# Plant Physiology Preview. Published on June 1, 2020, as DOI:10.1104/pp.20.00374

1 **Short Title:** Cloning of a kernel size QTL in maize 2 3 Corresponding author: Jianbing Yan (email: yjianbing@mail.hzau.edu.cn) and David 4 Jackson (jacksond@cshl.edu) 5 Tel: +86 27 87280110 6 National Key Laboratory of Crop Genetic Improvement, No.1 Shizishan Street, Hongshan 7 District, Wuhan, Hubei 430070, China. 8 9 **Title** The kernel size-related quantitative trait locus qKW9 encodes a pentatricopeptide repeat 10 11 protein that affects photosynthesis and grain filling 12 13 Author names and affiliations Juan Huang<sup>1</sup>, Gang Lu<sup>1</sup>, Lei Liu<sup>1,2</sup>, Mohammad Sharif Raihan<sup>1</sup>, Jieting Xu<sup>1,3</sup>, Liumei Jian<sup>1</sup>, 14 Lingxiao Zhao<sup>4,5</sup>, Thu M. Tran<sup>2,6</sup>, Qinghua Zhang<sup>1</sup>, Jie Liu<sup>1</sup>, Wenqiang Li<sup>1</sup>, Cunxu Wei<sup>4</sup>, David 15 M. Braun<sup>6</sup>, Qing Li<sup>1</sup>, Alisdair R. Fernie<sup>7</sup>, David Jackson<sup>1,2,\*</sup>, Jianbing Yan<sup>1,\*</sup> 16 17 18 <sup>1</sup>National Key Laboratory of Crop Genetic Improvement, Huazhong Agricultural University, 19 Wuhan 430070, China 20 <sup>2</sup>Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, Cold Spring Harbor, NY, USA. 21 <sup>3</sup>Wimi Biotechnology Co., Ltd, 4th Floor, Kejizhuanhua building, No. 3 Meishan Road, 22 Xinbei District, Changzhou City, Jiangsu Province, China 23 <sup>4</sup>Jiangsu Key Laboratory of Crop Genetics and Physiology, Co-Innovation Center for Modern 24 Production Technology of Grain Crops, Yangzhou University, Yangzhou 225009, China 25 <sup>5</sup>Jiangsu Xuzhou Sweetpotato Research Center, Xuzhou, Jiangsu, China 26 <sup>6</sup>Division of Biological Sciences, Interdisciplinary Plant Group, Missouri Maize Center, 27 University of Missouri, Columbia, MO 65211, USA

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53					
54	Abstract				
55	In maize (Zea mays), kernel weight is an important component of yield, which has been				
56	selected during domestication. Many genes associated with kernel weight have been identified 2				

57	through mutant analysis. Most are involved in the biogenesis and functional maintenance of
58	organelles or other fundamental cellular activities. However, few quantitative trait loci (QTL)
59	underlying quantitative variation in kernel weight have been cloned. Here, we characterize a
60	QTL, $qKW9$ , which is associated with maize kernel weight. This QTL encodes a DYW motif
61	pentatricopeptide repeat protein involved in C-to-U editing of ndhB, a subunit of the
62	chloroplast NADH dehydrogenase-like complex. In a null qkw9 background, C-to-U editing of
63	ndhB was abolished, and photosynthesis was reduced, which resulted in less maternal
64	photosynthate available for grain filling. Characterization of $qKW9$ highlights the importance
65	of optimizing photosynthesis for maize grain yield production.
66	Keywords
67	Kernel weight; maize yield; QTL; photosynthesis; Cyclic electron transport; C-to-U editing;

#### INTRODUCTION

NDH complex

Maize (*Zea mays*) is one of the most important crops in the world, producing grain vital for our survival. Along with population growth, environmental deterioration, the decline of arable land and climate change challenge us to increase maize grain production. Therefore, the improvement of maize yield is of great importance to the sustainable development of human society.

The grain yield of maize is comprised of several components, including ear number per plant, kernel number per cob, and kernel weight. As an essential yield component, kernel weight is positively correlated with yield, and is determined during development by kernel size and the degree of kernel filling (Scanlon and Takacs, 2009). To dissect the genetic architecture of maize kernel weight, numerous studies have identified hundreds of quantitative trait loci (QTL) for kernel traits (<a href="www.maizegdb.org/qtl">www.maizegdb.org/qtl</a>). However, only a few kernel size QTL have been cloned and studied, and some maize kernel weight genes have been identified as homologs of rice genes (Li et al., 2010a; Li et al., 2010b; Liu et al., 2015). In one large-scale QTL study in maize, 729 QTL regulating kernel weight-related traits were

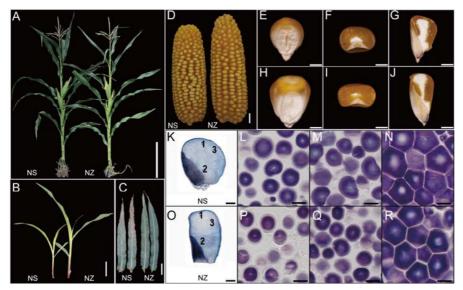
identified, and 24 of 30 genes were in, or tightly linked to, 18 rice grain size genes, suggesting
conserved genetic architecture of kernel weight(Liu et al., 2017b). One example is teosinte
glume architecture1 (tga1), the causal gene underlying the change from encased kernels in
the wild progenitor teosinte to naked kernels in maize(Wang et al., 2005; Wang et al., 2015).
Reducing expression of tgal in maize by RNAi greatly increases kernel size and weight,
suggesting that the removal of glumes from teosinte could release growth constraints, and
provide more space to allow larger kernels to develop (Wang et al., 2015). Another kernel
size gene, ZmSWEET4c, affects kernel weight in a different manner, with its product
mediating sugar transport across the basal endosperm transfer cell layer, and shows signals of
selection during domestication (Sosso et al., 2015). Recently a further gene, BARELY ANY
MERISTEM1d (ZmBAM1d) was identified as an additional QTL responsible for kernel weight
variation in maize (Yang et al., 2019).
Despite limited progress on our understanding of the quantitative variation in maize
kernel weight, numerous kernel mutants have been identified (Neuffer and Sheridan, 1980;
Clark and Sheridan, 1991). These mutants have been grouped into three categories: (i)
defective kernel (dek) mutations, including empty pericarp (emp) mutants that affect both
endosperm and embryo; (ii) embryo-specific (emb) mutations with healthy endosperm
formation; and (iii) endosperm-specific mutations (McCarty, 2017). Mutants in categories i
and ii have detrimental effects, leading to substantial loss of kernel weight. Several of these
maize kernel development genes have been identified. For instance, EMP10 (Cai et al., 2017),
EMP11 (Ren et al., 2017), EMP12 (Sun et al., 2019), EMP16 (Xiu et al., 2016), DEK35 (Chen
et al., 2017), and DEK37 (Dai et al., 2018) are involved in intron splicing of mitochondrial
genes. In contrast, MPPR6 functions in maturation and translation initiation of mitochondrial
ribosomal protein subunit mRNA(Manavski et al., 2012). Mutations of these genes impair
mitochondral function, leading to defective kernels. Other genes, including EMP7 (Sun et al.,
2015), DEK10 (Qi et al., 2017), DEK39 (Li et al., 2018), PPR2263/MITOCHONDRIAL
EDITING FACTOR29 (Sosso et al., 2012), and SMALL KERNEL1 (Li et al., 2014) function in
C-to-U editing of transcripts in mitochondria and chloroplasts.

