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1 **Overcoming the trade-off between grain weight and number in wheat by**
 2 **the ectopic expression of expansin in developing seeds leads to increased**
 3 **yield potential**

4
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1 **Abstract**

2 •Wheat is the most widely grown crop globally, providing 20 % of all human calories and
3 protein. Achieving step changes in genetic yield potential is crucial to ensure food security,
4 but efforts are thwarted by an apparent trade-off between grain size and number. Expansins
5 are proteins that play important roles in plant growth by enhancing stress relaxation in the
6 cell wall, which constrains cell expansion.

7 •Here, we describe how targeted over-expression of an α -expansin in early developing
8 wheat seeds leads to a significant increase in grain size without a negative effect on grain
9 number, resulting in a yield boost under field conditions.

10 •The best-performing transgenic line yielded 12.3 % higher average grain weight than the
11 control, and this translated to an increase in grain yield of 11.3 % in field experiments using
12 an agronomically appropriate plant density.

13 •This targeted transgenic approach provides an opportunity to overcome a common
14 bottleneck to yield improvement across many crops.

15

16 **Keywords:** expansin protein, grain weight, trade-off, pericarp, grain number, grasses,
17 transgenic

18

19 **Introduction**

20 Increasing wheat yield is a global priority for food security (Foulkes *et al.*, 2011) since this
21 crop provides ~20 % of calories and protein in human diets. However, rates of genetic
22 gains in grain yield (GY) potential have decreased since the Green Revolution and further
23 GY improvement requires new approaches (Foulkes *et al.*, 2011; Molero *et al.*, 2019). In
24 the past, GY has been consistently increased by higher grain number per unit area (GN),
25 however, the trade-off between average grain weight (GW) and GN has become a
26 bottleneck for improving GY as demonstrated by recent studies in a wide range of wheat
27 genotypes including elite materials from the International Maize and Wheat Improvement
28 Center (CIMMYT) (Quintero *et al.*, 2018; Molero *et al.*, 2019; Rivera-Amado *et al.*, 2019).

29

30 Increasing individual GW has the potential to improve wheat yield, however, attempts to
31 increase GY by increasing grain size have been hampered by the negative association

1 between GW and GN (Bustos *et al.*, 2013; Quintero *et al.*, 2018; Molero *et al.*, 2019). For
2 example, recurrent selection for higher GW in wheat breeding programs showed that
3 increases of up to 32 % in this trait were completely offset by reductions in GN (Wiersma
4 *et al.*, 2001). More recently, genetic studies have been used to identify quantitative trait loci
5 (QTL) associated with grain size in wheat and other crops (e.g. Gross *et al.*, 2003;
6 Simmonds *et al.*, 2014; Griffiths *et al.*, 2015). For example, Brinton *et al.*, (2017) showed a
7 6.9 % increase in GW in near isogenic lines of wheat (NIL) carrying a QTL on
8 chromosome 5A affecting grain size; and Wang *et al.*, 2018 reached the highest increase of
9 GW in triple mutant lines of the *TaGW2* gene (≈ 20 %). However, in these and other cases
10 increases in GW had little impact on GY due to the trade-off between GW and GN (Song *et*
11 *al.*, 2007; Zhang *et al.*, 2018). Remarkably, this trade-off does not appear to be due to
12 photo-assimilate restriction after anthesis (Slafer and Savin, 1994; Borrás *et al.*, 2004;
13 Reynolds *et al.*, 2009; Quintero *et al.*, 2018). Indeed, in an experiment using doubled
14 haploid wheat lines from a cross designed to complement high grain number with large
15 seed size, radiation use efficiency increased in response to sink strength during grain filling
16 in comparison with the parental cultivars (Bustos *et al.*, 2013). This indicates that breaking
17 the negative association between GN and GY does not require increased photosynthesis
18 during grain growth to increase GY. As source limitation cannot account for the apparent
19 trade-off between GW and GN, other limiting factors must be at play.

20

21 The number and potential weight of grains are determined early in development, in a period
22 starting just before anthesis and continuing until just beyond grain setting (Calderini *et al.*,
23 1999, 2001; Ugarte *et al.*, 2007; Brinton & Uauy, 2019). Grain expansion and grain filling
24 are separated in time, with the ovary expansion preceding grain filling (Calderini *et al.*,
25 1999; Brinton & Uauy, 2019). Grain growth (i.e. grain enlargement and dry matter
26 accumulation) involves the coordinated expansion of the maternally-derived pericarp and
27 the seed endosperm, and is almost complete at the time when storage deposition begins
28 (Fig. 1). The expansion of these tissues determines the holding capacity of the seed for
29 storage reserves and therefore the potential final GW (Brinton and Uauy, 2019; Herrera and
30 Calderini, 2020). Therefore, it seems possible that genetic manipulation of grain expansion

1 in a spatiotemporal manner, could increase the rate or duration of this growth phase in grain
2 development and lead to increased yield potential.

