

iTRAQ-Based quantitative proteome revealed metabolic changes between a cleistogamous wheat mutant and its wild-type wheat

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Abstract

Background: Wheat is one of the most important staple crops worldwide. However, *Fusarium* head blight severely affects wheat yield and quality. A novel bread wheat mutant, *ZK001*, characterized as cleistogamic was isolated from a non-cleistogamous ~~varieties-variety~~ (YM18) through static magnetic field mutagenesis. Cleistogamy should be a new strategy and approach to control *Fusarium* head blight. However, little is known about the mechanism of cleistogamy in wheat.

Methods: *Fusarium* head blight resistance test was performed to identify the *Fusarium* head blight infection rate of *ZK001*. And we measured the agronomic trait of *ZK001* and the contents of starch and total soluble sugar of lodicules in YM18 and *ZK001*. In addition, ~~Comparative-comparative~~ studies at the proteome level were employed between YM18 and *ZK001* based on the proteomic technique of isobaric tags for relative and absolute quantification.

Results: The infection rate of *ZK001* is lower than its wild type and AK58. The abnormal lodicules of *ZK001* lost the ability to push the lemma and palea apart during the flowering stage. Proteome analysis showed that the main differentially abundant proteins were related to carbohydrate metabolism, protein transport and calcium ion binding. These differentially abundant proteins may work together to regulate cellular homeostasis, osmotic pressure and the development of lodicules. This theory is supported by the analysis of starch, soluble sugar content in the lodicules as well as the results of qRT-PCR.

Conclusions: In this paper, we demonstrate that the proteome analysis provides comprehensive information for further research on the lodicule development mechanism in wheat. This mutant is optimal for studying flower development in wheat and could be very important for *Fusarium* head blight resistant projects via conventional crossing.

Key words: Bread wheat, Cleistogamous, *Fusarium* head blight, Lodicule, iTRAQ

Introduction

Bread wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) is one of the most important staple crops worldwide. The world population continues to grow and arable area is decreasing year by year, therefore higher production in crop plants may prove to be necessary to satisfy the increasing demand in food (FAO, 2015). However, many challenges like biotic and abiotic stress severely affect wheat fields and the product quality. For instance, *Fusarium* head blight (FHB) is a critical factor badly damaging wheat security (Walter, Nicholson & Doohan, 2010), and the application of chemical insecticides and fungicides used for controlling pests and diseases is increasing the amount of residues in wheat and in the environment (Hollingsworth et al., 2008). Therefore, scientists and breeders have to find eco-friendly and cost-effective strategies to guarantee wheat yield and quality. Induced mutation, such as Cobalt-60 (^{60}Co - γ -ray)-mutagenesis, static magnetic fields (SMFs)-mutagenesis, spaceflight-mutagenesis, and ethyl methane sulfonate (EMS), ~~is-are an~~-important methods employed for crop breeding improvement (Krasileva et al., 2017).