Many kernel size genes encode pentatricopeptide repeat (PPR) proteins, a large family
of RNA-binding proteins in land plants, with more than 400 members in Arabidopsis
(Arabidopsis thaliana), rice (Oryza sativa), and maize (Zea mays) (Lurin et al., 2004;
Schmitz-Linneweber and Small, 2008; Barkan and Small, 2014). Members of the PPR family
are characterized by tandem arrays of a degenerate 35-amino-acid motif (PPR motif), and the
PPR family is divided into P and PLS subfamilies, according to the nature of the PPR motifs.
Members of the P subfamily function in various processes of RNA maturation in organelles,
including RNA stabilization, splicing, intergenic RNA cleavage, and translation (Barkan and
Small, 2014). The PLS subfamily contains canonical PPR (P) motifs, as well as long (L) and
short (S) PPR-like motifs, in a P-L-S pattern. This subfamily is further divided into PLS,
E/E+, and DYW classes, based on their C-terminal domains (Barkan and Small, 2014). PLS
subfamily members function in RNA editing (Barkan and Small, 2014), a post-transcriptional
modification of organelle transcripts, including C-to-U, U-to-C and A-to-I editing
(Chateigner-Boutin and Small, 2010; Ruwe et al., 2013; Ruwe et al., 2019).
Kernel size and carbohydrate import into kernels directly determine the grain yield of
maize, therefore, elucidation of the genetic basis of kernel traits could provide favorable
alleles to enhance maize breeding. In a previous study, a maize recombinant inbred line (RIL)
population was developed from a cross between two diverse parents, Zheng58 and SK (Small
Kernel), which show dramatic variation in kernel weight; and a major kernel weight QTL,
qKW9, was identified (Raihan et al., 2016; Yang et al., 2019). In this study, we mapped and
cloned the causative gene underlying $qKW9$ , and identified it as a PLS-DYW type PPR protein
coding gene. We found that qKW9 is required for C-to-U editing at position 246 of ndhB,
encodes a chloroplast-encoded subunit of the NADH dehydrogenase-like (NDH) complex.
Functional characterization revealed that C-to-U editing of ndhB is crucial for the
accumulation of its protein product as well as the activity of the NDH complex. Impairment of
this complex led to lower photosynthetic efficiency and a corresponding yield loss of maize in
field trials.

# RESULTS

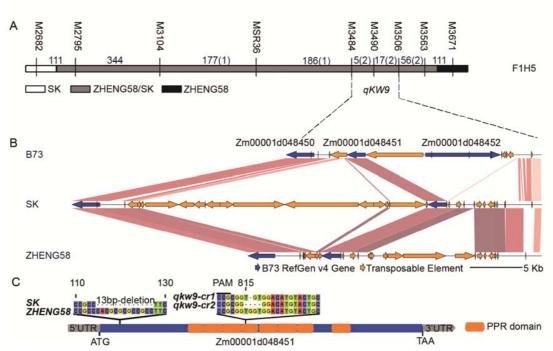
# Fine mapping and validation of qKW9

qKW9 is a major QTL regulating maize kernel weight identified in the ZHENG58×SK RIL
population (Raihan et al., 2016). Near-isogenic lines (NILs) harboring the qKW9 allele from
SK or ZHENG58 were screened from RIL-derived heterogeneous inbred families (HIFs) and
used to fine map $qKW9$ . In contrast to $dek$ mutants, which have dramatic kernel weight loss
due to defects in the embryo and/or endosperm, the NIL-SK kernels weighed only about 3g
less per hundred kernels, compared to NIL-ZHENG58, and their kernel morphology, starch
granule structure and plant morphology were similar (Figure 1A-R, Table S1). Thus, the
kernel development of NIL-SK plants was not strongly affected. Interestingly, two-week-old
seedlings of NIL-SK were smaller than NIL-ZHENG58, possibly as a result of less smaller
NIL-SK kernels that provided less nutrition to support their heterotrophic growth that relies
on seed derived nutrients (Figure 1B). However, at the mature stage, NIL-SK, and
NIL-ZHENG58 plants had similar plant architecture (Figure 1A and 1C). NIL-SK plants had
the same kernel row number but fewer kernels per row compared to NIL-ZHENG58 plants ,
resulting in smaller ears with fewer kernels (Figure 1D and Table 1).
In previous study, line KQ9-HZAU-1341-1 from ZHENG58×SK RIL population with
residual heterozygosity was used as founder line to fine map $qKW9.2$ (Raihan et al., 2016; Liu
et al., 2018). After three generations self-cross and screening against descendents of
KQ9-HZAU-1341-1, several recombinant HIFs were obtained. Among the HIFs, F1H5 was
used to generate recombination populations to screen for new recombinants to fine map $qKW9$
in this study. Eight recombinants was identified by screening 685 F1H5 descendents and they
were self-crossed for further analysis (Figure S1). By comparing Hundred Kernel Weight
(HKW) of the homozygous progenies from all recombinants, $qKW9$ was fine mapped to a $\sim$
20kb region defined by markers M3484 and M3506 (156.65Mb and 156.67Mb, respectively in
B73 RefGen v4) (Figure 2A and Fig S1). Three genes (Zm00001d04850, Zm00001d048451,
and Zm00001d048452) were annotated within this region in B73 RefGen v4 (Figure 2B).



gene, *Zm00001d048451*, had a 13bp deletion in coding sequence of SK, possibly leading to loss of function (Figure 2C). We failed to amplify the third gene, *Zm00001d048452*, from both SK and ZHENG58, and therefore, screened SK and ZHENG58 BAC libraries to search for sequence variation. However, sequence alignment and annotation revealed that *Zm00001d048452* was absent from both SK and ZHENG58, and there were no additional annotated genes within the *qKW9* locus, although there were some large-fragment insertions or deletions in the intergenic regions (Figure 2B). These results were further verified using the assembled SK genome (Yang et al., 2019). Of the two remaining candidates, *Zm00001d048450* displayed neither change in expression level nor pattern (Figure S2A), which together with its lack of non-synonymous SNPs suggested *Zm00001d048451* to be the causative gene of *qKW9*.

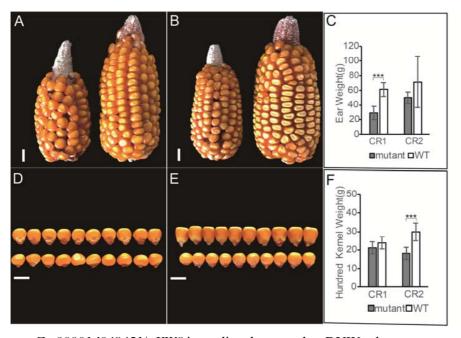
To validate Zm00001d048451 as the gene underlying qKW9, we adopted the CRISPR/Cas9 system to create knockout mutants (Figure 2C). Editing of qKW9 was identified by Sanger sequencing of  $T_0$  transgenic plants, and two null mutants, qkw9-cr1, carrying a 1bp-deletion, and qkw9-cr2, carrying a 4bp-deletion, were used for subsequent analysis (Figure 2C and Figure 3). For both alleles, we found that kernel weight and ear weight were reduced compared to their corresponding wild type (Figure 3), demonstrating that Zm00001d048451 was indeed the causative gene of qKW9.