3 In plants, cells grow through turgor-driven expansion that is constrained by the cell wall
4 (Cosgrove, 2018). Cell wall extensibility is under dynamic control in plant cells, and
5 expansins play a key role by inducing the relaxation of the stress that is generated in the
6 cell wall through the action of turgor pressure (McQueen-Mason *et al.*, 1992). Expansin
7 manipulation can lead to changes in growth and development (Fleming *et al.*, 1997; Pien *et*
8 *al.*, 2001; Rochange *et al.*, 2001; Choi *et al.*, 2003). These cell wall proteins appear to act
9 by disrupting non-covalent associations between cellulose and matrix polysaccharides in
10 the plant cell wall, allowing the polymers to slip relative to one another, relaxing stress in
11 the wall and allowing it to extend (McQueen-Mason & Cosgrove, 1994). Expansins fall
12 into two well-separated groups, designated as α - and β -expansins, based on sequence
13 homology and activity; with α -expansins more clearly associated with cell expansion and
14 growth (Cosgrove, 2018).

15

16 We previously revealed an association between grain expansion and the expression of α -
17 expansins in wheat grain, and suggested that the expansin manipulation might provide a
18 way to increase GW (Lizana *et al.*, 2010). In the work presented here, we increased the
19 amount of α -expansin in developing grain, by the ectopic expression of *TaExpA6*, (an
20 expansin gene normally expressed in wheat roots) under control of a grain specific gene
21 promoter; and show that this can lead to increase GW without a negative impact on GN
22 and, in turn to improve GY (Fig. 1).

23

24 **Materials and Methods**

25 *Genetic constructs assembly*

26 For this work we transformed wheat with a construct containing the *TaExpA6* coding
27 sequence under the control of wheat *puroindoline-b* (*PinB*) gene promoter, which drives
28 transcription restricted to the endosperm, aleurone and pericarp layers in developing seeds,
29 but not in the embryo (Gautier *et al.*, 1994; Digeon *et al.*, 1999). We verified that the
30 expression of the *TaPinB* gene is specific to the mentioned tissues using the wheat
31 expression browser (Ramírez-González, *et al.*, 2018). The intermediate cassette containing

1 the *TaPinb*-promoter (RefSeq v1.1: *TraesCS7B02G431200*) controlling the *TaExpA6* CDS
2 was recombined into the binary vector pRLF12-R1R2 to create pEW279-Exp, using a
3 Gateway LR Clonase II kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc.). Figure S1 shows the T-DNA
4 region of this construct. The plasmid was electro-transformed into *Agrobacterium*
5 *tumefaciens* strain EHA105 (Hood *et al.*, 1993). The sequence of *TaExpA6* gene was
6 obtained from GeneBank accession “AY543532”
7 (www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/nuccore/AY543532) and verified in the recently released genome
8 sequence of Chinese Spring variety, RefSeq v1.1(*TraesCS4A02G034200*) (Appels *et al.*,
9 2018).

10

11 *Wheat transformation and subsequent wheat generations*

12 Transformation of immature embryos isolated from spring wheat cultivar ‘Fielder’ was
13 carried out by co-cultivation of pre-treated immature wheat embryos with *Agrobacterium*
14 containing pEW279-Exp at 23 °C in the dark for 2 days (Ishida *et al.*, 2014). Following
15 removal of the embryonic axis, tissue culture was performed essentially as described
16 previously (Risacher *et al.*, 2009). From thirty-seven regenerated wheat plants, DNA was
17 isolated using DNA extraction protocol describe by Howells *et al.* (2018), and the plants
18 were confirmed as transformant by PCR amplification of the transgene using primers Exp6-
19 Forward (5`-CCG TTC TCG CGT TCT GCT TCGT-3`) and NosT-reverse (5`-CGA TCG
20 GGT GAA ATT CGG ATCC-3`) using FastStart Taq polymerase (Thermo Fisher
21 Scientific Inc.) with an annealing temperature of 53 °C. A transformation efficiency of 30.6
22 % was achieved with this construct, calculated as the percentage of wheat embryos from
23 which a transformed wheat plant was regenerated. It is important to point out that the
24 control wheat plants used in the experiments correspond to cultivar Fielder that underwent
25 the same tissue culture process as the transformed lines.

