

# Journal of Cereal Science

## Accumulation and deposition of triacylglycerols in the starchy endosperm of wheat grain

--Manuscript Draft--

<b>Manuscript Number:</b>	
<b>Article Type:</b>	Research Paper
<b>Keywords:</b>	wheat; starchy endosperm; triacylglycerol; oleosin
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<b>Abstract:</b>	<p>A combination of lipidomics, transcriptomics and bioimaging has been used to study triacylglycerol synthesis and deposition in the developing starchy endosperm of wheat. The content of TAG increased between 14 and 34 days after anthesis, from 50 to 115 mg/g dry wt and from about 35 to 175 mg/g dry wt in two experiments. The major fatty acids were C16 (palmitic C 16:0 and palmitoleic C16:1) and C18 (stearic C18:0, oleic C18:1, linoleic C18:2 and linolenic C18:3), with unsaturated fatty acids accounting for about 75-80% of the total throughout development. Linoleic acid (C18:2) was the major component at all stages and the proportion increased during development. Transcript profiling indicated that predominant route to TAG synthesis and oil accumulation is via the Kennedy pathway and diacylglycerol acyltransferase (DGAT) activity. Confocal microscopy of stained tissue sections showed that TAG accumulated in droplets concentrated in the cells below the sub-aleurone cells which are associated with protein. Transcripts encoding 16kd oleosins were also expressed, indicating that the oil droplets are stabilised by oleosin proteins.</p>
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Dear Colleagues,

I am pleased to submit a manuscript entitled “Accumulation and deposition of triacylglycerols in the starchy endosperm of wheat grain”. This provides the first detailed integrated study of the synthesis and deposition of triacylglycerols (storage lipids) in the developing starchy endosperm of wheat. It therefore has significance for the quality and utilisation of white flour and should be of interest to the wider readership of JCS.

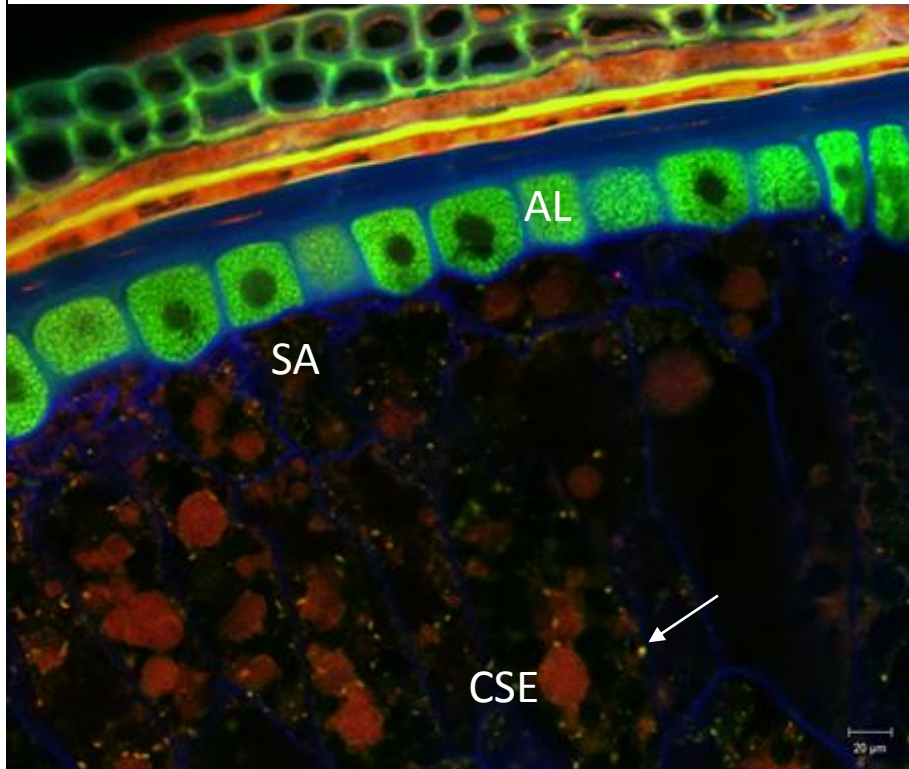
Thank you,

Peter Shewry.

## Highlights

- Integrated study of triacylglycerol synthesis and deposition in wheat endosperm
- First lipidomic analysis of triacylglycerol composition in wheat starchy endosperm
- Bioimaging of lipid deposition in starchy endosperm cells
- Transcriptome analysis shows operation of Kennedy pathway for lipid synthesis

Lipids (tricylglycerols) are deposited in discrete bodies in the developing starchy endosperm cells of bread wheat



# 1 **Accumulation and deposition of triacylglycerols in the starchy endosperm of wheat grain**

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## 13 **Abstract**

14 A combination of lipidomics, transcriptomics and bioimaging has been used to study  
15 triacylglycerol synthesis and deposition in the developing starchy endosperm of wheat. The  
16 content of TAG increased between 14 and 34 days after anthesis, from 50 to 115 mg/g dry wt  
17 and from about 35 to 175 mg/g dry wt in two experiments. The major fatty acids were C16  
18 (palmitic C 16:0 and palmitoleic C16:1) and C18 (stearic C18:0, oleic C18:1, linoleic C18:2 and  
19 linolenic C18:3), with unsaturated fatty acids accounting for about 75-80% of the total  
20 throughout development. Linoleic acid (C18:2) was the major component at all stages and the  
21 proportion increased during development. Transcript profiling indicated that predominant  
22 route to TAG synthesis and oil accumulation is via the Kennedy pathway and diacylglycerol  
23 acyltransferase (DGAT) activity. Confocal microscopy of stained tissue sections showed that  
24 TAG accumulated in droplets concentrated in the cells below the sub-aleurone cells which are  
25 associated with protein. Transcripts encoding 16kd oleosins were also expressed, indicating  
26 that the oil droplets are stabilised by oleosin proteins.

27 Key words: wheat, starchy endosperm, white flour, oil, triacylglycerol, oleosin

## 29 **1. Introduction**

30 Wheat is the dominant crop and major staple food in Europe, North Africa, West and Central  
31 Asia and North and South America, where it contributes between 20% and 50% of the total  
32 calories in the human diet. Furthermore, the consumption of wheat is also increasing in  
33 countries where it is not readily grown, particularly Sub-Saharan Africa. The global success of  
34 wheat is due to its wide adaptability and to the grain processing properties, in particular the  
35 ability of wheat flour to be processed into bread, other baked products, pasta and noodles.

36 The processing properties of wheat are largely determined by the gluten proteins which  
37 interact to form a continuous viscoelastic network in dough: this provides the cohesion  
38 required for making pasta and noodles, and enables the entrapment of carbon dioxide  
39 released during proofing to give the light porous crumb structure of leavened bread.  
40 Consequently, wheat proteins have been widely studied (Shewry et al., 2009a). However,  
41 gluten proteins are not the sole determinant of processing quality and other grain  
42 components also contribute, including starch, cell wall polysaccharides and lipids.