In the last decade, severe epidemics caused by *Fusarium* ~~sspspp~~ have occurred worldwide and up to 100% yield loss was recorded under optimal disease conditions (Yumurtaci et al., 2017). FHB is a complex disease and the *pore-forming toxin-like (PFT)* gene at the quantitative trait locus (QTL) *Fhb1* which so far was the first FHB-resistance gene ~~was~~-isolated and found to confer resistance to FHB in Sumai 3 (SM3) (Rawat et al., 2016). FHB infection usually occurs on the inner surfaces of lemmas and palea~~s~~ after germination of the *Fusarium* ~~sspspp~~ conidia (Zange, Kang & Buchenauer, 2005). The anther can provide the initial path for FHB infection (Pugh, Johann & Dickson, 1933; Walter, Nicholson & Doohan, 2010); therefore, cleistogamous cultivars, which contain few anthers exposed to glumes, may provide structural barriers for diseases that appear during the flowering stage. In barley (*Hordeum vulgare* L.), cleistogamous cultivars, which self-fertilize within permanently closed flowers (Culley & Klooster, 2007), showed greater resistance to FHB infection than chasmogamous cultivars, which have open flowers (Yoshida, Kawada & Tohnooka, 2005). In wheat, cleistogamous cultivars (U24) have a lower risk of FHB infection than chasmogamous cultivars such as Saikai 165 (Kubo et al., 2010). Therefore, cleistogamy is a new strategy for controlling *Fusarium* head blight. Cleistogamy in barley is genetically determined by the presence of the recessive allele *cly1*, but the dominant allele at the linked locus, *Cly2*, is epistatic over *cly1* (Wang et al., 2013). Loss of the miRNA172 target site causes *cly1* to express a protein, HvAP2, which effectively suppress~~es~~ lodicule swelling (Turuspekov et al., 2004; Nair et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2015). In rice, there are many cleistogamous mutants resulting from abnormal lodicules. *ld(t)* (*lodiculeless spikelet(t)*), a single recessive gene, controls the cleistogamous mutant lacking lodicules (Won & Koh, 1998; Maeng

et al., 2006). Another rice mutant, which has a truncated DEP2 determined by the *cl7(t)* gene, has a cleistogamous phenotype because of weak swelling ability in the lodicules (Ni et al., 2014). A third rice mutant, *spw1-cls*, has normal stamens, but the lodicules are transformed homeotically into lodicule-glume mosaic organs, thereby engendering cleistogamy with temperature-sensitivity (Yoshida et al., 2007; Ohmori et al., 2012). A novel temperature-stable cleistogamous mutant, *spw1-cls2*, can maintain the cleistogamous phenotype under low temperatures (Lombardo et al., 2017). The glumes open in the flowering stage because the swelling of the lodicule is primarily responsible for pushing the lemma and palea, thereby opening the floret (Nair et al., 2010). However, there is very little information on cleistogamy in wheat.

The probability of primary infection is approximately proportional to the number of spores reaching the open florets during the flowering process, and the breeding of varieties of flower that are partially or completely cleistogamous might reduce *Fusarium* susceptibility in wheat (Schuster & Ellner, 2008). In order to probe the mechanism of cleistogamy, Ning et al. (Ning et al., 2013) studied the structure, transcription and post-transcriptional regulation of the cleistogamous gene, *TaAP2*, which is homologous to barley in wheat. *TaAP2* alleles may also generate a cleistogamous wheat and improve the resistance to FHB. Additionally, anther extrusion is a complex trait with significant markers which has either favorable or unfavorable additive effects and impart minor to moderate levels of phenotypic variance in spring and winter wheat (Muqaddasi et al., 2017). Okada et al. (Okada et al., 2018) proposed a novel mechanism where ovary swelling could push the lemma and palea apart to open the florets in wheat flowers.

Large-scale transcriptomic analyses have been employed in wheat to better understand the molecular mechanisms of flower development (Winfield et al., 2010; Diallo et al., 2014; Feng et al., 2015; Kumar et al., 2015; Yang et al., 2015; Ma et al., 2017). However, because of post-transcriptional and post-translational modifications, the mRNA levels do not always correlate with the corresponding protein levels (Schweppe et al., 2003; Canovas et al., 2004; Zhao et al., 2013). Proteins are directly correlated with cellular functions (Yan et al., 2005; Zhang et al., 2012); therefore, proteomic analysis is essential for studying global protein expression levels in wheat to further unravel the complex mechanisms of cleistogamy. In particular, isobaric tags for relative and absolute quantitation (iTRAQ) technology, which is a quantitative gel-free proteomic approach, coupled with liquid chromatography/mass spectrometry/mass spectrometry (LC/MS/MS) enables the direct quantification and comparison of protein levels among samples with more efficiency and accuracy than traditional gel-based techniques which fail to identify low-abundance protein species and have difficulties identifying proteins with extreme biochemical properties (Wu et al., 2006).