Maize kernel weight is determined by endosperm development and grain filling after fertilization, and can be heavily influenced by maternal influences, such as supply of photosynthate from source tissues. To address if *qKW9* controls kernel weight by a maternal effect, we measured kernel weight from selfed ears of NIL-ZHENG58 or NIL-SK, as well as from reciprocal F1 ears NIL-ZHENG58×NIL-SK, or NIL-SK×NIL-ZHENG58. We also measured *qkw9-cr1/+* selfed and *qkw9-cr2/+* selfed (Figure S3A). The kernel weight was not significantly different between NIL-ZHENG58 selfed and NIL-ZHENG58×NIL-SK, as well as between between NIL-SK selfed and NIL-SK×NIL-ZHENG58 (Figure S3B). The kernels also showed uniform size on the ears of F1 (NIL-ZHENG58×NIL-SK), *qkw9-cr1/+* and *qkw9-cr2/+* selfed (Figure S3A). These results suggest that *qKW9* controls kernel weight majorly by the maternal effect, and the *qKW9* may play function in the maternal tissues.

qKW9 is highly expressed in leaf, and encodes a chloroplast protein involved in ndhB

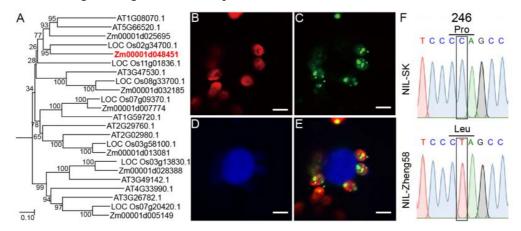
#### RNA editing



Zm00001d048451/qKW9 is predicted to encode a DYW subgroup pentatricopeptide repeat (PPR) protein with eight putative PPR motifs (Figure 2C). An Arabidopsis ortholog, AT5G66520 (Figure 4A) encodes a DYW subgroup protein with ten PPR motifs and was designated Chloroplast RNA Editing Factor 7 (CREF7), functioning in Ndh editing (Yagi et al., 2013). In order to address if qKW9 is also involved in chloroplast RNA editing, we analyzed its expression and subcellular localization. Real-time PCR of qKW9 revealed a considerably higher expression level in leaf than in other tissues (Figure S2B). qKW9 expression was detected in all leaf-related tissues, and its expression level (13.9-87.6 FPKM) was much higher than in other tissues (0-12.8 FPKM) (Stelpflug et al., 2016). To test the subcellular localization of qKW9, we transiently expressed a qKW9-GFP fusion protein in tobacco (N. tabacum), and found localization in the stroma of chloroplasts (Figure 4B–E), agreeing with a chloroplast prediction by TargetP (Emanuelsson et al., 2007).

To evaluate RNA editing by qKW9, leaves from NIL-SK and NIL-ZHENG58 plants before and after pollination were collected for total RNA sequencing. By comparing editing frequencies between NIL-SK and NIL-ZHENG58, six loci putatively edited by qKW9 were identified with p-value < 0.05 and mean editing frequency difference > 5% (Table 2). Three of these loci at chloroplast genome positions 90736, 132001, and 65407 (B73 RefGen v4), had

striking editing differences between NIL-SK and NIL-ZHENG58, with close to 100% editing in NIL-ZHENG58 but almost none in NIL-SK at all stages tested (Table 2). Position 65407 is in an intergenic region, whereas positions 90736 and 132001 are in the 246<sup>th</sup> codon of



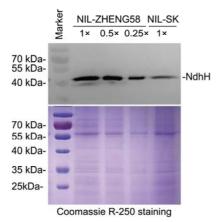
GRMZM5G876106 and GRMZM5G810298, respectively (Table 2). These genes are the two copies of *ndhB* in the chloroplast genome, and their C-to-U editing changes the 246<sup>th</sup> amino acid from proline to leucine. Thus, the sites edited by qKW9 were designated as *NdhB-246*. We confirmed the *NdhB-246* editing difference by Sanger sequencing in NIL-SK and NIL-ZHENG58 (Figure 4F). We also investigated the editing frequency of *ndhB-246* in leaves of our two CRISPR/Cas9 null mutants, as expected, *ndhB-246* editing being abolished in both mutants. These results demonstrate that *qKW9* is essential for *ndhB-246* editing.

RNA editing defects may directly alter protein function or affect its ability to form complexes with other proteins (Hammani et al., 2009). *ndhB* encodes a subunit of the NDH complex (Laughlin et al., 2019), so we asked if this complex accumulates in the null *qkw9* background using protein blots probed with antibodies against NdhH to monitor accumulation of the complex. In NIL-SK, the level of NdhH was reduced to less than 25% of NIL-ZHENG58 (Figure 5), suggesting that *ndhB-246* RNA editing by *qKW9* is important for normal accumulation of the NDH complex.

# C-to-U editing of *ndhB-246* is essential for optimal activity of NDH complex, electron transport rate and non-photochemical quenching induction

The chloroplast NADH dehydrogenase-like (NDH) complex transfers electrons

originating from Photosystem I (PSI) to the plastoquinone pool, while concomitantly pumping protons across the thylakoid membrane (Strand et al., 2017). Its activity can be monitored as a transient increase in chlorophyll fluorescence, reflecting plastoquinone



reduction after turning off actinic light (AL) (Burrows et al., 1998; Shikanai et al., 1998). In

Arabidopsis, several nuclear mutants affecting NDH activity function in RNA processing of

NDH subunit transcripts. For instance, Chlororespiratory Reduction 2 (CRR2) functions in

the intergenic processing of chloroplast RNA between rps7 and ndhB (Hashimoto et al.,

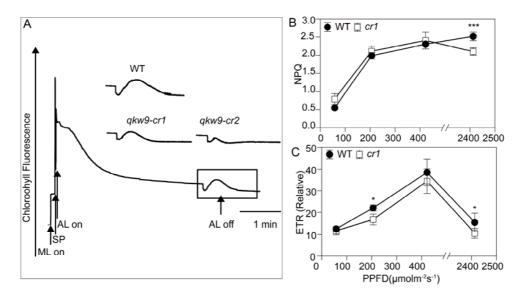
2003). A null allele of CRR2 lacks NDH activity, and the post-illumination increase in

chlorophyll fluorescence is undetectable, with a similar phenotype being observed in the

tobacco (*N. tabacum*) *ndhB* mutant (Hashimoto et al., 2003).

To check whether *qKW9* impaired NDH activity, we monitored chlorophyll fluorescence using the post-illumination method (Burrows et al., 1998; Shikanai et al., 1998). The measurement was conducted using the mature leaf beside the ear at the 30 days after pollination (DAP) in the normal field. Figure 6A shows a chlorophyll fluorescence trace from wild-type maize and *qkw9-cr1* and *qkw9-cr2*. In both *qkw9-cr1* and *qkw9-cr2*, the post-illumination increase of chlorophyll fluorescence was reduced, indicating that NDH activity was diminished in the null *qkw9* background, and that the Leu residue at position 246 of ndhB protein is required for NDH accumulation and activity. We next measured non-photochemical quenching (NPQ), a chlorophyll fluorescence parameter indicative of the level of thermal dissipation. NPQ was induced with increasing light intensity in both *qkw9*-cr1

and wild type prior to saturation of the ETR (Figure 6B). However, its induction in *qkw9*-cr1 was significantly lower at light intensities of 2413 μmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>, indicating that thermal dissipation was impaired in *qkw9*-cr1(Figure 6B). ETR represents the relative flow of



electrons through PSII during steady-state photosynthesis. It increases with increases in light intensity until a point at which it cannot be further increased – termed its saturation point. For both wild-type and qkw9-cr1, the saturation point was over 400  $\mu$ mol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> (Figure 6C). Whilst, ETR was not affected in qkw9-cr1 at a low light intensities of ~100  $\mu$ mol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> (Figure 6C), it tended to be lower in qkw9-cr1 at intensities above this (significantly so at 200 and 2400  $\mu$ mol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>). The ETR was also observed reducing when the light intensities increased from 400 to 2400  $\mu$ mol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>, which probably caused by the photodamage under high intensity of light. As the leaf senescence was greater in qkw9 than WT at 30 DAP, it was possible that the reduction in NPQ and ETR might be caused by more severe photodamage in the qkw9 null allele. These results also implied that the NDH-dependent photoprotection involved in photosynthesis maintenance to produce glucose for grain filling (Peterson et al., 2016), which is consistent with the overall reduced grain yield in NIL-SK considering that light intensity is far in excess of 100  $\mu$ mol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> in the field.