43 Wheat lipids are typically minor components of grain, accounting for only 2.5 to 3.3% of whole  
44 grain and 2.6 to 2.7% of white flour (Chung et al., 2009). Nevertheless, they affect the volume  
45 and texture of loaves and other baked products (Pycarelle et al., 2019), probably by a  
46 combination of effects including binding to and plasticising the gluten network and stabilizing  
47 the gas cells which are formed during dough mixing and expanded during fermentation  
48 (Köhler, 2001; Chung et al., 1978; Salt et al., 2018).

49 Wheat grain lipids display wide structural diversity, with over 70 molecular species being  
50 identified, and comprise neutral (acylglycerols and free fatty acids) and polar (glycolipids and  
51 phospholipids) components. Polar lipids are structural components of membranes, with the  
52 galactolipids being characteristic of the membranes of the amyloplasts (modified plastids),  
53 which contain the starch granules (Haschke et al., 1990). Recent studies have focused on  
54 surface-active galactolipids which are present in the air-water interface surrounding the gas  
55 bubbles in dough and may contribute to their stability (Schaffarczyk et al., 2014; Salt et al.,  
56 2018; Melis et al., 2020; Min et al., 2020).

57 Triacylglycerols (TAGs) are the major storage lipids in seeds but, with the exception of oats,  
58 are minor components in cultivated cereals. They are concentrated in the aleurone layer and  
59 scutellum of the embryo, where they account for 60 to 80% of the total lipids in these tissues  
60 (Chung et al., 2009) and are located in discrete oil bodies. By contrast, although TAGs account  
61 for about a third of the total lipids in the starchy endosperm tissue from which white flour is  
62 produced (Chung al., 2009; Gonzalez-Thuillier et al., 2015), nothing is known about their  
63 synthesis and deposition and it has been suggested that some transfer of lipids (including  
64 TAGs) from the aleurone and embryo to the flour occurs during milling (Morrison, 1994).

65 The production of fatty acids and the synthesis of TAGs in plants is a complex process that  
66 involves multiple cellular organelles. Fatty acids are synthesized in the plastid by a Type II  
67 fatty acid synthase complex. A repeated series of condensation, reduction and dehydration  
68 reactions then adds two carbon units to the extending fatty acid chain. The final products of  
69 these reactions are fatty acids typically 16 or 18 carbons (C16 and C18) long and attached to  
70 an acyl-carrier protein (ACP). While in the plastid a double bond can be introduced through  
71 the action of a fatty acid  $\Delta 9$ -desaturase. The ACP moiety is removed by thioesterases and the  
72 fatty acids produced in the plastid are then exported to the cytosol, converted to CoA forms  
73 and rapidly incorporated into phosphatidylcholine (PC). Further modification by additional  
74 desaturation (via fatty acid desaturases, FADs) (see Hajiahmadi et al. 2020 for a detailed  
75 description of wheat FADs) or incorporation of functional groups can then occur. The lipids  
76 of wheat grains typically contain C16 and C18 fatty acids, notably palmitic acid (C16:0),  
77 palmitoleic acid (C16:1), stearic acid (C18:0), oleic acid (C18:1), linoleic acid (C18:2) and  
78 linolenic acid (C18:3). A process of acyl editing exchanges fatty acids between PC and the acyl-  
79 CoA pool. Once located in the endoplasmic reticulum (ER), fatty acids are assembled into TAG  
80 by a combination of two pathways (Supplementary Figure S1). The acyl-CoA-dependent  
81 Kennedy pathway begins with the sequential acylation of glycerol-3-phosphate by glycerol-3-  
82 phosphate acyltransferases (GPATs) and lysophosphatidic acid acyltransferases (LPAATs)  
83 using acyl-CoA to produce phosphatidic acid (PA). This PA can then be dephosphorylated by  
84 PA phosphatases to create de novo diacylglycerol (DAG). The DAG is then available for two  
85 different acyltransferase reactions: diacylglycerol acyltransferases (DGAT) transfer acyl-CoAs  
86 to the sn-3 position of DAG to produce TAG; alternatively phospholipid:diacylglycerol  
87 acyltransferases (PDAT) transfers the sn-2 acyl group of from phospholipids to DAG, forming

88 TAG (see Li-Beisson et al. 2013 for a detailed description). The contribution of DGAT and PDAT  
89 to TAG synthesis is known to vary between species.

90 We report here the first detailed study of TAG accumulation and deposition in the wheat  
91 starchy endosperm during the major grain filling period. This is based on the analysis of hand-  
92 dissected tissues to avoid lipid transfer between tissues with the lipid profiles being combined  
93 with transcript analysis and confocal microscope imaging of tissue sections. This study  
94 therefore add to our currently limited knowledge of the synthesis and deposition of TAG in  
95 the starchy endosperm during grain maturation and provides a basis for determining the  
96 contributions of TAGs to flour processing and breadmaking.

## 97 **2. Experimental**

### 98 *2.1. Plant material*

99 Wheat cv Hereward was grown in field trials with three replicate blocks in 2016 (year 1) and  
100 2017 (year 2) at Rothamsted Research (Harpenden, UK) for lipidomics and microscopy. For  
101 transcript analysis cv Yumai 34 was grown in a glass house with 20°C/15°C day/night cycles  
102 and a photoperiod of 16 hours, supplementary lighting being provided when ambient levels  
103 fell below 400  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ . Heads were tagged at anthesis and caryopses harvested from the  
104 middle thirds of ears for each developmental stage (14, 21, 28 and 34/5 days post-anthesis  
105 (dpa)). Starchy endosperm tissue was dissected by hand and frozen in liquid nitrogen for  
106 lipidomics or transcript analysis. Lipid analysis was carried out on on. Lipid analysis was carried  
107 out on three replicate samples of twelve caryopses each, representing the outer fully  
108 developing ones of the central six florets of one ear. For transcriptomics caryopses from two  
109 or three individual ears were pooled for each sample with two replicates per time point.  
110 Whole caryopses were used directly for microscopy.

### 111 *2.2. Lipid extraction*

112 Samples were transferred to a glass tube with 1 mL of propan-2-ol. Samples were crushed  
113 with a glass rod, vortexed and then heated at 75°C for 20min. Chloroform, methanol and H<sub>2</sub>O  
114 (1:1:0.7) were then added and the mixture vortex followed by 1mL chloroform and 1 mL water  
115 and the mixture vortexed again. Two phases were separated by centrifugation and the lower  
116 phase, containing the lipids, was removed to a new tube. The extraction was repeated with  
117 an additional millilitre of chloroform and, after mixing and centrifugation, the lower phase



118 was removed to the same tube. The samples were dried with a current of nitrogen and re-  
119 suspended in 200µl chloroform and stored at -80°C.(Bligh and Dyer 1959; Kates et al. 1986)

### 120 2.3. TAG analysis

121 Triacylglycerols were identified and quantify by ESI-MS/MS as described by Li et al. (2014)  
122 with modifications (Gonzalez-Thuillier et al., 2015). A portion of lipid extract (10µL) and  
123 0.857nmol tri15:0-TAG (Nu-Chek Prep, Minnesota, USA) were mixed with  
124 chloroform:methanol:300 mM ammonium acetate (24:24:1.75: v/v) to a final volume of 1 ml  
125 for direct infusion into the mass spectrometer. TAG was detected as [M+NH<sub>4</sub>]<sup>+</sup> ions by a  
126 series of different neutral loss scans, targeting losses of fatty acids. The data were processed  
127 using the program Lipid View Software (AB-Sciex, Massachusetts, USA) where isotope  
128 corrections are applied. The peak area of each lipid was normalized to the internal standard  
129 and further normalized to the weight of the initial sample.