26

27 From each wheat transformant plant (T0), 10 individuals plants were grown in pots in a
28 greenhouse (10 individuals T1 plants from 37 lines, total 370 plants) at The University of
29 York and the presence of *TaExpA6* was checked by PCR using a forward primer *Ta-PinB*-F
30 (5`-ACAACACACAATGGTAGGCAAA-3) and reverse primer *TaExpA6*-R (5`-
31 GGTCCCCTTCACCGACAT-3`). T-DNA copy number was determined by qPCR assay of

1 the *nptII* gene relative to a single copy wheat gene amplicon, normalized to a known single
2 copy wheat line in T0 and T1 plants (Table S1). In the next generations (T2, T3, T4) we
3 carried out genomic DNA extraction from leaves using the CTAB method standardized
4 protocol and copy number determination was performed by IDna Genetics services (UK)
5 (<https://www.idnagenetics.com/>) (Table S2).

6
7 The multiplication of T2 seed was also carried out in greenhouses in 2015/16. During the
8 vegetative stage, leaves were sampled for PCR analysis to identify homozygous lines. Lack
9 of negative segregants among the sampled progeny (at least ten individuals sampled per
10 line) was used as an indicator of homozygosis. Twenty four homozygous lines were
11 selected to be evaluated in field experiments (T3 and T4 generations).

12

13 *Experiments and field conditions (T3 and T4 generations)*

14 Two field experiments were carried out at the Experimental Station of the Universidad
15 Austral de Chile in Valdivia (39°47'S, 73°14'W). Experiment 1 was a low plant density
16 (LPD) experiment with T3 lines during the 2016/17 growing season. The aim of the low
17 plant density experiment was to increase the seed bank and evaluate the performance of
18 lines under field conditions. Experiment 2 was sown at regular plant density (RPD) with
19 four selected T4 lines in the 2018/19 season.

20

21 In the LPD experiment, 24 wheat transformed lines and the control spring cultivar Fielder
22 were sown at a rate of 44 pl m⁻². Plots were 1.5 m long and 0.6 m wide, with 5 rows 0.15 m
23 apart and 0.15 m between seeds in each row. In the RPD experiment four selected
24 homozygous transformant lines and the control were sown at farmer's conventional plant
25 rate of 300 pl m⁻². In this experiments, the same plot dimensions and row spacing was used,
26 but seed were sown at 0.022 m intervals. In both experiments additional rows were sown
27 rounding each plot to avoid border effects. The experiments were arranged in a complete
28 randomized block design with three replications. All plots were subjected to optimal
29 agronomical management to assure high potential yield conditions. To this end, plots were
30 fertilized, drip irrigation was applied to avoid water stress and weeds; and insects and
31 diseases were prevented or controlled in both experiments.

1 In the RPD experiment, the four transformant lines were selected based on performance in
2 the LPD experiment, low construct copy numbers, levels of transgene expression recorded
3 in the previous generation (Table S1).

4

5 *Crop phenology and measurements*

6 Crop phenology was recorded following the decimal code scale (Zadoks *et al.*, 1974) at
7 each plot. At harvest a 1 m length of the central row was sampled in each plot to determine
8 grain yield and components in both experiments. Plant samples were oven-dried at 60°C for
9 48 h for dry weight. Grain number and average grain weight were measured. Grain yield
10 per plant was calculated in the LPD and grain yield per square meter in RPD experiments.
11 Grain dimensions (length, width, and area) were recorded using a Marvin seed analyzer
12 (Wittenburg, Germany) (<https://www.marvitech.de/en/home-2/>) after grains were oven-
13 dried at 60°C for 48 h.

14

15 *RNA extraction and expression analyses by RT-qPCR*

16 Grains of grain position one and two (G1, G2) from central spikelets of two main stem
17 spikes (eight grains in total each replicate) were sampled at 5, 15 and 25 days after anthesis
18 (DAA) in LPD experiment and at 5, 10, 15, 20 and 25 DAA in the RPD experiment for
19 RNA extraction and gene expression analysis. Grains were sampled and frozen in liquid
20 nitrogen. Total RNA was extracted using NucleoSpin™ columns (Macherey-Nagel)
21 following the manufacture's protocol and standardizing the RNA extraction protocol based
22 on Sangha *et al.*, (2010).