# qkw9 reduces kernel weight by affecting photosynthesis

Genetic evidence suggests that physiological functions of cyclic electron transport (CET)

around Photosystem I (PSI) are essential for efficient photosynthesis and plant growth (Munekage et al., 2004). The physiological role of CET is to protect PSII under intense light via  $\Delta pH$ -dependent thermal dissipation in PSII, as well as to act as an ATP generator in photosynthesis (DalCorso et al., 2008; Alric and Johnson, 2017). Our results suggest that reduced activity of the NDH complex in maize affected NPQ and ETR. We therefore asked how photosynthesis and carbon assimilation were affected by changes in NDH activity? We measured the fresh weight of developing kernels of NIL-SK and NIL-ZHENG58 under field conditions, and investigated several photosynthesis-related parameters (Figure 7). Fresh weight of NIL-SK kernels was similar to NIL-ZHENG58 before 30 DAP (Figure 7A). However, kernels of NIL-SK reached their maximum fresh weight at 30 DAP, while NIL-ZHENG58 kernels continued to gain weight until 35 DAP, suggesting that carbon deposition in kernels was greater in NIL-ZHENG58 at 35 DAP (Figure 7A). Consistent with this observation, leaves of NIL-SK had more severe senescence at 30 DAP compared to NIL-ZHENG58, indicating decreased source strength in the NIL-SK plants (Figure 1C). NIL-SK also had significantly lower net photosynthesis than NIL-ZHENG58 at 22 DAP and 30 DAP (Figure 7B). Consistently, stomatal conductance and transpiration rate were similarly lower in NIL-SK than in NIL-ZHENG58 (Figure 7C-7D). The lower photosynthetic capacity of NIL-SK, coupled with the potential compensatory fact that less kernels were produced per

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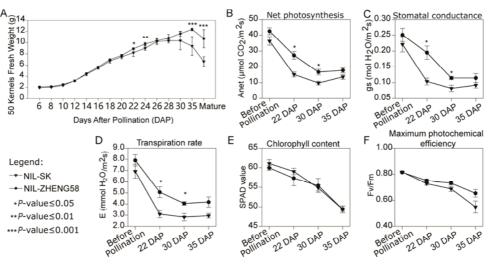
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ear in this line (Table 1), may explain why the fresh weight of NIL-SK were not significantly lower than NIL-ZHENG58 at 22 DAP and 30 DAP (Figure 7A). In addition, the chlorophyll content (SPAD value) and the maximum efficiency of PSII (Fv/Fm) were invariant between the NILs (Figure 7E-7F), indicating that the differences in the net photosynthetic rates might not result from a different level of photosynthesis potential. Accordingly, the photosynthetic rate was also significantly lower in *qKW9*-cr1 than WT at 30 DAP under field conditions (*qKW9*-cr1: 17.35±2.10 μmol CO<sub>2</sub>m<sup>-2</sup>s<sup>-1</sup>, Wild type: 29.68±3.56μmol CO<sub>2</sub> m<sup>-2</sup>s<sup>-1</sup>, *n*=6). We conclude that impaired NDH activity affected both net photosynthesis and the duration of active photosynthesis, resulting in smaller ears and kernels in NIL-SK. Although the lost of RNA editing of *ndhB* impacts photosynthesis in *qkw9* null allele, it doesn't affect the normal growth of plant, and the shorter duration of active photosynthesis may contract the growth cycle for rapid reproduction. So the null *qkw9* can be kept in the small kernel inbred line SK (Yang et al., 2019).





# **DISCUSSION**

# qKW9 encodes a PPR gene responsible for C-to-U editing of ndhB

The maize kernel has been of interest to researchers as a model system for the study of
development and genetics for a century. Numerous kernel mutants have been identified
(Neuffer and Sheridan, 1980; Sheridan and Neuffer, 1980; Clark and Sheridan, 1991), and in
recent years, many mutants that result in dramatically reduced kernel size, and seedling
lethality have been identified. In many cases, PPR genes are responsible for these phenotypes,
due to their function in organellar gene expression. Generally, null alleles of PPR genes in
previous studies produce kernels that are with obvious development abnormality at early stages
and are easily distinguished from normal kernels on self-crossed $F_1$ ears due to their smaller
size, pale pericarp, flat or shrunken appearance (Manavski et al., 2012; Sosso et al., 2012; Li et
al., 2014; Sun et al., 2015; Xiu et al., 2016; Cai et al., 2017; Chen et al., 2017; Qi et al., 2017;
Ren et al., 2017; Dai et al., 2018; Li et al., 2018; Sun et al., 2019). Unlike these kernel mutants,
kernels produced by null allele of $qKW9$ are similar in appearance and viability although
smaller in size comparing to wild type, and kernel weight is determined by genotype of
maternal plant rather than kernel genotype. $qKW9$ is the C-to-U editing factor in the maize
chloroplast that has a quantitative rather than qualitative effect on kernel and ear size. This
difference stems from the involvement of $qKW9$ in the abundance of the NDH complex, which
in known to play a regulatory role in photosynthesis (Nashilevitz et al., 2010; Peltier et al.,
2016; Peterson et al., 2016). Based on results from this study, it is possible that variants of
other yet-unidentified RNA editing factors responsible for the 11 C-to-U editing sites in maize
ndh transcripts will also affect kernel and ear size in a quantitative way. Indeed, studies in
Arabidopsis have identified many PPR genes affecting ndh expression, by focusing on
changes in chlorophyll fluorescence related to NDH activity (Kotera et al., $2005$ ; Okuda et al.,
2007; Hammani et al., 2009; Okuda et al., 2010).
Plastid genomes encode 11 subunits (NdhA to NdhK) forming the core of the membrane
arm of the L-shaped structure of the NDH complex (Laughlin et al., 2019). In Arabidopsis,
the PPR proteins, those regulate the <i>ndh</i> genes expression, are either responsible for splicing

of polycistronic transcripts, or site-specific C-to-U RNA editing (Hashimoto et al., 2003; Munekage et al., 2004; Kotera et al., 2005; Okuda et al., 2007; Hammani et al., 2009; Okuda et al., 2009; Okuda et al., 2010). C-to-U RNA editing is important in organelle gene expression in various organisms, although the efficiency varies in different organs and at different developmental stages (Maier et al., 1995; Peeters and Hanson, 2002). C-to-U RNA editing in Arabidopsis can generate translational initiation codons, as in *CRR4* (Kotera et al., 2005) or cause amino acid alterations, as in *CRR21*, *CRR22*, *CRR28*, *OTP82*, *OTP84* and *OTP85* (Okuda et al., 2007; Hammani et al., 2009; Okuda et al., 2009; Okuda et al., 2010). Editing of *ndhB-246* in leaf tissues is near 100% in maize, suggesting that it is important for the function of ndhB protein (Peeters and Hanson, 2002). *ndhB-246* editing also occurs in tobacco and rice (Tsudzuki et al., 2001). Therefore, C-to-U editing of *ndhB-246* appears crucial to its function. The *qKW9* QTL characterized in our study is the RNA editing factor that has been linked to C-to-U editing of *ndhB-246*. Our results clearly indicate that the abolition of C-to-U editing in *ndhB-246* impairs accumulation of the NDH complex *in vivo*.