### 130 2.4. Sample preparation and staining for imaging

131 Developing caryopses were hand-dissected and immediately fixed in 4 % (w/v)  
132 paraformaldehyde in 1x phosphate buffer solution (PBS) for 4 or 5 hours after removal of the  
133 two ends to facilitate penetration of the fixative in the tissue. The samples were then washed  
134 x 3 with PBS and cut into 150 µm transverse sections using a Vibratome (Leica VT1000S,  
135 Germany). Sections were collected with a fine brush and washed briefly in PBS, before being  
136 subjected to two additional hours fixation in fresh 4 % (w/v) paraformaldehyde in PBS,  
137 following which they were washed three times with PBS for 5 to 10 minutes. For confocal  
138 microscopy the sections were sequentially stained with BODIPY 493/503 (Thermo Fisher  
139 Scientific) for neutral lipids, calcofluor white for cell walls and rhodamine for proteins. The  
140 sections were submerged for 2 minutes in BODIPY solution (1µg BODIPY per mL of PBS) then  
141 washed for 5 min with PBS, 1 min in distilled water and 1 min in PBS. They were then stained  
142 with 0.05% calcofluor white for 30 seconds and washed as above followed by 0.5 µg  
143 rhodamine in 1ml of PBS and washed again. The stained sections were mounted on a slide in  
144 fluorescence mounting medium (CITIFLUOR AF1, England) and observed by confocal  
145 microscopy (Zeiss LSM780, Germany). Images were acquired with Zen 2011 software.

### 146 2.5. Transcript analysis

147 Transcript profiles were determined essentially as described by Pellny et al (2012) for cv  
148 Cadenza. In short, central samples of starchy endosperm were dissected by hand, snap frozen  
149 in liquid nitrogen and total RNA extracted using a CTAB method. Transcriptome analysis was  
150 performed at the University of Bristol Transcriptomics facilities using Illumina single reads.

### 151 3. Results and Discussion

#### 152 3.1. TAG accumulation

153 Starchy endosperm tissue was prepared from developing caryopses of wheat cv Hereward  
154 between 14 and 34 days post-anthesis (dpa) which correspond to the most active phase of  
155 grain filling (Shewry et al., 2009b). Total TAGs and TAG molecular species were determined  
156 by lipidomic profiling as described by Min et al. (2020). The experiment was carried out in  
157 two years, 2016 and 2017 (called Years 1 and 2, respectively), and the results are summarised  
158 in Figure 1 and Supplementary Figure S1.

159 The content of TAG increased during development from about 50 to 115 mg/g dry wt in Year  
160 1 and from about 35 to 175 mg/g dry wt in Year 2 (Figure 1A). The fatty acid profiles of the  
161 total TAG fractions were broadly similar over the two experiments, although the precise  
162 proportions of the fatty acids differed (Figure 1B, C): this almost certainly resulted from  
163 differences in the growth conditions, which are known to strongly affect grain lipid  
164 composition (Salt et al., 2018). The major fatty acids were C16 (palmitic C 16:0 and palmitoleic  
165 C16:1) and C18 (stearic C18:0, oleic C18:1, linoleic C18:2 and linolenic C18:3), with  
166 unsaturated fatty acids accounting for about 75-80% of the total throughout development.  
167 Linoleic acid (C18:2) was the major component at all stages and the proportion increased  
168 during development.

169 Twenty-four TAG species were determined (Figure 2), including two minor saturated species  
170 (C46:0, C48:0). The major species in both years was C52:4, but the proportions of all species  
171 varied with no consistent trends between stages and years. The accumulation of TAG during  
172 endosperm development aligns with its role as a storage reservoir of fatty acids. Furthermore,  
173 it is possible that TAG composition is dynamic during development, exchanging fatty acids  
174 with cell membranes to modulate membrane properties, including adaptation to  
175 environmental conditions (de Carvalho and Caramujo, 2018).

#### 176 3.2. Transcript analysis of TAG synthesis

177 The profiles of transcripts encoding enzymes catalysing the synthesis and assembly of TAG  
178 were determined using transcript libraries for hand-dissected starchy endosperm samples  
179 from the cultivar Yumai 34, harvested at similar developmental stages to those analysed from  
180 cv Hereward (Figure 3).

181 The transcripts for enzymes catalysing fatty acid synthesis show an initial burst of activity  
182 which then continues through grain development (Figure 3, Panel A). Abundant transcripts  
183 include  $\beta$ -ketoacyl-acyl carrier protein (ACP) synthase II (KASII), which elongates 16:0-ACP to  
184 18:0-ACP in the plastid at the first branch point of fatty acid synthesis. At the same time (10  
185 to 15 DAP) transcripts for acyl-ACP desaturase (stearoyl-acyl carrier protein-desaturase;  
186 DES/SAD), which introduces the first double bond into the acyl chain of saturated fatty acid  
187 in plastids (C18:0 to C18:1), and FAD2 (which converts C18:1 to C18:2) are also abundant.  
188 Long-chain acyl-CoA synthetases (LACs), typically esterify 16-carbon and mono- and  
189 polyunsaturated 18-carbon fatty acids to acyl-CoA and therefore play vital and diverse roles  
190 typically associated with cuticular wax synthesis. However, it is not uncommon for LACs  
191 mutants to produce less seed oil than wildtype. LACS transcript activity remains high through  
192 grain development which is consistent with its established role in supplying substrates for  
193 wax biosynthesis and its contribution to TAG assembly (Zhao et al. 2019). The levels of  
194 transcripts for FAD3, which converts C18:2 to C18:3, are consistently low, which is consistent  
195 with the low proportion of C18:3 in grain lipid profiles (~5%).

196 Triacylglycerol (TAG) is synthesised by two routes, either in a reaction that uses acyl-CoA as  
197 acyl donor and diacylglycerol (DAG) as acceptor (the Kennedy pathway) or from phosphatidyl  
198 choline in an acyl-CoA independent reaction (Supplementary Figure S1).

199 Analysis of the transcript profiles of three acyltransferases involved in the Kennedy pathway  
200 (Panel B) shows that the pathway is highly active during grain development, with consistently  
201 high levels of transcripts for sn-1 glycerol-3-phosphate acyltransferase (GPAT) which acylates  
202 glycerol-3-phosphate to form lysophosphatidic acid (LPA), lysophosphatidic acid  
203 acyltransferase (LPAAT) which acylates LPA to give phosphatidic acid and diacylglycerol  
204 acyltransferase (DGAT) which catalyses the third acylation, following dephosphorylation of  
205 PA to give diacylglycerol (DAG), to give TAG.

