, Gustafson AM, Carrington JC. 2005. MicroRNA-directed phasing during
 trans-acting siRNA biogenesis in plants. *Cell* 121: 207–221.
- Aravin AA, Hannon GJ, Brennecke J. 2007. The piwi-piRNA pathway provides an adaptive
 defense in the transposon arms race. *Science* 318: 761–764.
- Arikit S, Zhai J, Meyers BC. 2013. Biogenesis and function of rice small RNAs from non-coding
 RNA precursors. *Current Opinion in Plant Biology* 16: 170–179.
- 544 Borges F, Martienssen RA. 2015. The expanding world of small RNAs in plants. *Nature Reviews*545 *Molecular Cell Biology* 16: 727–741.
- 546 Chen S, Zhou Y, Chen Y, Gu J. 2018. fastp: an ultra-fast all-in-one FASTQ preprocessor.

547 *Bioinformatics* **34**: i884–i890.

- De Paoli E, Dorantes-Acosta A, Zhai J, Accerbi M, Jeong DH, Park S, Meyers BC, Jorgensen
 RA, Green PJ. 2009. Distinct extremely abundant siRNAs associated with cosuppression in petunia.
 RNA 15: 1965–1970.
- 551 Deng P, Muhammad S, Cao M, Wu L. 2018. Biogenesis and regulatory hierarchy of phased small
 552 interfering RNAs in plants. *Plant Biotechnology Journal* 16: 965–975.
- Dukowic-Schulze S, Sundararajan A, Ramaraj T, Kianian S, Pawlowski WP, Mudge J, Chen C.
 2016. Novel meiotic miRNAs and indications for a role of phasiRNAs in meiosis. *Frontiers in Plant Science* 7: 762.
- 556 Fan Y, Yang J, Mathioni SM, Yu J, Shen J, Yang X, Wang L, Zhang Q, Cai Z, Xu C, et al. 2016.

557 *PMS1T*, producing phased small-interfering RNAs, regulates photoperiod-sensitive male sterility in

rice. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 113: 15144–
15149.

Fei Q, Yang L, Liang W, Zhang D, Meyers BC. 2016. Dynamic changes of small RNAs in rice
spikelet development reveal specialized reproductive phasiRNA pathways. *Journal of Experimental Botany* 67: 6037–6049.

- Fu Q, Wang PJ. 2014. Mammalian piRNAs: Biogenesis, function, and mysteries. *Spermatogenesis* 4:
 e27889.
- Gent JI, Ellis NA, Guo L, Harkess AE, Yao Y, Zhang X, Dawe RK. 2013. CHH islands: De novo
 DNA methylation in near-gene chromatin regulation in maize. *Genome Research* 23: 628–637.
- 567 Girard A, Sachidanandam R, Hannon GJ, Carmell MA. 2006. A germline-specific class of small
 568 RNAs binds mammalian Piwi proteins. *Nature* 442: 199–202.
- Grivna ST, Beyret E, Wang Z, Lin H. 2006. A novel class of small RNAs in mouse spermatogenic
 cells. *Genes and Development* 20: 1709–1714.
- 571 Han Z, Crisp PA, Stelpflug S, Kaeppler SM, Li Q, Springer NM. 2018. Heritable epigenomic
- changes to the Maize methylome resulting from tissue culture. *Genetics* **209**: 983–995.
- 573 Han BW, Wang W, Li C, Weng Z, Zamore PD. 2015. PiRNA-guided transposon cleavage initiates
 574 Zucchini-dependent, phased piRNA production. *Science* 348: 817–821.
- Huang X, Zhang S, Li K, Thimmapuram J, Xie S. 2018. ViewBS: A powerful toolkit for
 visualization of high-throughput bisulfite sequencing data. *Bioinformatics* 34: 708–709.
- 577 Jiao Y, Peluso P, Shi J, Liang T, Stitzer MC, Wang B, Campbell MS, Stein JC, Wei X, Chin CS
- *et al.* 2017. Improved maize reference genome with single-molecule technologies. *Nature* 546: 524–
 579 527.
- 580 Johnson C, Kasprzewska A, Tennessen K, Fernandes J, Nan GL, Walbot V, Sundaresan V,
- 581 Vance V, Bowman LH. 2009. Clusters and superclusters of phased small RNAs in the developing
 582 inflorescence of rice. *Genome Research* 19: 1429–1440.
- 583 Kakrana A, Mathioni SM, Huang K, Hammond R, Vandivier L, Patel P, Arikit S, Shevchenko
- 584 **O, Harkess AE, Kingham B** *et al.* **2018**. Plant 24-nt reproductive phasiRNAs from intramolecular
- duplex mRNAs in diverse monocots. *Genome Research* 28: 1333–1344.
- Kelliher T, Walbot V. 2011. Emergence and patterning of the five cell types of the *Zea mays* anther
 locule. *Developmental Biology* 350: 32–49.
- 588 Kim D, Langmead B, Salzberg SL. 2015. HISAT: a fast spliced aligner with low memory
 589 requirements. *Nature Methods* 12: 357–360.