23

24 The *TaExpA6* expression in grains was assessed by quantitative reverse transcription PCR
25 (RT-qPCR). cDNA was synthesized from 500 ng RNA (pretreated with DNaseI
26 (Invitrogen) using ImProm-II™ Reverse Transcription System). The qPCR reactions with a
27 final volume of 25 µL, was performed using the Brilliant II SYBR Green PCR Master Mix
28 (Stratagene, Agilent technologies), 0.2 µM and primers Transgene*TaExpA6_F1* (5`-
29 ATCTCCACCACCACCAAACA-3`) and Transgene*TaExpA6_R1* (5`-
30 GAAGCAGAACGCGAGAACGG-3`). No-template and no-transcriptase controls were
31 included to detect genomic DNA contamination. The transcript abundance of the *TaExpA6*

1 gene in grains was determined using the method of *Pfaffl* (2001), where the ubiquitin-
2 conjugating enzyme (*TraesCS4A02G414200*) gene was used as an internal control, using
3 the primers *Forward* (5`- CGGGCCCGAAGAGAGTCT-3`) and *Reverse* (5`-
4 ATTAACGAAACCAATCGACGGA-3`). Fluorescence raw data was analysed with
5 LinRegPCR software for quantification analysis of gene expression (*Ruijter et al.*, 2009).

6

7 *Protein Extraction and LC-MS proteomics*

8 We extracted total proteins from wheat grains of the position two of the central spikelets at
9 15 DAA. Grains were ground with liquid nitrogen and 40mg of pulverized grains were
10 added to 100ul of SD-PAGE loading protein buffer 2X at 95°C for 10 min and centrifuged
11 at 13000 g for 10 min for protein extraction. 5ul aliquots were loaded per lane in a 12%
12 SDS-PAGE. Gels were stained with SimpleBlue SafeStain (safe Coomassie G-250). In-gel
13 tryptic digestion was performed, as previously described (*De Pablos et al.*, 2019). Peptides
14 were loaded onto an UltiMate 3000 RSLCnano HPLC system (Thermo) equipped with a
15 PepMap 100 Å C18, 5 µm trap column (300 µm x 5 mm Thermo) and a PepMap, 2 µm,
16 100 Å, C18 EasyNano nanocapillary column (75 µm x 150 mm, Thermo) and separated as
17 previously described (*De Pablos et al.*, 2019), with the exception that the following gradient
18 was used: 3-10% B over 8 mins, 10-35% B over 125 mins, 35-65% B over 50 mins, 65-
19 99% B over 7 mins and then proceeded to wash with 99% solvent B for 4 min. The nanoLC
20 system was interfaced with an Orbitrap Fusion hybrid mass spectrometer (Thermo) with an
21 EasyNano ionisation source (Thermo). Positive ESI-MS and MS² spectra were acquired
22 using Xcalibur software (version 4.0, Thermo) as previously described (*De Pablos et al.*,
23 2019). Tandem mass spectra were searched against the *Triticum aestivum* subset of the
24 UniProt database appended with the sequence of *TaEXPA6* using Mascot program (Matrix
25 Science Ltd., version 2.6.1). Search criteria specified: Missed cleavages, 1; Fixed
26 modifications, Carbamidomethyl (C); Variable modifications, Oxidation (M); Peptide
27 tolerance, 3 ppm; MS/MS tolerance, 0.5 Da. Results were filtered to 2% FDR against a
28 reversed database and required a minimum of two unique peptides per protein. Label-free
29 peptide quantification was extracted from aligned precursor ion areas using Progenesis QI
30 (Version 2.2., Waters).

31

1 *Statistical analysis of data*

2 ANOVA was applied when multiple groups of data were compared followed by pairwise
3 comparisons between the control and each T line (Fisher`s LSD test post-hoc) to evaluated
4 significant differences ($p < 0.10$, $p < 0.05$, $p < 0.01$ and $p < 0.001$) using the STATISTICA 7
5 software. Regression analyses were used to evaluate the degree of association between
6 variables.

7

8 **Results**

9 We generated transgenic wheat plants expressing *TaExpA6*, an α -expansin normally
10 expressed in wheat roots (according to wheat-expression browser: Ramírez-González *et al.*,
11 2018), under the control of the wheat puroindoline-b (PinB) gene promoter
12 (*TraesCS7B02G431200*), which drives transcription restricted to the endosperm, aleurone
13 and pericarp layers in developing seeds, but not in the embryo (Gautier *et al.*, 1994; Digeon
14 *et al.*, 1999). We confirmed that the expression of the PinB gene is negligible outside the
15 mentioned tissues using the wheat expression browser (Ramírez-González, *et al.*, 2018).
16 We further confirmed this by RT-qPCR and no expression of the transgene was found in
17 roots and vegetative tissues (data not shown). Homozygous T2 lines were selected and T3
18 and T4 generations were evaluated in field experiments at different plant densities. Low
19 density (44 plants m^{-2}) plantings were carried out during the 2016-17 growing season using
20 T3 seed; while a more typical agronomic density (300 plants m^{-2}) experiment was carried
21 out using T4 seed in the 2018-19 growing season in Valdivia (Chile). Transgene expression
22 in developing seeds was assessed by RT-qPCR and the levels of recombinant *TaExpA6*
23 protein were assessed by semi-quantitative proteomic analysis.