206 However, transcripts are also present for activities involved in the production of TAG from PC  
207 and DAG by the acyl-CoA independent pathway, namely phospholipid:diacylglycerol  
208 acyltransferases (PDAT), phosphatidylcholine:diacylglycerol choline phosphotransferase  
209 (PDCT) and diacylglycerol cholinephosphotransferase (DAG-CPT). Together with  
210 lysophospholipid acyltransferases (LPCAT), these enzymes are responsible for the exchange  
211 of DAG and PC head groups and the mixing of acyl-CoA species into the TAG biosynthetic  
212 pathway. DAG produced from these exchange activities is often referred to as PC-derived  
213 DAG. Hence, both *de novo* synthesised DAG and PC-derived DAG can be used as a substrate  
214 for DGAT TAG synthesis. However, the transcript levels for the acyl-CoA independent pathway  
215 are generally lower than those for the Kennedy pathway.

216 The transcript profiles therefore indicate that the predominant route to TAG synthesis and oil  
217 accumulation in the developing starchy endosperm of wheat is via the Kennedy pathway and  
218 DGAT activity. However, the acyl-CoA independent pathway clearly also operates and the  
219 precise contributions of *de novo* DAG (Kennedy) and PC-derived DAG remain to be  
220 determined. The important of the Kennedy pathway supported by the transcript analysis of  
221 wheat grains reported by Grimberg et al. (2020) which also showed low levels of PDAT activity  
222 early in grain development and higher levels of DGAT/TAG1 activity.

### 223 3.3. TAG Deposition

224 Oil bodies in seed tissues are usually stabilised by a surface layer of oleosin proteins  
225 associated with phospholipids, with smaller amounts of other proteins (notably, caleosins, LD  
226 associated protein and OB associated protein) (Huang, 2018). Oil body proteins have not been  
227 identified in white flour or starchy endosperm cells of wheat, although oleosins have been  
228 identified in bran, a fraction which contains aleurone cells (Tsen et al., 1990) and embryos (Lv  
229 et al., 2016) in addition to the outer tissues of the grain.

230 We therefore initially used confocal laser microscopy to study the accumulation of oil in the  
231 developing starchy endosperm cells of wheat and determine whether the oil deposits were  
232 associated with proteins. Staining with BODIPY showed clear droplets of neutral lipids in the  
233 starchy endosperm cells of grain sections at 14 and 28 days after anthesis (Figure 4D). In  
234 order to visually compare the distribution of lipid bodies, confocal images of grain sections at  
235 14 and 28 days after anthesis are displayed as three-dimensional images in Figure 4A and 4C.

236 These show a clear increase in the number of oil deposits between 14 and 28 days. They also  
237 show that oil deposits are concentrated in the central endosperm cells (CES) at both stages,  
238 and absent from the sub-aleurone cells (SA). Both sections also show aleurone cells (AL),  
239 demonstrating the abundant lipid deposits in this tissue. To determine whether the oil  
240 deposits were associated with protein the sections were co-stained for neutral lipids  
241 (BIODIPY), protein (rhodamine) and cell wall glucans ( $\beta$ -glucan and cellulose, stained with  
242 calcofluor white) (Figure 4B). The distributions of these components were then determined  
243 across transects of the section, running from the outer cell wall of the aleurone layer to the  
244 central endosperm. These transects passed through oil deposits, showing that they were  
245 clearly associated with peaks in protein concentration (see arrows in Figure 4B and 4D).

246 Oleosins are present in cereal seeds in two isoforms with masses of about 16,000 and 18,000  
247 (16kDa and 18 kDa oleosins, respectively) (Tsen et al., 1990) and Aalen (1995) reported that  
248 transcripts for both were present in the aleurone and starchy endosperm of the barley grain.  
249 The expression profiles of transcripts encoding these two forms were therefore determined  
250 using the starchy endosperm transcript libraries described above. No transcripts for the 18  
251 kDa oleosins (*Ole-1*) were detected, but transcripts corresponding to the 16 kDa oleosin (*Ole-*  
252 *2*) genes on the B and D (but not A) genomes were detected (Figure 2D). The *Ole-2* transcripts  
253 from the B and D genomes show similar decreases in expression during caryopsis  
254 development. These data are therefore consistent with the oil deposits in the starchy  
255 endosperm cells being stabilised by 16 KDa oleosins.

#### 256 *3.4. General Discussion*

257 We have demonstrated that the triacylglycerols deposited in the starchy endosperm cells of  
258 developing caryopses are rich in linoleic acid (C18:2), with the proportion of this fatty acid  
259 also increasing during caryopsis development. Furthermore, TAGs are deposited in discrete  
260 oil deposits which are associated with protein. The presence of *Ole-2* transcripts encoding the  
261 16 kDa oleosin isoform suggests that these bodies are stabilised by oleosins as in most other  
262 oil-storing seed tissues. Although we have not directly demonstrated a role of oleosin in  
263 stabilising lipid bodies in this paper, recent studies carried out in transgenic wheat support  
264 this suggestion: overexpression of the AsWRI1 transcription factor from oat in the starchy  
265 endosperm of wheat resulted in increase in accumulation of TAGs by up to nine-fold and in  
266 up-regulation of oleosin-encoding genes (Grimberg et al., 2020). The fact that oleosins have

267 not been reported in published proteomic studies of wheat starchy endosperm or white flour  
268 probably reflects technical problems, as oleosins are highly hydrophobic and not readily  
269 extracted in buffers used for proteomic studies.

270 Oats differs from other cereal grain in containing 5-6% oil which is concentrated in the starchy  
271 endosperm as well as in the embryo and aleurone. Furthermore, oil is deposited in the sub-  
272 aleurone as well as the central starchy endosperm cells. Although an early study using  
273 fluorescence microscopy and Nile blue staining to visualise lipids reported the presence of oil  
274 bodies (termed spherosomes) in the subaleurone cells of wheat (Hargin et al 1980), this was  
275 not observed in our work, where BODIPY was used as a stain specific for neutral lipids.

276 Wheat also appears to differ from oats in that the oil deposits in the starchy endosperm  
277 remain discrete whereas they merge in the developing oat endosperm, resulting in an oily  
278 matrix surrounding the starch and protein in the mature grain (Heenan et al, 2008). This  
279 merging of the oil bodies in the starchy endosperm of oats may result from an imbalance  
280 between the synthesis of oil and oleosins as Heenen et al (2008) showed that oleosins are  
281 present in all oil-storing tissues of the oat grain, but the amount relative to oil content is much  
282 lower in the endosperm (aleurone and starchy endosperm) than in the embryo. In view of  
283 the low oil content it is unlikely that a similar merging of oil bodies occurs in the wheat starchy  
284 endosperm, but they will certainly become disrupted as the grain matures and the cell  
285 contents merge.

286

## 287 **Funding**

288 Rothamsted Research receives strategic funding from the Biotechnology and Biological  
289 Sciences Research Council (BBSRC) and the work forms part of the Designing Future Wheat  
290 strategic programme (BB/P016855/1). The work was also supported by the BBSRC Crop  
291 Improvement Research Club grant BB/J019526/1 “The role of lipids in determining gas bubble  
292 retention in wheat dough”

## 293 **CRedit authorship statement**

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299 draft, Writing - review & editing **Peter R. Shewry:** Conceptualization; Project Administration,  
300 Funding acquisition, Supervision, Writing - original draft, Writing - review & editing

301 **Declaration of competing interest.** The authors declare that they have no known competing  
302 financial interests or personal relationships that could have influenced the work reported in  
303 this paper

304 **Appendix A. Supplementary data** Supplementary data to this article can be found online at:

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401 **Figure Captions:**

402 Figure 1. Total triacylglycerols (TAG) (A) and percentage compositions of fatty acids in TAGs  
403 (B,C) in developing endosperm of wheat grown in Years 1 (A,C) and 2 (A,D).