#### NDH complex may play more important role in C<sub>4</sub> than C<sub>3</sub>

In the light reactions of photosynthesis, linear electron transport (LET) from water to NADP<sup>+</sup> does not fully satisfy the ATP/NADPH production ratio required by the Calvin-Benson cycle and photorespiration (Yin and Struik, 2018). Cyclic electron transport (CET) around photosystem I (PSI) has, therefore, been considered as a candidate for augmented ATP synthesis in response to fluctuating demand during photosynthesis (Rumeau et al., 2007; DalCorso et al., 2008; Nakamura et al., 2013). In PSI CET, electrons are recycled around PSI generating ΔpH and consequently ATP without a concomitant accumulation of NADPH (Shikanai, 2007; Munekage and Taniguchi, 2016). In Arabidopsis, two CET pathways have been identified by genetics, and the main pathway depends on PROTON GRADIENT REGULATION 5 (PGR5)/PGR5-LIKE PHOTOSYNTHETIC PHENOTYPE 1 (PGRL1) proteins, whereas the minor pathway is mediated by the chloroplast NADH dehydrogenase-like (NDH) complex (Munekage et al., 2002; Munekage et al., 2004; DalCorso et al., 2008). Chloroplast NDH mediation of CET around PSI was first reported in

tobacco following disruption of <i>ndhB</i> (Shikanai et al., 1998; Burrows et al., 1998). Knockout
lines of ndh genes were created by plastid transformation in tobacco. Mutants defective in
expression of chloroplast ndh genes were isolated in Arabidopsis (Hashimoto et al., 2003).
However, both knockout lines of ndh genes in tobacco and mutants with impaired NDH
activity in Arabidopsis lack morphological phenotypes (Hashimoto et al., 2003; Munekage et
al., 2004; Okuda et al., 2007; Hammani et al., 2009; Okuda et al., 2009; Okuda et al., 2010).
So, the general conclusion has been that mutants defective in NDH do not show a clear
phenotype and NDH is dispensable at least when plants are grown in controlled environments
in C <sub>3</sub> system. In the C <sub>4</sub> system, the maize Ndh mutant showed slower growth and
photosynthesis, reduced pigment levels, and substantial effects on indicators of PSII function,
compared to normal lines (Peterson et al., 2016). In the qkw9 null alleles, the impaired NDH
activity also resulted in smaller ears and kernels. The phenotype of maize Ndh mutant was
sugeested to be a secondary consequence of the much lower Bundle Sheath Cell CO2
concentrations attainable, and the lower Bundle Sheath Cell CO2 concentrations was also
observed in qkw9 null alleles (Figure 7B). CET around photosystem I is critical for balancing
the photosynthetic energy budget of the chloroplast by generating ATP without net production
of NADPH (Ishikawa et al., 2016a). C <sub>4</sub> plants have higher ATP requirements than C <sub>3</sub> plants
(Ishikawa et al., 2016b), rendering the ATP supply by CET particularly important, imply that
during the evolution of NADP-malic enzyme-type C <sub>4</sub> photosynthesis in the C <sub>4</sub> -like genus
Flaveria, CET was promoted by markedly increasing expression of both PGR5/PGRL1 and
NDH subunits (Nakamura et al., 2013). The NDH subunit, however, increases markedly in
bundle sheath cells with the activity of the C <sub>4</sub> cycle while PGR5/PGRL1 increases in both
mesophyll and bundle sheath cells in Flaveria and other C4 species, implying that the NDH
complex provides a considerable role in the establishment of C <sub>4</sub> photosynthesis (Nakamura et
al., 2013). Previously, it was also shown that NDH plays a central role in driving the
CO <sub>2</sub> -concentrating mechanism in C <sub>4</sub> photosynthesis (Takabayashi et al., 2005; Andrews,
2010; Peterson et al., 2016). In addition, the NDH complex has been experimentally
demonstrated to be a high-efficiency proton pump, increasing ATP production by cyclic

electron transport (Strand et al., 2017). Ishikawa et al. report that NDH-suppressed  $C_4$  plants are characterized by consistently decreased  $CO_2$  assimilation rates, impaired proton translocation across the thylakoid membrane and reduced growth rates (Ishikawa et al., 2016a), which was also been observed in the maize Ndh mutants (Peterson et al., 2016). Therefore, our study of qKW9 also provides a possible explanation for the apparent contradiction of these observations, in suggesting that the NDH complex is more important in  $C_4$  than in  $C_3$  plants on photosynthetic efficiency, which is consistent with previous study by using maize Ndh mutants (Peterson et al., 2016).

#### The photosynthetic efficiency is crittical for the grain productivity of crops

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Grains are typical sink organs -i.e. they are net receivers of photoassimilates from photosynthetically active source tissues - and a considerable number of studies suggest that enhancing photosynthetic efficiency could increase the productivity of crops (Sonnewald and Fernie, 2018; South et al., 2019; Wu et al., 2019). In the qkw9 null allele, the overall rate of photosynthesis was reduced, which might be caused by lower accumulation of the NDH complex (Figure 5) as its critical function on CO<sub>2</sub> concentration (Peterson et al., 2016), that lead to significantly reduced ear and kernel size. As in maize Ndh mutants, the NPQ was also significantly affected in qkw9 null allele NIL-SK, but the influence was minor, the possible reason is that the chlorophyll fluorescence is mainly from mesophyll cells and indirectly impacted by mild reduction in CO<sub>2</sub> fixation in bundle sheath cells (Figure 7B) (Peterson et al., 2016). However, the qkw9 null allele plants displayed higher levels of leaf senescence in the late stage of grain filling, a phenomenon that may result from the photoprotective quenching by the NDH-dependent H+-translocating cyclic pathway in the mesophyll cell chloroplasts (Peterson et al., 2016). This matched the stage when NIL-SK plants had lower fresh kernel weight than NIL-ZHENG58 plants (Fig 7A). This result suggests that NDH-dependent photoprotection is also critical for the maintenance of photosynthesis and therefore continued production of glucose for grain filling. As such the enhancement of NDH-dependent photoprotection may extend the time window of photosynthesis and grain filling after pollination, and thereby lead to a higher grain yield production. This study thus further

confirms current models of the role of the NDH in C4 photosynthesis, and suggests a novel potential strategy for crop improvement.

#### MATERIALS AND METHODS

#### Fine mapping of qKW9

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Multiple major QTL regulating kernel-size-related traits were identified by multi-environment QTL analysis in ZHENG58×SK RIL population and a major QTL on chromosome 9 regulating kernel width was designated as qKW9 in a previous report (Raihan et al., 2016). The Zheng58 is an elite inbred line used widely in commercial maize breeding program in china, in contrast, the SK inbred line selected from tropical landraces with a very small kernel size (Raihan et al., 2016) and its genome was well assembled recently (Yang et al., 2019). To fine-map qKW9, the heterogeneous inbred family (HIF) was screened against the RIL population and RIL line KQ9-HZAU-1341-1 was heterozygous between Marker M2682 (155.83Mb in B73 Ref Gen v4) and Marker M3671 (156.83Mb in B73 Ref Gen v4) was used as the founder HIF (Raihan et al., 2016). In a nursery grown in Hainan in 2015, two groups of homozygous progenies of F1H5, which was a descendant of line KQ9-HZAU-1341-1, were significantly different in hundred kernel weight (HKW), kernel length (KL), and kernel width (KW). Thus, F1H5 was used as the starting HIF to fine map qKW9 in this study. In the summer of 2016, recombinants between Marker M2795 and Marker M3671 were screened against the F1H5 population. In the winter of 2016, progeny tests were conducted on those recombinant populations. For genotyping, genomic DNA extraction from young leaf was conducted using the CTAB protocol for plant tissues. To detect SNP and Indel markers, PCR was conducted in 10 µL reactions with KASP master mix (cat no: KBS-1030-002, LGC), self-made KASP array mix, and DNA template in 96 well non-transparent plates. KASP array mix was made by mixing equal volumes of primer F1 (36 μM), F2 (36 μM), and R (90 μM) of a specific SNP marker. For each reaction, 0.14 μL array mix, 1×master mix, and 20~200 ng DNA were used. Thermal cycling was 94°C for 15 minutes to activate the enzyme, followed by 10 cycles of touch down PCR (denature at 94°C for 20 s, annealing/elongation start with 61°C for 60 s, drop 0.6°C per