- Langmead B, Trapnell C, Pop M, Salzberg SL. 2009. Ultrafast and memory-efficient alignment of
 short DNA sequences to the human genome. *Genome Biology* 10:R25.
- Le Thomas A, Rogers AK, Webster A, Marinov GK, Liao SE, Perkins EM, Hur JK, Aravin AA,
 Tóth KF. 2013. Piwi induces piRNA-guided transcriptional silencing and establishment of a
 repressive chromatin state. *Genes and Development* 27: 390–399.
- 595 Li Q, Eichten SR, Hermanson PJ, Zaunbrecher VM, Song J, Wendt J, Rosenbaum H, Madzima

TF, Sloan AE, Huang J *et al.* 2014. Genetic perturbation of the maize methylome. *Plant Cell* 26:
4602–4616.

- Liu L, Ren S, Guo J, Wang Q, Zhang X, Liao P, Li S, Sunkar R, Zheng Y. 2018. Genome-wide
 identification and comprehensive analysis of microRNAs and phased small interfering RNAs in
- 600 watermelon. *BMC Genomics* **19**(Suppl 2):111.
- Luteijn MJ, Ketting RF. 2013. PIWI-interacting RNAs: From generation to transgenerational
 epigenetics. *Nature Reviews Genetics* 14: 523–534.
- Mathioni SM, Kakrana A, Meyers BC. 2017. Characterization of plant small RNAs by next
 generation sequencing. *Current Protocols in Plant Biology* 2: 39–63.
- Mohn F, Handler D, Brennecke J. 2015. PiRNA-guided slicing specifies transcripts for
 Zucchini-dependent, phased piRNA biogenesis. *Science* 348: 812–817.
- 607 Nan GL, Zhai J, Arikit S, Morrow D, Fernandes J, Mai L, Nguyen N, Meyers BC, Walbot V.
- **2017**. MS23, a master basic helix-loop-helix factor, regulates the specification and development of the tapetum in maize. *Development* **144**: 163–172.
- 610 Ono S, Liu H, Tsuda K, Fukai E, Tanaka K, Sasaki T, Nonomura K. 2018. EAT1 transcription
- 611 factor, a noncell-autonomous regulator of pollen production, activates meiotic small RNA biogenesis
- 612 in rice anther tapetum. *PLoS Genetics* **14**: e1007238.
- 613 Pertea M, Pertea GM, Antonescu CM, Chang T-C, Mendell JT, Salzberg SL. 2015. StringTie
- enables improved reconstruction of a transcriptome from RNA-seq reads. *Nature Biotechnology* 33:
 290–295.