404 Fatty acids are: C16:0, palmitic; C16:1, palmitoleic; C18:0, stearic; C18:1, oleic; C18:2, linoleic;  
405 C18:3, linolenic.

406 Fig 2. Triacylglycerol (TAG) molecular species in developing starchy endosperm of wheat  
407 grown in Year 1 (A) and 2 (B)

408 Molecular species are defined as the sums of carbon atoms (44 to 54) and double bonds (0 to  
409 7) in the three fatty acid moieties.

410 Fig 3. Expression profiles of transcripts encoding enzymes involved in TAG synthesis and  
411 oleosin in developing starchy endosperm of wheat (RNAseq data mapped to IWGSC refseq  
412 1.1] log scale).

413 Panel A shows transcript profiles for enzymes associate with fatty acid synthesis:KASII,  $\beta$ -  
414 ketoacyl-acyl carrier protein (ACP) synthase II; FAD2, fatty acid desaturase 2; FAD3, fatty acid  
415 desaturase 3; LACS, long-chain acyl-CoA synthetase; long-chain acyl-CoA synthetases  
416 DES/SAD, stearyl-acyl carrier protein-desaturase

417 Panel B shows acyltransferases catalysing TAG synthesis via the Kennedy pathway: DGAT,  
418 diacylglycerol acyltransferases; LPAAT, lysophosphatidic acid acyltransferase; GPAT, glycerol-  
419 3-phosphate acyltransferases.

420 Panel C shows enzymes catalysing TAG synthesis via the CoA-independent pathway: DGAT-  
421 CTP, diacylglycerol cholinephosphotransferase; PDCT/ROD1;  
422 phosphatidylcholine:diacylglycerol cholinephosphotransferase; PDAT,  
423 phospholipid:diacylglycerol acyltransferases

424 Panel D shows transcripts for 16 kDa oleosins (*Ole-1*) encoded by the A, B and D genomes.

425 Fig 4. Lipid deposition in the starchy endosperm cells of the developing wheat caryopsis.

426 Panels A and C show three-dimensional representations of the distribution of lipids  
427 reconstructed from CLSM images of BODIPY-stained cross sections of developing caryopses  
428 at 14 days post anthesis DPA (panel A) and 28 DPA (panel C). Panel B shows the intensity levels  
429 of staining with Rhodamine (protein), BODIPY (lipids) and calcofluor (cell wall  
430 polysaccharides), as detected along the transect showed in panel D. Panel D shows across  
431 section of the developing caryopsis at 28 DPA wheat grain stained for protein, lipids and cell  
432 wall polysaccharides.