447	cycle), then annealing/elongation for another 26-36 cycles depending on the quality of primers					
448	(denature at 94°C for 20 s, annealing/elongation at 55°C for 60 s). Upon the completion of the					
449	KASP PCR, reaction plates were read by CFX96 Touch <sup>TM</sup> Real-time PCR detection system					
450	and the data was then analysed with the Allelic Discrimination module of BioRad CFX					
451	Manager 3.0. Detected signals were plotted against FAM and HEX fluorescence intensity as a					
452	graph, with samples of the same genotype clustering together. To detect SSR markers, PCF					
453	products were detected by AATI Fragment Analyzer following the manufacturer's instructions					
454	The primers used for mapping $qKW9$ were listed in Supplemental Table S1.					
455	Maize plants were examined under natural field conditions in the experimental fields of					
456	Wuhan (30°N, 114°E), Sanya (18°N, 109°E), and Baoding (39°N, 115°E) in China. The					
457	planting density was 25 cm between adjacent plants in a row and the rows were 60 cm apart.					
458	Field management, including irrigation, fertilizer application, and pest control, essentially					
459	followed the normal agricultural practices. Harvested maize ears were air-dried and then					
460	fully-developed ears were shelled for measuring HKW, KL, and KW as previously reported					
461	(Raihan et al., 2016). The t-test with two-tailed and two-sample was used to analyze the					
462	phenotype data.					
463	Bacterial artificial chromosome (BAC) screen, sequence, and de novo assembly					
464	BACs covering $qKW9$ of both parent lines-SK and ZHENG58- were screened. BAC DNA					
465	was prepared using the QIAGEN Large-Construct Kit (Cat no: 12462) following the					
466	manufacturer's instructions but with 150ml overnight-cultured bacterial input. The recovered					
467	DNA was sent to a company (Nextomics Bioscience Co., Ltd, Wuhan, China) for quality					
468	control and library construction. The resulting sequence data was assembled by PacBio's					
469	open-source SMRT Analysis software.					
470	Fresh weight during the filling stage					
471	NILs derived from homozygous progenies of HIF-p11 were used to analyze the grain					
472	filling rate of developing kernels after pollination. NILs with the $qKW9$ allele of SK designated					
473	as NIL-SK while NILs with the qKW9 allele of ZHENG58 designated as NIL-ZHENG58.					

475	from 6 ears of each NIL every other day until 30 DAP. At 35 DAP and upon harvest fresh					
476	kernels were also weighed. The t-test with two-tailed and two-sample was used to analyze the					
477	fresh weight data.					
478	Mutagenesis of qKW9 with CRISPR/Cas9-based gene editing					
479	Two guide RNA sequences (cggtggtggacatgtactg and ctgttctggggatccagct) against qKW9					
480	were designed by CRISPR-P 2.0 (http://crispr.hzau.edu.cn/CRISPR2/) then cloned into a					
481	CRISPR/Cas9 plant expression vector (Liu et al., 2017a). The backbone of the vector was					
482	provided by WIMI Biotechnology Co., Ltd (Changzhou, China). The vector allows expression					
483	of single guide RNA by the ZmU61 promoter and Cas9 by a maize UBI promoter. The					
484	resulting binary plasmids were transformed into the Agrobacterium tumefaciens strain					
485	EHA105 and used to transform maize inbred C01. All constructs were sequence-verified. The					
486	primers for the genotyping of CRISPR mutants were listed in Supplemental Table S1. Ear					
487	weight and kernel weight of CRISPR null alleles and wild type were measure and analyzed by					
488	t-test with two-tailed and two-sample.					
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490	Light Microscopy					
491	Whole sections of mature kernels were stained with iodine solution using the method in a					
492	previous report (Zhao et al., 2016). Three different regions of endosperm were examined for					
493	the morphology of starch.					
494	Subcellular localization of qKW9					
495	Zm00001d048451 was predicted to locate in chloroplast by TargetP (Emanuelsson et al.,					
496	2007). To verify this, a codon-optimized CDS (optimized by a web tool -					
497	https://www.genscript.com/codon_opt_pr.html) was fused with green fluorescent protein (GFP)					
498	and driven by expression from the cauliflowner mosaic virus 35S promoter. The binary					
499	vector-pK7FWG2.0-was obtained from Dr. Hannes Claeys (Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory,					
500	USA). The plasmids containing the chimeric genes were transferred into Agrobacterium					
501	tumefaciens strain GV3101. The resulting strain was co-infiltrated into tobacco (N. tabacum)					
502	leaves with a strain harboring P19 which was obtained from Dr. Edgar Demesa Arevalo (Cold					

503	Spring Harbor Laboratory, USA) (Lindbo, 2007). Fluorescence signals were detected using
504	LSM780. DAPI (4,6-diamidino-2-phenylindole) staining solution
505	(http://cshprotocols.cshlp.org/content/2007/1/pdb.rec10850.full?text_only=true) was injected
506	to the leaf before observing the fluorescence signals. Agrobacterium growth and injection
507	followed the steps described in a previous report (Xu et al., 2015). The primers for building the
508	vector were listed in Supplemental Table S1.
509	Phylogenetic analysis
510	To identify the PPR genes in maize B73 RefGen v4, protein sequences of B73 RefGen
511	v4 genes were downloaded from ftp://ftp.gramene.org/pub/gramene/ (B73 RefGen v4.59).
512	Then HMMER 3.0 software (Finn et al., 2011) was used to scan all of the annotated
513	Pentatricopeptide Repeat genes in B73 RefGen v4 with the Midden Markov (HMM) profile
514	of PPR domain (PF01535.20, http://pfam.sanger.ac.uk/) (E-value < 1). Based on the
515	C-terminal domain structure, the HMM profiles of E, E+, and DYW domain were rebuilt
516	using the previously predicted PPR genes in B73 RefGen v3. Then these HMM profiles were
517	used to scan the PPR genes annotated in B73 RefGen v4
518	$(ftp://ftp.gramene.org/pub/gramene/CURRENT\_RELEASE/gff3/zea\_mays/gene\_function).$
519	Then TargetP version 1.1 (http://www.cbs.dtu.dk/services/TargetP/) was used to predict the
520	organelle targeting of these E, E+, and DYW types PPR proteins. Only the chloroplast
521	targeting genes were kept to conduct the evolutionary analysis with their orthologous genes
522	in Arabidopsis and rice
523	$(https://download.maizegdb.org/Zm-B73-REFERENCE-GRAMENE-4.0/Orthologs/).\ The$
524	evolutionary history was inferred using the Neighbor-Joining method (Saitou and Nei, 1987)
525	by MEGAX (Kumar et al., 2018). The bootstrap consensus tree inferred from 500 replicates
526	was taken to represent the evolutionary history of the taxa analyzed (Felsenstein, 1985).
527	Photosynthetic parameters and chlorophyll content measurements
528	Carbon dioxide assimilation rate, stomatal conductance, and transpiration rate were
529	measured on fully-expanded maize leaves grown in the field using a portable gas exchange

system (LI-6400XT, LI-COR Inc., USA) as described (Huang et al., 2009; Bihmidine et al., 2013). The measurements were conducted at an ambient  $CO_2$  concentration of 400 µmol  $mol^{-1}$  and light saturation of 2000 µmol  $m^{-2}$  s<sup>-1</sup>. Leaf photochemical efficiency (Fv/Fm) was measured on dark-adapted leaves using the FlourPen FP100 chlorophyll fluorescence meter (Photon System Instruments, Czech Republic). Leaf chlorophyll content was measured using a chlorophyll meter (SPAD-502, Konica Minolta, Japan). The measurements were performed before pollination and at 22, 30, and 35 days after pollination (DAP) on eight NIL-SK plants or NIL-ZHENG58 plants. Means and standard errors (SE) were calculated using Microsoft Excel. Differences in chlorophyll content and photosynthetic parameters were assessed using the Student's *t*-test embedded in the Microsoft Excel program, at the *P*-value  $\leq$  0.05 level.