- Rajagopalan R, Vaucheret H, Trejo J, Bartel DP. 2006. A diverse and evolutionarily fluid set of
 microRNAs in *Arabidopsis thaliana*. *Genes & Development* 20: 3407–3425.
- 618 Schultz MD, Schmitz RJ, Ecker JR. 2012. 'Leveling' the playing field for analyses of single-base
 619 resolution DNA methylomes. *Trends in Genetics* 28: 583–585.
- 620 Shuai P, Su Y, Liang D, Zhang Z, Xia X, Yin W. 2016. Identification of phasiRNAs and their 621 drought- responsiveness in *Populus trichocarpa*. *FEBS Letters* **590**: 3616–3627.
- 622 Song X, Li P, Zhai J, Zhou M, Ma L, Liu B, Jeong DH, Nakano M, Cao S, Liu C *et al.* 2012a.
- Roles of DCL4 and DCL3b in rice phased small RNA biogenesis. *Plant Journal* **69**: 462–474.
- 624 Song X, Wang D, Ma L, Chen Z, Li P, Cui X, Liu C, Cao S, Chu C, Tao Y *et al.* 2012b. Rice
- RNA-dependent RNA polymerase 6 acts in small RNA biogenesis and spikelet development. *Plant Journal* 71: 378–389.
- 627 Tamim S, Cai Z, Mathioni SM, Zhai J, Teng C, Zhang Q, Meyers BC. 2018. *Cis*-directed
- cleavage and nonstoichiometric abundances of 21-nucleotide reproductive phased small interfering
 RNAs in grasses. *New Phytologist* 220: 865–877.
- Teng C, Zhang H, Hammond R, Huang K, Meyers BC, Walbot V. 2020. *Dicer-like 5* deficiency
 confers temperature-sensitive male sterility in maize. *Nature Communications* 11: 2912.
- 632 Urich MA, Nery JR, Lister R, Schmitz RJ, Ecker JR. 2015. MethylC-seq library preparation for
- base-resolution whole-genome bisulfite sequencing. *Nature Protocols* **10**: 475–483.
- Vagin V V, Sigova A, Li C, Seitz H, Gvozdev V, Zamore PD. 2006. A distinct small RNA pathway
 silences selfish genetic elements in the germline. *Science* 313: 320 324.
- Wu L. 2013. DICER-LIKE1 processed *trans-acting* siRNAs mediate DNA methylation: Case study
 of complex small RNA biogenesis and action pathways in plants. *Plant Signaling & Behavior* 8:
 e22476.
- Wu L, Mao L, Qi Y. 2012. Roles of DICER-LIKE and ARGONAUTE proteins in *TAS*-derived small
 interfering RNA-triggered DNA methylation. *Plant Physiology* 160: 990–999.

- 641 Xi Y, Li W. 2009. BSMAP: Whole genome bisulfite sequence MAPping program. BMC
- 642 *Bioinformatics* **10**: 232.
- Kia R, Chen C, Pokhrel S, Ma W, Huang K, Patel P, Wang F, Xu J, Liu Z, Li J *et al.* 2019. 24-nt
 reproductive phasiRNAs are broadly present in angiosperms. *Nature Communications* 10: 627.
- Kia R, Xu J, Arikit S, Meyers BC. 2015. Extensive families of miRNAs and *PHAS* loci in Norway
 spruce demonstrate the origins of complex phasiRNA networks in seed plants. *Molecular Biology and Evolution* 32: 2905–2918.
- Yu Y, Zhou Y, Zhang Y, Chen Y. 2018. Grass phasiRNAs and male fertility. *Science China Life Sciences* 61: 148–154.
- 650 Zhai J, Zhang H, Arikit S, Huang K, Nan GL, Walbot V, Meyers BC. 2015. Spatiotemporally
- 651 dynamic, cell-type–dependent premeiotic and meiotic phasiRNAs in maize anthers. *Proceedings of*
- 652 *the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America* **112**: 3146–3151.
- Zhang M, Xie S, Dong X, Zhao X, Zeng B, Chen J, Li H, Yang W, Zhao H, Wang G *et al.* 2014.
 Genome-wide high resolution parental-specific DNA and histone methylation maps uncover patterns
 of imprinting regulation in maize. *Genome Research* 24: 167–176.
- **Zilberman D, Cao X, Jacobsen SE**. 2003. ARGONAUTE4 control of locus-specific siRNA
 accumulation and DNA and histone methylation. *Science* 299: 716–719.
- 658

660 Figure legends

Figure 1. 24-*PHAS* loci display stage-specific DNA methylation patterns during maize anther development.