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Figure 1

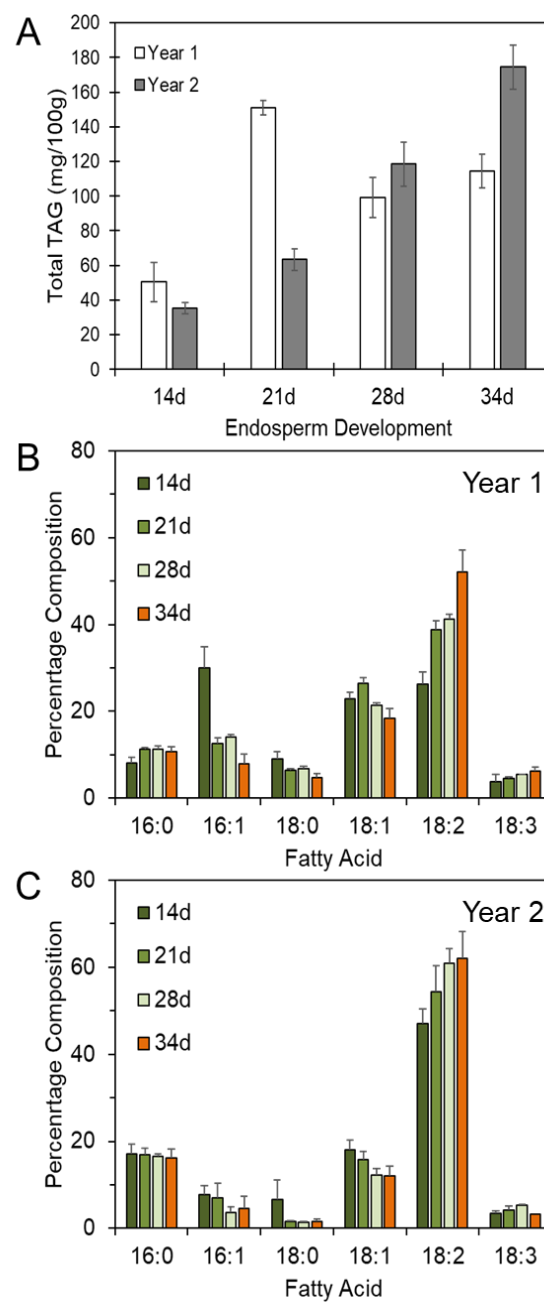


Figure 2

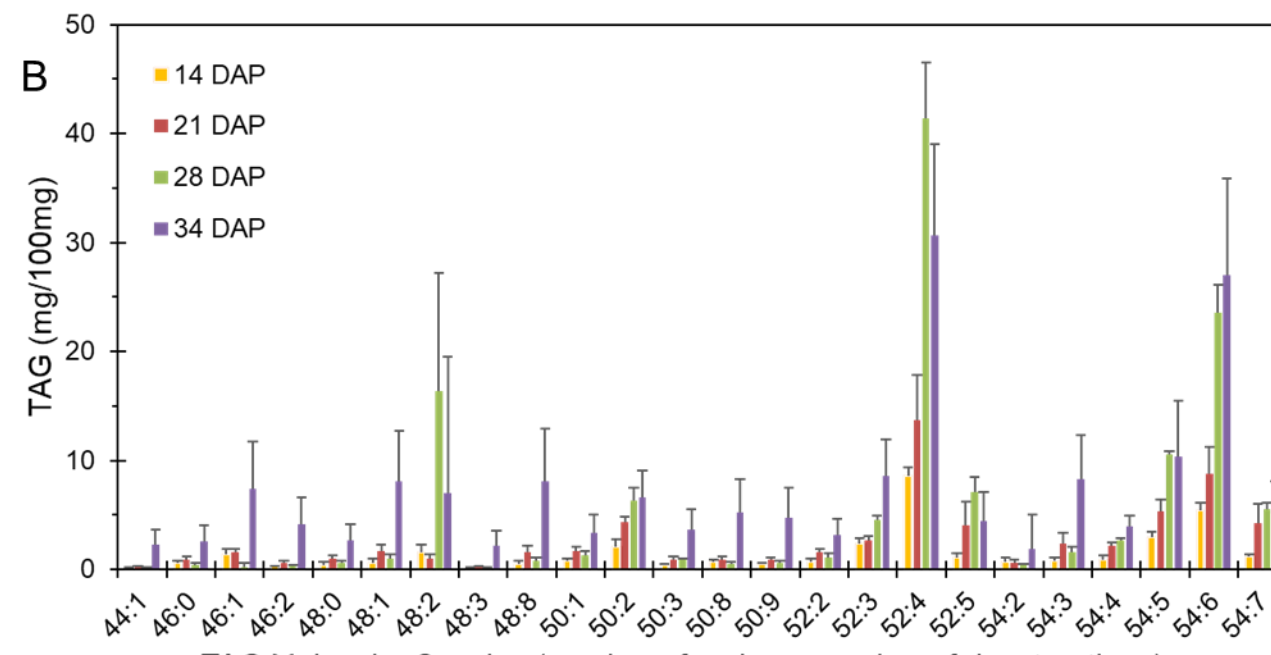
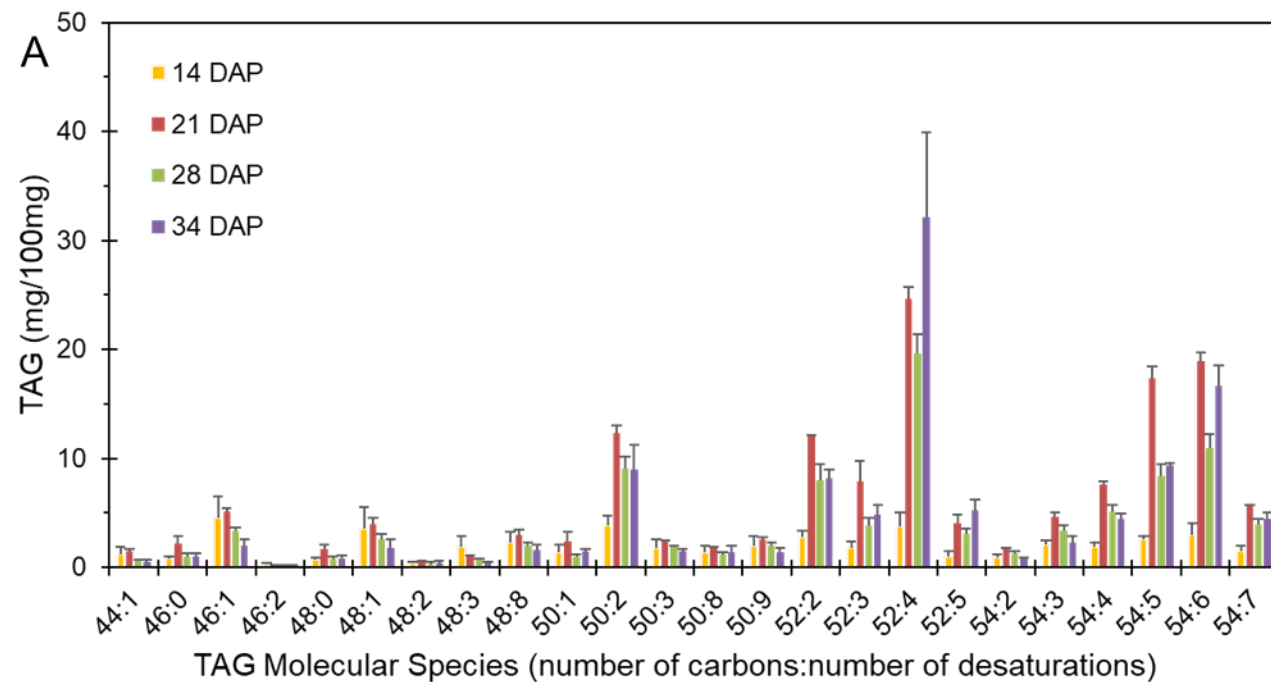