Here, we show that an SMFs-induced wheat mutant, *ZK001*, is a cleistogamous line with lower FHB infection vulnerability than the chasmogamous line, Yumai 18 (YM18). Additionally, we perform a comparative proteomic analysis of different development stages in YM18 and *ZK001* at Bangfei Bioscience (Beijing Bangfei Bioscience Co., Ltd. <http://www.bangfeibio.com/>) to characterize the protein expression profiles. In the present study, we attempted to provide insight into proteomic changes associated with the cleistogamous phenotype in wheat, specifically

exploring lodicule expanding mechanisms at the protein level. The results have the potential to benefit future research efforts in controlling FHB via conventional crossing and studying wheat flower development. It could also be important for better control of genetically modified lines of agriculturally important crops; and it has time-saving and cost-saving benefits in the purification of genotypes.

Materials & Methods

Plant Material

The cleistogamy mutant line, *ZK001*, was isolated from a mutagenized population of wheat varieties, YM18, using a SMFs ~~with of~~ 7 Tesla for 5 hours. ~~And it propagated via self-pollination until the cleistogamous phenotype was completely stable.~~ All wheat seeds were stored in Hefei Institutes of Physical Science, Chinese Academy of Sciences (CASHIPS), Anhui, P. R. China. Sumai 3 (SM3), Aikang 58 (AK58), YM18 and *ZK001* were grown in a greenhouse in an experimental field (31°54' N, 117°10' E) at CASHIPS. Fertilizer and weed management were similar to the process for wheat breeding (Li et al., 2014). The spikelets and lodicules of YM18 and *ZK001* which had three biological replicates were harvested during the white anther stage (WAS), green anther stage (GAS), yellow anther stage (YAS) and anthesis stage (AS), respectively (Zadoks, Chang & Konzak, 1974; Kirby & Appleyard, 1987; Guo & Schnurbusch, 2015). These samples were collected and frozen in liquid nitrogen and preserved at -80 °C.

Starch and total soluble sugar content

Twenty pairs of lodicules with three biological replications from YM18 and *ZK001* were sampled and snap frozen in liquid nitrogen at four flower development stages. The samples were ~~grinded~~ ground using TissueLyser-24 (Shanghai Jingxin Industrial Development Co., Ltd.) for 45 seconds at 50 Hz.

Starch and total soluble sugars were extracted following the instructions included with the Starch content kit and Plant soluble sugar content test kit (Nanjing Jiancheng Bioengineering Institute), respectively. The starch and total soluble sugars in the supernatant were determined using a UV-VIS Spectrophotometer (Lambda 365, PerkinElmer) with a wave length of 620 nm. The formula of calculating starch and total soluble sugars as follow:

$$\text{Starch content } \left(\frac{\text{mg}}{\text{g}} \right) = \frac{\text{OD}_{\text{sample}} - \text{OD}_{\text{blank}}}{\text{OD}_{\text{standard}} - \text{OD}_{\text{blank}}} \times \text{Standard solution concentration } \left(0.2 \frac{\text{mg}}{\text{ml}} \right) \times \frac{V_{\text{pretreatment solution}} (\text{ml}) \times \text{Dilution ratio}}{\text{Weight of sample (g)}}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Total soluble sugar content } (\mu\text{g/g}) &= \frac{\text{OD}_{\text{sample}} - \text{OD}_{\text{blank}}}{\text{OD}_{\text{standard}} - \text{OD}_{\text{blank}}} \times \text{Standard solution concentration } \left(100 \frac{\mu\text{g}}{\text{ml}} \right) \\ &\div \frac{\text{Weight of sample (g)}}{10 \times V_{\text{distilled water used for homogenating}} (\text{ml})} \times \text{Dilution ratio} \end{aligned}$$

Observation of spikes and lodicules

Spike images of YM18 and *ZK001* were captured with a camera (Nikon) at the AS. After 90 minutes, the lodicules of YM18 and *ZK001*, which were separated from the central young spikes

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in triplicate during GAS and cultured on Murashige and Skoog (MS) medium, were observed with an upright fluorescence stereomicroscope (Olympus) and captured by a camera (Olympus).