(a) to (c) Transverse sections of maize anthers at three length stages: 0.5 mm, cell proliferation and 663 664 differentiation (a); 2.0 mm, prophase I of meiosis (b); 4.0 mm, binucleate gametophyte (c). 665 Abbreviations: AR, archesporial cell(s); Mei, meiocytes; Msp, microspore; SPC, secondary parietal 666 cell(s); T, tapetum; ML, middle layer; EN, endothecium; E, Epidermis. Bars = $30 \mu m$. (d) to (f) Genome-wide DNA methylation levels in the CG (a), CHG (b), and CHH (c) contexts at three stages. 667 Y axis shows the average CG DNA methylation level (d), CHG methylation level (e), and CHH 668 methylation level (f). (g) to (j) CHH DNA methylation profiles in the transcribed regions and 2 kb 669 before and 2 kb after the 21-PHAS loci (g), 24-PHAS loci (h), protein-coding genes (i), and 670 transposons (TEs) (j). Y axis is the CHH methylation level (g-j). From (g) to (j), TSS indicates the 671 transcription start site, and TTS indicates the transcription termination site. (k) Percentage change in 672 CHH methylation levels of 2.0 and 4.0 mm anthers compared to the 0.5 mm stage at the 21-PHAS, 673 24-PHAS, protein-coding genes, and TEs, calculated as level in percent at 2.0 mm - 0.5 mm and 4.0 674 mm - 0.5 mm. Y axis displays the resulting % change relative to the 0.5 mm stage. From (d) to (k), 675 676 fertile anthers were dissected from the W23 inbred, and low-coverage whole genome bisulfite 677 sequencing data were used.

Accep

Figure 2. DNA methylation levels at 24-*PHAS* loci in the *dcl5-1* and *ms23* mutants compared to
their control plants at the 2.0 mm stage of maize anthers.

681 These deep coverage data were generated using a sequence capture bisulfite-sequencing strategy. (a) to (c) Plots of the three context methylation profiles at 24-PHAS in the dcl5-1 682 683 mutant (blue line) and the control plants (red line). (d) to (f) Alterations in the methylation profiles at 24-PHAS in the ms23 mutant (purple line) and its control plants (gold line). 684 685 From (a) to (f), TSS indicates the transcription start site, CS indicates the microRNA cleavage site in the precursor RNA transcript, and TTS indicates the transcription 686 687 termination site. MS (dcl5) and MS (ms23) indicates the male sterile dcl5-1 or ms23 mutant, while F (*dcl5*) and F (*ms23*) represents the controls for *dcl5-1* and *ms23* mutants. 688 689 Under the p-value < 0.001 as threshold, the significant bins were highlighted in grey background in (c) and (f). Only *PHAS* loci ($N = 117 \sim 120$, different numbers for each plot) 690 with >5 mapped reads were used for calculation, and the methylation level of each bin was 691 calculated using the weighted DNA methylation computing method (#C/(#C+#T)) 692 693 (Schultz et al., 2012). (g) Heatmap plot of CHH DNA methylation levels for the dcl5-Differentially Methylated Regions (DMRs identified between the dcl5-1 mutant and 694 its control plants) and ms23-DMRs (DMRs identified between the ms23 mutant and its 695 control plants). All DMRs identified in 24-PHAS loci were included in this analysis. The 696 label changing from white to dark blue color indicates increasing CHH methylation (%). 697 MS refers to male-sterile mutants, and F refers to the control plants. 698

Figure 3. DNA methylation levels at 24-*PHAS* loci in the *dcl5-1* mutant and its
control plants in maize pre-meiotic (0.5 and 1.0 mm), and meiotic 2.0 mm anthers.

702 Deep coverage data were generated using the sequence capture bisulfite-sequencing strategy. (a) to (c) Plot of the three context methylation profiles at 24-PHAS loci in the 703 704 control plants of the *dcl5-1* mutant in 0.5 (orange line), 1.0 (purple line), and 2.0 mm (red line) stage anthers. (d) to (f) Plot of the three context methylation profiles at 24-PHAS loci 705 706 in the *dcl5-1* mutant in the 0.5 (light green line), 1.0 (pink line), and 2.0 mm (light blue line) stage anthers. From (a) to (f), plots were compiled using the same strategy as 707 708 described for Fig. 2a-f. TSS, transcription start site; CS, the miR2275 cleavage site in the precursor RNA transcript; and TTS, transcription termination site. Under the p-value < 709 710 0.001 as threshold, the significant bins were highlighted in grey background (between 1.0 and 2.0 mm) and orange background (between 0.5 and 2.0 mm) (g) Heatmap plot of CHH 711 DNA methylation levels for the *dcl5*-DMRs identified between the *dcl5-1* mutant and its 712 control plants at the 2.0 mm stage at all three stages. The label changing from white to 713 714 dark blue color indicates increasing CHH methylation (%). MS refers to male-sterile, and 715 F refers to control plants.