24

25 *TaExpA6 expression and protein abundance in growing seeds of T3 and T4 transgenic lines*
26 *and segregating wild type plants*

27 Twenty-four transgenic lines were generated and evaluated in a field experiment together
28 with wild type of cultivar Fielder that had been through the same tissue culture cycle as the
29 transformants (control) at low plant density (44 plants m^{-2}), aimed also at bulking seed for
30 further studies. Based on the transcript abundance and transgene copy number (Tables S1,

1 S2 and Fig. S2), four transformed lines were chosen for further analysis. Transgene
2 transcripts of *TaExpA6* were not detected in growing seeds at 5 days after anthesis (DAA)
3 and showed a peak in abundance between 10 and 20 DAA (Fig. 2). In both experiments, all
4 the transgenic lines showed *TaExpA6* transcripts, which were not apparent in the control
5 (Fig. 3a). Transgenic lines 4 and 3 showed the highest relative transcript abundance (Fig.
6 3a).

7
8 The presence of *TaExpA6* protein was assessed by extracting total proteins from developing
9 seeds at 15 DAA (see Methods). Lizana *et al.* (2010) showed that several α -expansin genes
10 are normally expressed in developing seeds and distinguishing between these closely
11 related proteins is difficult using immunological methods. Instead, we used LC-MS/MS
12 proteomic methods, which allowed unambiguous protein identification as well as the
13 determination of relative protein abundance. The abundance of the recombinant *TaExpA6*
14 protein showed good agreement with the observed transgene expression levels in transgenic
15 lines, with Lines 3 and 4 showing the highest recombinant protein abundance (Fig. 3b).

17 *TaExpA6* ectopic expression increases grain size and weight in transgenic wheat

18 In our growth environment each central spikelet of one ear of wheat typically
19 accommodates four grains, named G1-G4 based on the relative proximity to the rachis of
20 the spike. The more distal grains are typically the smallest with G1 and G2 typically the
21 biggest. The examination of individual grain weight from our transgenic lines revealed
22 significant increases in all four grain positions of Line 4 in the low plant density experiment
23 (Fig. 4a). Interestingly, the biggest GW increases were seen in the more distal position
24 (G4), which showed increases of up to 32.8 % in Line 4 compared to control, whereas in
25 G1 the increase was 12.3 % with similar values in G2 (9.5 %) and G3 (12.2 %). Similar but
26 non-significant increases in GW were seen in the other transgenic lines.

27
28 The high plant density field experiment was performed using T4 seed planted at 300 seed
29 m⁻², which is generally used by farmers for spring wheat in southern Chile. In this separate
30 generation and independent field experiment, similar increases in individual GW were
31 evident in the transgenic lines compared to the control. Transgenic Line 4 again showed the

1 best performance in this experiment, outperforming the control in terms of GW by 11.6,
2 10.9, 11.3 and 26.6 % in G1, G2, G3 and G4, respectively, with the biggest increases seen
3 in G4 (Fig. 4b). The other transgenic lines showed increased GW compared to control in
4 the distal grain positions G4 and at G1, G2 and G3 depending on the line and experiment
5 (Fig. 4a and b).

6
7 Higher GW is likely associated with increased size, and to examine this we compared the
8 length, width and surface area of grains from transgenic and control lines from the high
9 density experiment. The results of grain dimensions of G2 (Fig. 5) showed that increased
10 GW was most closely associated with increased grain length and area with little increase in
11 grain width, and similar results were found in the other grain positions (Fig. S3). When the
12 associations between GW and grain length, width or area were plotted across genotypes and
13 grain positions, higher consistency and better residual distributions were found for the
14 relationship between GW and grain length (Fig. 6). This indicates that increased grain
15 length is the largest contributor to higher grain area in transgenic lines.