#### **RNA sequencing**

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To explore the possible RNA editing in leaf by the PPR gene, the ear leaves from NIL-SK and NIL-ZHENG58 plants before pollination and after pollination (22 days and 30 days) were collected. Total RNA was isolated from these samples using Direct-zol RNA MiniPrep Plus kit (Cat no: R2072, ZYMO Research, USA). Libraries were constructed using the Illumina TruSeq Stranded RNA Kit (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA) following the manufacturer's recommendations. Strand-specific sequencing was performed on the Illumina HiSeq 2000 system (paired-end 100-bp reads). The raw reads were trimmed by Trimmomatic v0.36 (Bolger et al., 2014) to gain high-quality clean reads, and the quality of the clean reads was checked using the FASTOC program (Andrews, 2010). Next the clean reads were aligned to maize B73 RefGen v4 chloroplast genome by Hisat2 (Kim et al., 2015). Picard tools were subsequently used groups, sort. mark duplicates, (http://broadinstitute.github.io/picard/). Then the GATK was used to call the sequence variants by HaplotypeCaller (McKenna et al., 2010). The ratio of edited allele reads count/total reads count served as editing frequency for each site and the significance of editing frequency difference between NIL-SK and NIL-ZHENG58 was estimated by pairwise t-test with a threshold P-value < 0.05. Only the loci with a mean editing frequency difference over 5%

between NIL-SK and NIL-ZHENG58 were treated as possibly RNA editing sites being affected by *qKW9*.

#### RNA extraction and qPCR

Total RNA was extracted from various plant tissues except leaf using RNA extraction kit (Cat no: 0416-50, Huayueyang, China). cDNA was synthesized from the extracted RNA using the TransScript One-Step gDNA Removal and cDNA Synthesis SuperMix (Cat no: AT311, TransGen Biotech, China). qPCR was carried out in a total volume of 20 μl containing 2 μl of 10x-diluted reverse-transcribed product, 0.2 mM gene-specific primers, and 10 μl KAPA SYBR® FAST qPCR Master Mix (Cat no: KK4607), using a Bio-Rad CFX96 Touch<sup>TM</sup> Real-time PCR detection system according to the manufacturer's instructions. Quantitative PCR was performed for the gene expression using QPIG, QPPR, and ACTIN primers (Supplemental Table S1).

#### **Immunoblot Analysis**

Chloroplast membrane proteins were isolated from the leaves of around 2-week-old maize plants using kits (Cat no: BB-3175, BestBio, China). Protein samples were quantified with BCA protein assay. The protein samples were separated by 12% SDS-PAGE. After electrophoresis, the proteins were transferred onto a PVDF membrane (0.2 µm, Bio-Rad) using Bio-Rad Semi-Dry Transfer Cell. The blot was blocked with 5% v/v milk in TBST for 1h at room temperature (RT) with agitation and then incubated in the primary antibody (from Agrisera, AS16 4065) at a dilution of 1: 500 overnight in +4°C. The antibody solution was decanted, and the blot was washed briefly with TBST at RT with agitation. The blot was incubated in secondary antibody (anti-rabbit IgG horseradish peroxidase conjugated, from Agrisera, AS09 602) diluted to 1:10 000 in 1% milk/TBST for 30min at RT with agitation. The blot was washed briefly in TBST at RT with agitation and developed for 2 min with ECL according to the manufacturer's instructions (Cat no: SL1350, Coolaber, China). The signals were visualized by a GeneGnome chemiluminescence analyzer (Syngene).

#### **ACCESSION NUMBERS**

584	Sequence data from this article can be found in the GenBank/NCBI databases under the
585	SRA accession number: PRJNA588870.
586	
587	ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS
588	This work was supported by the National Key Research and Development Program of China
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593	Shihezi University for suggestions on measurements of chlorophyll fluorescence. We thank Dr.
594	Edgar Demesa Arevalo's help in taking confocal images and for providing for P19 containing
595	strain. We thank Dr. Hannes Claeys for providing pK7FWG2.0 containing strain. We thank
596	Felix Fritschi for use of the chlorophyll fluorescence meter.
597	
598	SUPPLEMENTAL DATA
599	Supplemental Figure S1. Schematic representation of genotypes and kernel weights of
600	recombinant families derived from F1H5.
601	Supplemental Figure S2. qPCR analysis of Zm00001d048450 and Zm00001d048451
602	expression.
603	<b>Supplemental Figure S3.</b> $qKW9$ controls kernel weight majorly by the maternal effect.
604	Supplemental Table S1. Primer sequences used in this study.
605	
606	

Tables
Table 1. Ear related and agronomic traits in NIL-SK and NIL-Zheng58.

T '4	NIL-SK		NIL-Zheng58		D1
Trait	$Mean \pm SD^a$	N <sup>b</sup>	Mean ± SD	N	- P-value
Hundred Kernel Weight/g	$15.59 \pm 2.01$	27	18.57±1.21	30	6.07 x 10 <sup>-9</sup>
Ear Length/cm	$9.75 \pm 0.75$	31	10.68±0.76	37	3.72 x 10 <sup>-6</sup>
Kernel Number per Row	22.00±2.99	27	24.03±2.28	32	$4.47 \times 10^{-3}$
Ear Row Number	12.43±1.00	28	12.39±0.80	36	0.86
Kernel Number per Ear	249.22±39.45	27	279.39±34.28	31	2.89 x 10 <sup>-3</sup>
Ear Weight/g	43.79±7.60	30	57.33±8.35	36	3.74 x 10 <sup>-9</sup>
Kernel Weight per Ear/g	38.84±6.60	19	53.68±7.44	17	$3.07 \times 10^{-7}$
Plant Height/cm	190.73±10.52	92	195.29±10.12	91	$3.22 \times 10^{-3}$
Ear Height/cm	84.48±7.19	92	83.65±9.68	91	0.51
Days to Shedding/Day	63.38±1.81	68	60.16±1.21	70	6.72 x 10 <sup>-24</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> SD=standard deviation; <sup>b</sup>N, number of observed individuals.

# Table 2 C-to-U editing sites in plastid genes with significant editing frequency difference

# between NIL-SK and NIL-Zheng58.

Locus(transcript)	Genome position	Feature	Developing Stages	Editing le	Editing level%		Editing
				NIL-SK	NIL-Zheng58	-P-value	difference %
GRMZM5G876106(nd	d 90736	CDS, P>L	Before Pollination	0.00	100.00	NA	100.00
hB)	90730	CD3, F>L	22 DAP <sup>a</sup>	0.00	100.00		
			30 DAP	0.00	100.00		
GRMZM5G810298 (ndhB)	132001	CDS, P>L	Before Pollination	0.00	97.05	2.00E-05	98.15
			22 DAP	0.00	98.79		
			30 DAP	0.00	98.60		
intergenic	65407		Before Pollination	0.00	72.73	0.0041	87.21
			22 DAP	0.00	88.89		
			30 DAP	0.00	100.00		
GRMZM5G866064	139970	CDS, synonymou s	Before Pollination	26.64	36.36	0.024	8.96
			22 DAP	18.52	30.60		
			30 DAP	27.87	32.95		
GRMZM5G856777	8558	5'UTR	Before Pollination	9.40	16.77	0.044	5.82
			22 DAP	31.63	39.61		
			30 DAP	35.50	37.63		
GRMZM5G845244 (rps8)	78717	CDS, S>L	Before Pollination	89.36	96.92	0.048	5.79
			22 DAP	98.08	100.00		
			30 DAP	92.11	100.00		

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> DAP= days after pollination.