Figure 3

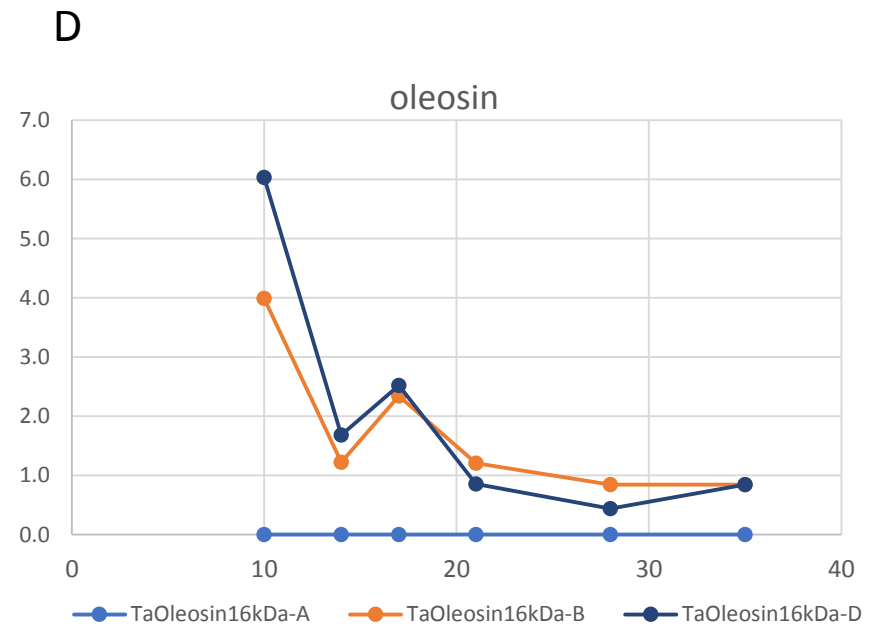
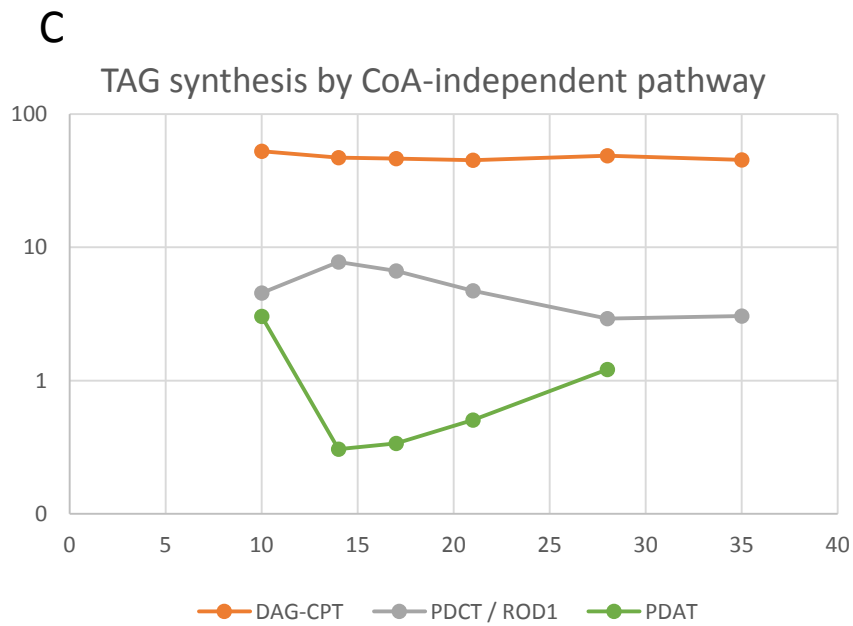
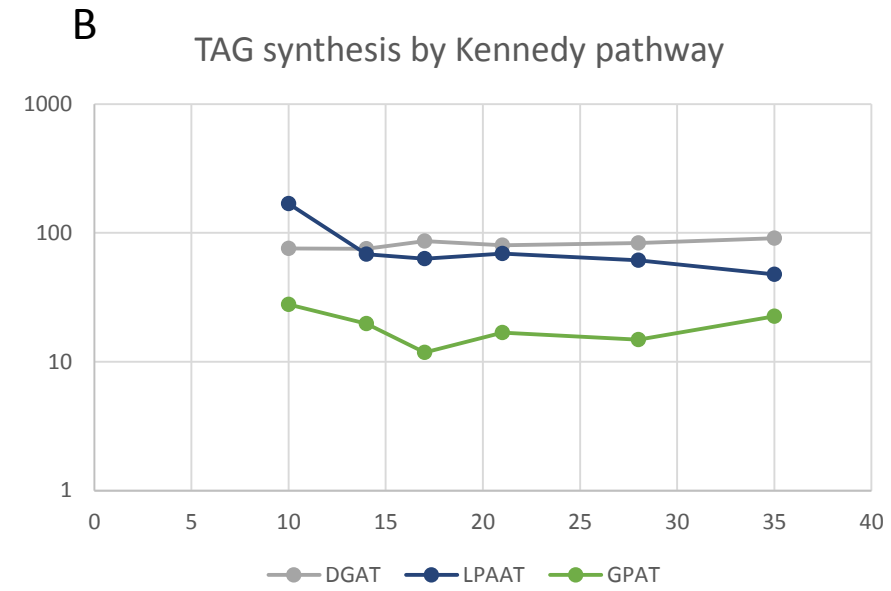
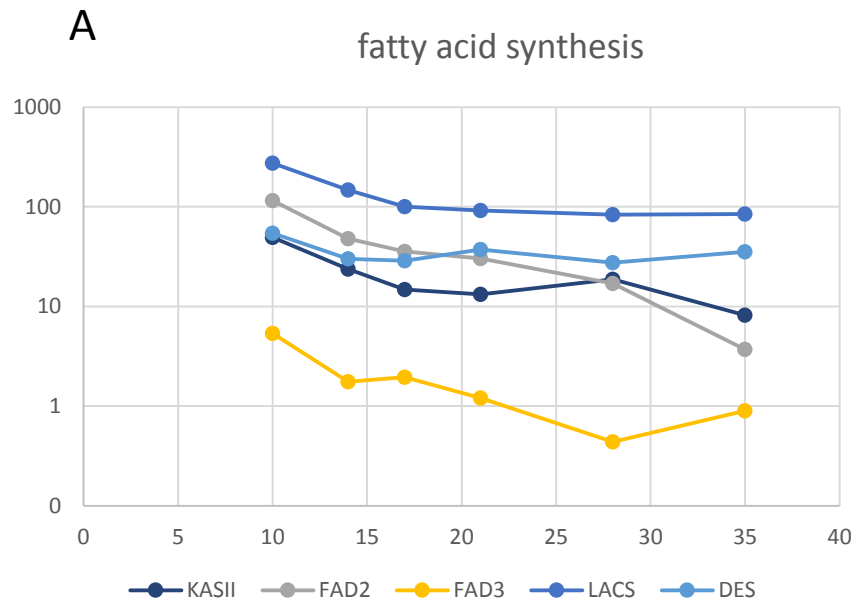
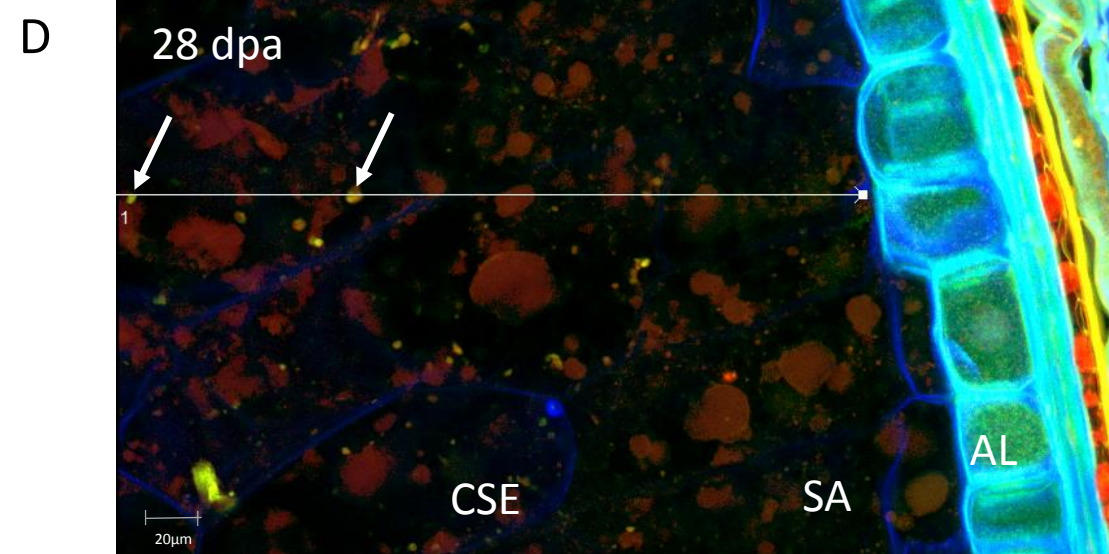
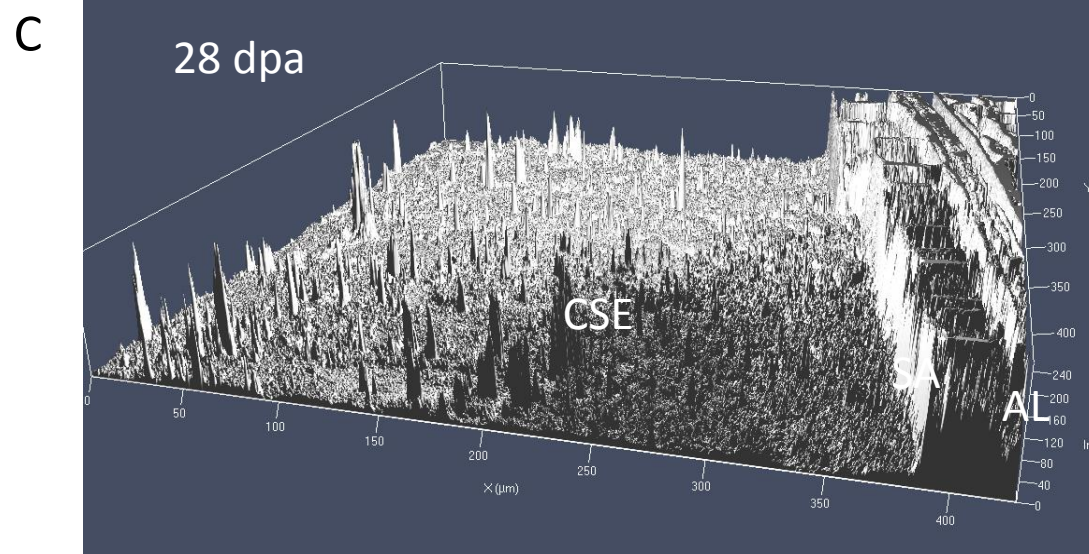
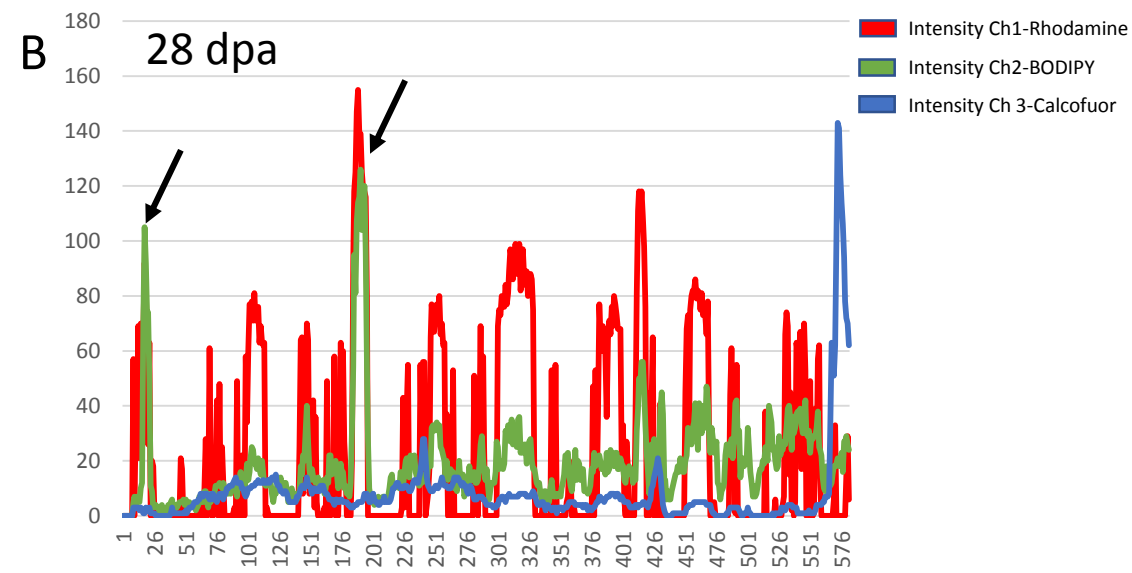
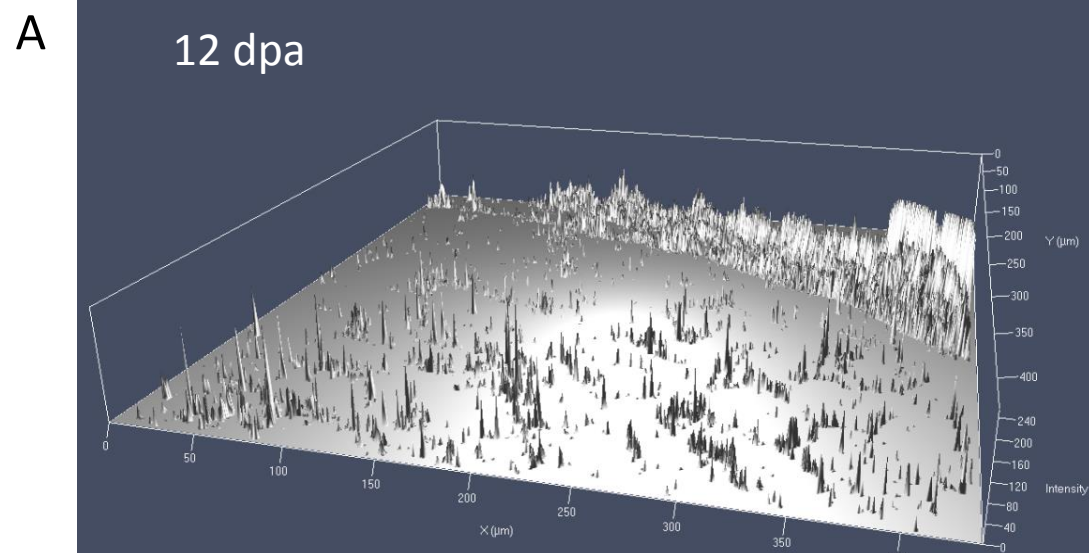