16

17 *TaExpA6 ectopic expression increases average grain weight and grain yield in transgenic*
18 *wheat*

19 The ectopic expression of *TaExpA6* increased average GW in the transgenic lines in both
20 experiments, and this effect translated into increased total GY. Once again, the biggest
21 increase in total yield was apparent for transgenic Line 4, which showed the largest
22 transcript and protein abundance of *TaExpA6* during early grain development. Grain yield
23 per plant for Line 4 was 9.5 % higher than that of control, although this increase was not
24 statistically significant ($P > 0.10$) in the low density experiment (Table 1). However, GY
25 was 11.3 % higher than the control per square meter in the higher density field experiment
26 (Table 2). In the higher plant density experiment, we monitored GY, GN and average GW
27 for both stem categories (main stems and tillers). We observed no significant differences in
28 total GN ($P > 0.10$) between control and transgenic lines, and the observed increases in
29 overall yield (11.3 %) that are remarkably similar to those of individual GW in these
30 experiments. These data reveal that there is no evident trade-off between the major yield
31 components (weight and number) in our experiments as shown in Figure 7. Notably,

1 developmental phases and stages such as dates of anthesis and physiological maturity were
2 similar among the transgenic lines and control in all experiments (Table S3). Line 4 was
3 slightly taller ($p < 0.01$) than the control in low and regular density experiments (Table S4).
4 Line 1 also showed increased plant height, but only in the low density experiment, whereas
5 Lines 2 and 3 did not show differences in plant height compared to control across
6 experiments (Table S4).

7

8 **Discussion**

9 The trade-off between GW and GN has been reported in many studies (e.g. Foulkes *et al.*,
10 2011; Molero *et al.*, 2019 and references therein). From a physiological point of view,
11 several studies have suggested that the negative correlation between GN and GW derives
12 from the large proportion of “small grains” at distal positions due to either wheat breeding
13 or crop management, and is independent of any competitive relationship among developing
14 grains (Acreche and Slafer 2006; Ferrante *et al.* 2015, 2017). This hypothesis is supported
15 by the low correlation reported between final GW and starch-synthesizing enzymes (Fahy
16 *et al.* 2018). However, this does not explain why the successful attempts to increase GW
17 have been accompanied by compensatory decreases in GN (e.g. Wiersma *et al.*, 2001;
18 Brinton *et al.*, 2017; Wang *et al.*, 2018). This negative relationship between weight and
19 number was recently confirmed as a general phenomenon in analyses across a range of elite
20 wheat genotypes (Quintero *et al.*, 2018; Molero *et al.*, 2019). A promising candidate gene
21 was recently identified in wheat underlying a QTL that controls spikelet number per spike
22 (Kuzay *et al.*, 2019). Near isogenic lines carrying this gene increased GN, but GW
23 concomitantly decreased by 19 %, preventing an increase in yield. Few studies have made
24 efforts to understand the molecular and genetic basis of the trade-off between both main
25 yield components in wheat. In tetraploid wheat, Golan *et al.* (2019) have suggested that
26 *gsn1* (grain size and number 1), *FZP* (FRIZZY PANICLE) and *GNI-1* (Grain Number
27 Increase 1) are involved in coordinating the trade-off between GN and GW by integrating
28 cell differentiation and proliferation processes. In addition, trehalose6-phosphate/*SnRK1*
29 has been suggested to influence grain yield by increasing the potential rate of filling and
30 grain mass but neither GN nor yield were reported by the authors (Zhang *et al.*, 2017).
31 Therefore, the key genes, moment, and cellular location of this coordination remain largely

1 undefined. This background suggests that it may be difficult to disrupt the complex
2 regulatory pathways that control these crop traits. However, our results demonstrate that
3 increasing the level of α -expansin protein during early grain development leads to increased
4 grain size in wheat as a result of increased grain length.

5
6 In our experiments, bigger grains resulted in increased total yield as there is no associated
7 compensatory decrease in GN. This contrasts with previous attempts to increase grain size
8 using conventional wheat breeding, QTL or mutants (Wiersma *et al.*, 2001; Brinton *et al.*,
9 2017; Wang *et al.*, 2018; Molero *et al.*, 2019). Bae *et al.*, 2014 reported increases in seed
10 weight in *Arabidopsis* by the expression of a sweet potato expansin. In this case, expansin
11 expression was driven by the broadly expressed cauliflower mosaic virus 35S promoter and
12 led to widespread morphological changes in the number and size of leaves, number of
13 siliques, etc. in the plants. Since *Arabidopsis* is essentially a wild weedy plant, with no
14 previous breeding for yield components, it is hard to draw any conclusions on
15 agronomically relevant yield from those experiments. The use of a specific grain promoter
16 in our work confined the expression of the *PinB::TaExpA6* transgene to the developing
17 grain without detrimental pleiotropic impact on plant growth and development that might
18 impair crop performance.