Figure 4. High CHH DNA methylation at 24-*PHAS* loci requires abundant 24-nt small RNAs in maize.

719 (a) CHH DNA methylation levels of 5 subgroups of 24-PHAS with different levels of small RNA abundance in the control plants of the *dcl5-1* mutant. All detected 151 720 721 24-PHAS loci were divided into 5 subgroups, with their phasiRNA abundance ranging from 10^2 to 10^3 , 10^3 to 10^4 , 10^4 to 10^5 , 10^5 to 10^6 , and 10^6 to 10^7 reads. Correspondingly, 722 723 the number of analyzable 24-PHAS loci is 8, 24, 51, 48, and 10, while the numbers of un-analyzable examples are 2, 4, 3, 1, and 0. The CHH DNA methylation level was 724 calculated by weighted DNA methylation for two adjacent 50 bp windows with the 725 highest CHH DNA methylation level at the PHAS. MS indicates the dcl5-1 or ms23 726 727 mutant, while F (dcl5) and F (ms23) represent the control plants for dcl5-1 and ms23 mutants. Boxplot encloses the 25 - 75th percentiles (interquartile range); bold black line is 728 the median; the whiskers refer to values greater than interquartile range excluding outliers; 729 black dots refer to outliers. (b) Heatmap of 24-nt small RNA abundance calculated by 730 731 reads per million (RPM, blue scale) and CHH DNA methylation levels (red) for each analyzable 24-PHAS (N = 120). The expression level of 24-nt phasiRNAs in the ms23732 mutant and its control was calculated based on the published sRNA-seq data from Zhai et 733 al., 2015. The control for *dcl5-1* shows the loci ranked by DNA methylation level, and the 734 other seven rows correspond to this order. (c) A view of 24-nt small RNA and CHH DNA 735 methylation patterns in control plants and two mutants across 24-PHAS NO291 locus and 736 flanking 200 bp regions. The top four graphs display the 24-nt siRNA abundance with 737 discontinuous line by reads per million (RPM), while the bottom four graphs show the 738 CHH DNA methylation percent in analyzable windows at *PHAS* loci. Each gray box 739 indicates a dcl5- or ms23-DMR. Dotted lines indicate the microRNA cleavage site. 740 741 Vertical gray bars represent 24 nt spacing.

742

744	Figure 5. PhasiRNA abundances, CHH DNA methylation, and phased patterns
745	across the 24- <i>PHAS_</i> NO210 and 24- <i>PHAS_</i> NO296 loci in four genotypes at the 2.0
746	mm stage of maize anthers.
747	(a-b) phasiRNA abundance across the loci 24- <i>PHAS_</i> NO210 (a) and 24- <i>PHAS_</i> NO296 (b)
748	in the dcl5-1 and ms23 mutant, and their controls. (c-d) Phased patterns at
749	24-PHAS_NO210 (c) and 24-PHAS_NO296 (d) in the dcl5-1 and ms23 mutant, and their
750	controls. Dotted lines indicate the microRNA cleavage site. Vertical gray bars represent
751	24 nt spacing. MS indicates the <i>dcl5-1</i> or <i>ms23</i> mutant, while F (<i>dcl5</i>) and F (<i>ms23</i>)
752	represent the control plants for <i>dcl5-1</i> and <i>ms23</i> mutants. (e) Comparison of CHH DNA
753	methylation of the abundant 24-nt phasiRNA positions (this corresponds to the peak
754	region with super highly expressed 24-nt phasiRNA(s)) and other regions (with no or
755	lowly expressed 24-nt phasiRNAs) at the 24-PHAS. One hundred and forty 24-PHAS loci
756	were used here. (f) Comparison of 24-nt small abundance from the abundant 24-nt
757	phasiRNA positions and other regions on 24-PHAS loci. Boxplot encloses the 25 - 75th
758	percentiles (interquartile range); bold black line is the median; the whiskers refer to values
759	greater than interquartile range excluding outliers; black dots refer to outliers. One
760	hundred and fifty-one 24-PHAS loci were used here.