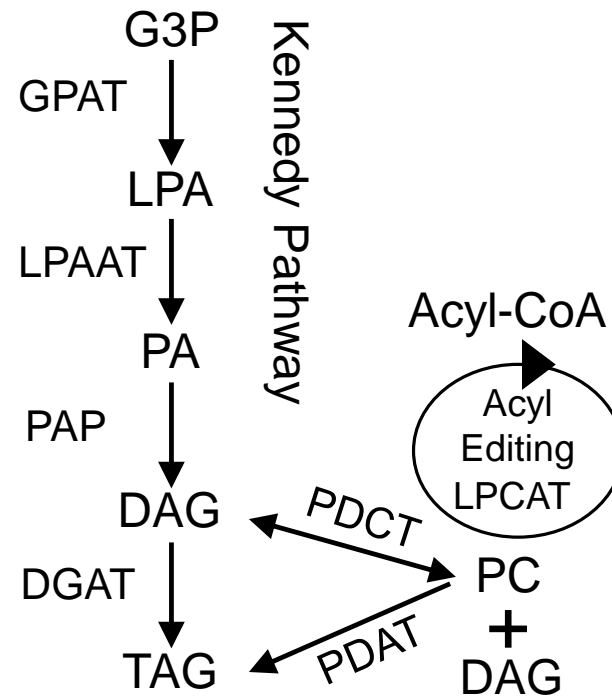
Figure 4





**Conflict of interest**

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have influenced the work reported in this paper



**Supplementary Figure S1. Summary of the pathways of triacylglycerol biosynthesis.**

Fatty acids are assembled into TAG by a combination of two pathways.

In the acyl-CoA-dependent Kennedy pathway glycerol-3-phosphate (G3P) is converted by glycerol-3-phosphate acyltransferases (GPATs) and lysophosphatidic acid acyltransferases (LPAATs) using acyl-CoA to produce phosphatidic acid (PA). PA is then dephosphorylated by PA phosphatases (PAP) creating de novo diacylglycerol (DAG). DAG and acyl-CoA are then available to diacylglycerol acyltransferases (DGAT) to produce TAG.

In the second acyl-CoA independent pathway phospholipid:diacylglycerol acyltransferases (PDAT) utilizes the sn-2 acyl group of phospholipids with DAG, forming TAG. Phosphatidylcholine:diacylglycerol cholinephosphotransferase (PDCT) exchanges head groups between PC and DAG, whilst LPCAT (lysophospholipid acyltransferase) is responsible for acyl editing, incorporating acyl-CoA species into PC.