19
20 Our study reveals that it is possible to break the negative association between GW and GN
21 using a targeted transgenic approach, at least in the high yielding environment of southern
22 Chile. For many years GN and GW were assumed to be independent of each other.
23 However, it has been demonstrated that the developmental determination of these two key
24 yield components shows a close temporal overlap in wheat, which occurs between booting
25 and 10 days after anthesis (Calderini *et al.*, 1999; Ugarte *et al.*, 2007; Brinton & Uauy,
26 2019). These findings were confirmed by a recent study of wheat cultivars across different
27 environments in Australia (Parent *et al.*, 2017). The overlap between the determination of
28 GW and GN is similarly apparent in other grain crops such as barley, triticale, sorghum and
29 sunflower (Lindström *et al.*, 2006; Ugarte *et al.*, 2007; Yang *et al.*, 2009; Castillo *et al.*,
30 2017). The temporal overlap between GN and GW determination suggests that they are

1 developmentally linked, giving rise to the observed trade-off between the two yield
2 components before grain filling begins.

3

4 Our targeted approach, using an early grain promoter to drive ectopic expression of an
5 expansin gene in young developing grain, may have been successful due to the timing of
6 the *PinB::TaExpA6* expression. The lack of expression of the *PinB::TaExpA6* at 5 DAA
7 and the peak levels observed between 10 and 20 DAA in our study, suggests that the
8 fruitful increase of GW without a negative impact on GN was due to the expression of the
9 expansin transgene occurring after the overlapping period of GW and GN determination,
10 thereby avoiding the trade-off between these yield components (see Fig. 1). However, only
11 two of the four lines showed significant positive impact on grain yield (Lines 1 and 4)
12 despite all four lines showing *TaExpA6* expression in the grain. The most likely explanation
13 for this is that a threshold amount of additional expansin is needed in order to see a
14 significant effect, as the lines with highest *TaExpA6* protein in developing grain, showed
15 the most significant increases in yield. It is, however, also possible that some of the
16 differences between the lines may be the result of different transgene integration sites,
17 which may impact on the expression of other genes in the region.

18

19 In our experiments GY was increased in both low and high density plantings, but the effect
20 was greater at higher plant density. In the higher density experiment, we assessed the
21 impact on grain in both the main stem and tillers and observed that the effects of the
22 transgene were smaller in grains from tillers, i.e. for Line 4, GY of main stems increased
23 almost 19 % ($P < 0.05$) and tillers only 5 % ($P > 0.10$). This may explain why GY was
24 higher in the high density experiment than under low planting densities, where more tillers
25 are typically produced.

26

27 Our results are a very encouraging demonstration that the trade-off between GW and GN
28 can be broken and, as a consequence, GY can be increased. However, we recognize that
29 more experiments across different environments and cultivars should be carried out to
30 confirm the results presented here, which should be seen as a proof of concept of the
31 positive effect of ectopic expansin expression in developing wheat seeds.

1 This work provides a simple approach for breaking barriers in wheat yield that may also
2 prove important in a wide range of crops where the trade-off between GN and grain size is
3 widely observed.

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18 **Author contributions**

20 D.F. Calderini, conceived the project, coordinated the field trials, wheat transformation,
21 experiments and data analyses; F.M. Castillo, designed experiments, genetic constructs and
22 analysed the experimental data; A. Arenas-M, evaluated expansin expression and molecular
23 data analyses; G. Molero and M.P. Reynolds collaborated in designing the low plant
24 density experiment and data analysis; M. Craze, S. Bowden and M. Milner carried out the
25 transformation of wheat; E. Wallington, supervised wheat transformation; A. Dowle,
26 performed the proteomic and data analysis for determining expansin abundance; L.D.
27 Gomez, coordinated the experiments, evaluated transformants, designed experiments,
28 genetic constructs and data analyses; S.J. McQueen-Mason, conceived and coordinated the
29 project, wheat transformation, experiments and data analysis. D.F. Calderini, F.M. Castillo,
30 L.D. Gomez and S.J. McQueen-Mason wrote the manuscript with contributions from all
31 authors.

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9

10 **Figure Legends**

11 **Figure 1.** Schematic description of processes and traits of grain weight determination in
12 wheat from booting to maturity. The gene expression of the recombinant *PinB::TaExpA6* and
13 its apparent dynamic is shown. At the bottom of the scheme the overlap between grain
14 number and grain weight determination from booting to the end of the lag phase are shown.
15 Wide arrows show the main links between processes/traits and narrow arrows indicate
16 indirect links between processes/traits.

17 **Figure 2.** Relative expression of *TaExpA6* in grains at 5, 10, 15, 20 and 25 days after anthesis
18 (dpa) in the field experiment at regular agronomical plant density of 300 pl m⁻² assessed by
19 RT-qPCR. Control line correspond to spring wheat cultivar ‘Fielder’ that have undergone the
20 same tissue culture process as the transformed lines.