Supporting Information

Fig S1. CG and CHG DNA methylation profiles in the transcribed regions and 2 kb before and 2 kb after the 21-*PHAS*, 24-*PHAS*, protein-coding genes, and transposons (TEs).

Fig S2. DNA methylation levels across the 21-*PHAS* transcribed regions and flanking 200 bp regions in the CG, CHG, and CHG contexts at the 2.0 mm stage of the *dcl5-1* mutants (MS) and its controls (F) in a family segregating 3:1 for sterile individuals.

Fig S3. DNA methylation levels at 24-*PHAS* and 21-*PHAS* transcribed regions and flanking 200 bp regions in 2.0 mm anthers.

Fig S4. DNA methylation levels within the transcribed regions and flanking 200 bp regions of 381 to 400 21-*PHAS* loci (analyzed based on presence in a dataset) in the CG, CHG, and CHG contexts in 2.0 mm anthers.

Fig S5. Differentially methylated region (DMR) counts at 24-*PHAS* and 21-*PHAS* loci with *dcl5*- or *ms23*-DMRs at the 2.0 mm stage.

Fig S6. CHH DNA methylation distribution of DMRs specific to *dcl5-1* mutant, shared by *dcl5-1* and *ms23* samples, and *ms23*-specific DMRs.

Fig S7. DNA methylation levels at 21-*PHAS* loci in the *dcl5-1* mutant and its control in pre-meiotic (0.5 and 1.0 mm), and meiotic 2.0 mm anthers.

Fig S8. Comparison of 24-nt phasiRNA abundance for 49 24-*PHAS* with *dcl5*-DMR(s) and 71 24-*PHAS* without detectable DMR(s).

Fig S9. Distribution of 24-nt small RNAs and 24-*PHAS* with *dcl5-* or *ms23-*DMRs across 24-*PHAS* loci plus the 200 bp flanking regions in the *dcl5-1* and *ms23* mutants and their fertile controls.

Fig S10. A view of 24-nt small RNA and CHH DNA methylation patterns in two mutants, *dcl5-1* and *ms23*, and their fertile controls across locus 24-PHAS_NO132 and its 200 bp flanking regions.

Fig S11. Correlation between the abundance of 24-nt phasiRNAs and CHH methylation level at 24-*PHAS*.

Fig S12. 24-nt small RNA distribution plotted across the transcribed regions of the 24-*PHAS_*NO173 and 24-*PHAS_*NO203 loci in the control (F) of the *dcl5-1* mutant at the 2.0 mm stage.

Fig S13. Abundance of 24-nt phasiRNAs from 151 24-PHAS loci in the 2.0 mm anthers.

Fig S14. The expression levels of all 24-*PHAS* loci in the two replicates of the *dcl5-1* mutants and its control plants.

Table S1. Summary of whole genome bisulfite sequencing, sequence capturebisulfite-sequencing, sRNA-seq, and RNA-seq libraries newly generated in this study.

Table S2. CHH DNA methylation levels of each *dcl5-* and *ms23-*DMR in the 2.0 mm *dcl5-1* and *ms23* mutants and their fertile controls.

Table S3. 24-nt sRNA abundance and CHH methylation level of analyzable 24-PHAS loci.

Table S4. Updated list of 186 24-*PHAS* in maize (RefB73_v4) with the 24-nt small RNA abundance calculated by reads per million (RPM) on each locus in the four genotypes.

Table S5. The largest phasing score of certain 24-nt phasiRNA on each 24-PHAS in the*dcl5-1* and *ms23* mutants, as well as their controls.

This article is protected by copyright. All rights reserved





nph_17060_f2.tiff