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615	FIGURE LEGENDS
616	Figure 1. Plant and kernel morphology of two near-isogenic lines (NILs) of maize
617	NIL-SK (small kernel) and NIL-Zheng58. (A) NIL-SK (NS) and NIL-Zheng58 (NZ) had
618	very similar plant architecture, Bar=20cm. (B) NS 2-week old seedlings were smaller than NZ
619	Bar=4 cm. (C) Leaf senescence was greater in NS at 30 days after pollination compared with
620	NZ. Bar=10 cm. (D) Ears of NS were smaller than in NZ. Bar=1 cm. (E) to (J) Mature kernels
621	of NS (E-G) were smaller that in NZ (H-J). Whole kernels of NS and NZ ([E] and [H])
622	Bar=2mm; transverse section of kernel of NS and NZ ([F] and [I]). Bar=2 mm; Longitudina
623	section of kernel of NS and NZ ([G] and [J]). Bar=2 mm; (K) to (R) Similar starch structure in
624	endosperms of mature kernels of NS and NZ. Whole longitudinal section stained with iodine
625	solution of kernels of NS and NZ ([K] and [O]), 1, 2, 3 indicate the crown, farinaceous and
626	keratin endosperm regions, respectively. Bar=1 mm; (L) to (N) correspond to regions 1, 2, 3 in
627	(K); and (P) to (R) correspond to regions 1, 2, 3 in (O). Bar=10 $\mu$ m.
628	
629	Figure 2. Fine mapping and gene structure of $qKW9$ . (A) Mapping delimits $qKW9$ to the
630	region between M3484 and M3506 on chromosome 9. F1H5, which derives from ZHENG58 ×
631	SK (small kernel) recombinant inbred line (RIL) population, the founder line for screening
632	heterozygous inbred families (HIFs) for fine mapping qKW9. Progeny tests of kernel weight
633	were conducted on the resulting recombinant families. White bar represents the homozygous
624	the second content for CV and because the letter many the letter many the second content for the second content fo

634 chromosomal segment for SK, gray bar represents the heterozygous chromosomal segment for 635 ZHENG58 × SK, black bar represents the homozygous chromosomal segment for ZHENG58. 636 The graphical genotype represents F1H5. Numbers between markers represent physical 637 distances (Kb) between the adjacent markers and numbers in brackets represent the number 638 of recombinants. (B) Gene annotations in the region of qKW9 of B73, SK, and Zheng58. 639 Sequences were obtained by sequencing bacterial artificial chromosomes (BACs) covering 640 qKW9 from SK and ZHENG58 genome BAC libraries, respectively. Zm00001d048452 was 641 absent in both SK and ZHENG58. Two candidate genes-Zm00001d048450 and 642 Zm00001d048451-were identified in qKW9. (C) Zm00001d048451 is an 1.8kb intron-less gene

643	with eight pentatricopeptide repeats; a 13-bp deletion was identified in the coding region of
644	Zm00001d048451 in SK. CRISPR/Cas9 gene editing technology was used to create knockout
645	mutants with a single guide sequence (the 20-bp sequence adjacent to PAM) targeting
646	Zm00001d048451 in the inbred C01. Two mutated alleles, qkw9-cr1 and qkw9-cr2, were
647	identified by sequencing the first-generation (T <sub>0</sub> ) plants and used for further genetic analysis.
648	
649	Figure 3. Two CRISPR/Cas9 knockout mutants of Zm00001d048451-qkw9-cr1 and
650	qkw9-cr2-produced smaller ears and smaller kernels than wild type. Each mutant is shown
651	alongside its corresponding wild type (WT) segregant from a single Cas9-free T <sub>1</sub> generation
652	plant. (A) and (B): comparison of ears produced by CRISPR/Cas9 mutants (left) and WT
653	(right). qkw9-cr1 (left) and WT (right) in (A) and qkw9-cr2 (left) and WT (right) in (B).
654	Bar=1 cm. (D) and (E) kernels produced by CRISPR/Cas9 mutants (lower row) were smaller
655	than WT (upper row). qkw9-cr1 (lower) and wild type (upper) in ( <b>D</b> ) and qkw9-cr2 (lower) and
656	WT (upper) in (E). Bar=1 cm. (C) and (F) show reductions in ear weight (C) and kernel weight
657	(F) of CRISPR/Cas9 knockout mutants. Data are shown as mean $\pm$ SD; N = 6 for each
658	genotype; *** P < 0.001, two-tailed, two-sample t-test.
659	
660	Figure 4. Characterization of qKW9/Zm00001d048451. (A) Phylogenetic tree of maize,
661	Arabidopsis and rice PLS-E, PLE-E+, and PLS-DYW Pentatricopeptide Repeat genes
662	predicted to localize in chloroplast/plastid by TargetP. Scale bar represent branch length. (B)
663	Autofluorescence of chlorophyll (red). (C) qKW9-GFP fusion protein (green) in green puncta
664	within plastids. (D) DAPI (4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole) staining (blue) of nuclei. (E)
665	Overlay of (B), (C) and (D). Scale bar=5 µm. (F) Allele in the near-isogenic line NIL-SK
666	(small kernel) of Zm00001d048451 fails to edit C to U in 246 <sup>th</sup> codon of ndhB gene. C-to-U
667	editing in ndhB-246 results in amino acid change from proline to leucine. NIL-Zheng58,
668	near-isogenic line Zheng58; Pro, proline; Leu, leucine.

Figure 5. Protein blot analysis of the NADH dehydrogenase-like (NDH) complex.

669

Chloroplast membrane protein was extracted with a commercial kit and protein samples were quantified with bicinchoninic acid (BCA) protein assay. 1× sample amount equals 40 µg protein. Antibody against NdhH was used to indicate the amount of NDH complex. Chloroplast membrane protein from the near-isogenic line Zheng58 (NIL-ZHENG58) was loaded a series of dilutions as indicated. Specific bands corresponded in size of NdhH protein (expected in 45 kDa, apparent in 49 kDa). Signals in NIL-ZHENG58 declined along with the dilution. The level of NdhH in NIL-SK (small kernel) was reduced to less than 25% of NIL-ZHENG58. Coomassie R-250 staining was used to show the proteins separated by electropheris as a loading control.

Figure 6. NADH dehydrogenase-like (NDH) activity monitoring, and non-photochemical quenching (NPQ) and electron transport rate (ETR) in null mutants of qKW9. (A) Monitoring of NDH activity using chlorophyll fluorescence analysis for qkw9-cr1 and qkw9-cr2 mutants. The curve shows the typical change trace of chlorophyll fluorescence in vivo as the NDH complex catalyzes the post-illumination reduction of the plastoquinone pool (Okuda et al., 2007). The change in post-illumination fluorescence ascribed to NDH activity was different between wild type (WT) and mutants. Insets are magnified traces from the boxed area. ML, measuring light; AL, actinic light; SP, a saturating pulse of white light. Eight plants were measured for each WT and mutants. (B) NPO was induced by light intensity in both cr1 and WT, but it was significantly lower in cr1 under photon flux density of 2413 µmol of photons m<sup>-2</sup>s<sup>-1</sup>. Data are shown as mean ± SD; N=6 for each genotype; \*\*\* P < 0.001, two-tailed and two-sample t-test. (C) Relative ETR (rETR) under different photon flux densities. rETR in cr1 and WT reached maximum when the light intensity was 422 µmol of photons m<sup>-2</sup>s<sup>-1</sup>. It was significantly lower in cr1 under the photon flux density of 206 μmol of photons m<sup>-2</sup>s<sup>-1</sup> and 2413 µmol of photons m<sup>-2</sup>s<sup>-1</sup>. The rETR is depicted relative to a maximal value of  $\phi_{PSII} \times PPFD$  (photon flux density,  $\mu$ mol of photons m<sup>-2</sup>s<sup>-1</sup>). Data are shown as mean  $\pm$ SD; N=6 for each genotype; \* P < 0.05, two-tailed and two-sample t-test.

Figure 7. Grain filling and photosynthesis measurement in two near-isogenic lines (NILs).
NIL-SK (small kernel) and NIL-Zheng58. (A) Time courses of fresh weight of 50 kernels of
NIL-SK and NIL-Zheng58. The fresh weight of NIL-SK and NIL-ZHEGN58 reached the
maximum at 30 days after pollination (DAP) and 35 DAP, respectively. (B) to (E) Time
courses of photosynthesis-rate related parameters of NIL-SK and NIL-Zheng58. Net
photosynthesis (B), stomatal conductance (C), and transpiration rate (D) were significantly
lower in NIL-SK than NIL-ZHENG58 at 22 DAP and 30 DAP; (E) chlorophyll content and (F)
maximum photochemical efficiency did not show significant between genotype differences at
any of the four stages tested. Data are shown as mean $\pm$ SD; N=6 for each genotype; * P < 0.05,
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