21 Asterisks indicate significant differences by pairwise comparisons between each line and the
22 Control (Fisher’s LSD test post hoc). Significant effects at p<0.10 (*); p<0.05 (**); p<0.01
23 (***); p<0.001 (****); ns: not significant. All data are shown as mean and standard error.

24 **Figure 3.** Expression and protein abundance of *TaExpA6* in grains. Control line correspond
25 to spring wheat cultivar ‘Fielder’ that underwent the same tissue culture process as the
26 transformed lines. **(a)** Relative mRNA levels of the *TaExpA6* transgene assessed by RT-qPCR
27 in grains at 15 days after anthesis (DAA) in the Control and transformed lines 1, 2, 3 and 4
28 from experiment with low (LD) and regular plant density (RD). **(b)** Relative protein
29 abundance as assessed by LC-MS/MS analysis at 15 DAA in the Control and transgenic lines
30 1, 2, 3 and 4 at regular agronomical plant density. Asterisks indicate significant differences
31 by pairwise comparisons between each line and the Control (Fisher’s LSD test post hoc).
32 Significant effects at p<0.10 (*); p<0.05 (**); p<0.01 (***); p<0.001 (****); ns: not
33 significant. All data are shown as mean and standard error.

34 **Figure 4.** Individual grain weight. Grain weight at grain position 1 (G1), 2 (G2), 3 (G3) and
35 4 (G4) in the Control and *TaExpA6* transgenic Lines 1, 2, 3 and 4 at **(a)** low plant density and
36 **(b)** regular plant density. The control line corresponds to spring wheat cultivar ‘Fielder’ that

1 underwent the same tissue culture process as the transformed lines. Asterisks indicate
2 significant differences evaluated by pairwise comparisons between each line and the Control
3 (Fisher's LSD test post hoc). Significant effects at $p < 0.10$ (*); $p < 0.05$ (**); $p < 0.01$ (***);
4 $p < 0.001$ (****); ns: not significant. All data are shown as mean and standard error.

5 **Figure 5.** Grain length, width and area at grain position 2 (G2) in wild type and transformed
6 wheat lines. Grain dimensions were evaluated in control and four *TaExpA6* transgenic lines
7 (lines 1 – 4) in field experiments at low plant density of 44 pl m⁻² and regular agronomical
8 plant density of 300 pl m⁻². (a) Grain length, (b) grain width and (c) grain area. The control
9 line corresponds to spring wheat cultivar 'Fielder' that underwent the same tissue culture
10 process as the transformed lines. Asterisks indicate significant differences evaluated by
11 pairwise comparisons between the control and each transgenic line (Fisher's LSD test post
12 hoc). Significant effects at $p < 0.10$ (*); $p < 0.05$ (**); $p < 0.01$ (***); $p < 0.001$ (****); ns: not
13 significant. All data are shown as mean and standard error.

14 **Figure 6.** Association between individual grain weight and dimensions. Grain weight and
15 grain length (a), width (b) and area (c) of grain positions 1 (G1: circles), 2 (G2: square), 3
16 (G3: rhombus) and 4 (G4: triangles) from central spikelets of the spike in the control (black)
17 and transgenic lines 1 (white), 2 (green), 3 (orange) and 4 (red) recorded from the field
18 experiment at plant density of 300 pl m⁻².

19 **Figure 7.** Trade-off between grain weight and grain number. Relationship between grain
20 weight and grain number of the control line (black circles) and transgenic lines 1 (open white
21 circles), 2 (green circles), 3 (orange circles) and 4 (red circles) in the low plant (a) and regular
22 agronomical plant (b) density experiments. The regression line (continuous black line) and
23 two confidence bands surrounding the best-fit line that define the confidence interval (dotted
24 lines) are shown.

25

26 **Legends to Supplementary material**

27 **Fig. S1** Schematic diagram of the binary plasmid pEW279-Exp T-DNA.

28 **Fig. S2.** Screening of relative expression of transgene in 15 wheat transgenic lines at T2
29 generation.

30 **Fig. S3.** Box and whiskers showing a) grain weight, b) grain length, c) grain width and d)
31 grain area across grain positions (G1-G4) in control line and transgenic lines (1-4).

32 **Table S1.** Selection criteria of four wheat transgenic lines to perform experiments at low
33 and regular plant density

34 **Table S2.** Transgene copy number determined by NPTII amplification.

- 1 **Table S3.** Phenology of transgenic wheat lines and control in both experiments.
- 2 **Table S4.** Plant height of transgenic wheat lines and control in both experiments.