FHB resistance testing

FHB resistance testing was performed during the flowering stage of SM3, AK58, YM18 and ZK001 in the greenhouse by spraying the FHB spore F0601 (*Fusarium graminearum* Schw. cv. F0601) in both 2013-2014 and 2014-2015. The inoculum (50 µL at 105 spores per mL) was deposited by spraying on both sides of the ears. AK58 and SM3 were used as the susceptible and resistant controls, respectively. The diseased spikelet rate was calculated using the following formula:

$$?? = \frac{\text{infected spikelets}}{\text{total number of spikelets}} \times 100.$$

Protein extraction and iTRAQ labelling

Total soluble proteins were extracted according to a published procedure (Yang et al., 2013) with slight modifications. Protein concentrations of the samples were estimated using the Bradford method (Bradford, 1976) (Table S1) and the samples were stored at -80 °C for further use. All protein samples were checked via sodium dodecyl sulphate polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) according to the Schagger protocol (Schagger, 2006). SDS-PAGE gels (Figure S1) were stained with Coomassie Brilliant Blue (CBB) staining solution (Coomassie Blue Fast Staining Solution, Beijing Dingguo Changsheng Biotechnology Co., LTD) (Kang et al., 2002).

After determining the protein concentration, Trypsin (Promega, V5113) was used to digest and incubate for 12-16 h at 37 °C. About 100 µg peptides of different samples were labelled with iTRAQ based on the Unwin et al. protocol (Unwin, Griffiths & Whetton, 2010). The peptides of different samples were labelled with iTRAQ reagents (isobaric tags 113, 114, 115, 116, 117, 118, 119 and 121 for group YM18-WAS, ZK001-WAS, YM18-GAS, ZK001-GAS, YM18-YAS, ZK001-YAS, YM18-AS and ZK001-AS, respectively) according to the manufacturer's instructions (Applied Biosystems).

HPLC grading of C18 columns at high pH and LC-electrospray ionization-MS/MS analysis

The lyophilized peptide mixture was reconstituted with 100 µL of solution A (2% acetonitrile (ACN) and 20 mM ammonium formate, pH 10). Then, the samples were loaded onto a reverse-phase column (C18 column, 1.9 µm 150 µm × 120 mm, Thermo Scientific) and eluted using a step linear elution program (Table S2). The samples were collected every 1.5 min and centrifuged at 14,000 × g for 5-90 min. The 60 fractions collected were dried and re-dissolved with 5 µL 0.5% formic acid (FA). The collected fractions were finally combined into 10 pools and centrifuged at 14,000 × g for 10 min.

The reconstituted peptides were analysed with the Q-Exactive HF mass spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific) coupled with a nano high-performance liquid chromatography system (1260 Infinity II, Agilent) using 320 degrees centigrade temperature conditions (Scheltema et al., 2014). The peptides were loaded onto a C18-reversed phase column (C18 column, 3 µm 100 µm × 200 mm, Thermo Scientific) and separated on an analytical column (xBridge peptide BEH 130 C18 column, Waters) using mobile phases A (0.1% FA/H₂O) and B (0.08% FA, 80% ACN) (Table

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S3). The HPLC effluent was directly electrosprayed into the mass spectrometer and analysed based on pre-set parameters (Figure S2).

Data analysis

The raw mass data were processed for peptide identification using Proteome Discoverer 1.4 (ver. 1.4.0.288, Thermo Fisher Scientific) with specific parameters (Table S4) for searching the Uniprot Triticum database. False discovery rate (FDR) ≤ 0.01 was estimated for protein identification using a target-decoy search strategy (Elias & Gygi, 2007). The mass spectrometry proteomics data have been deposited to the ProteomeXchange Consortium (<http://proteomecentral.proteomexchange.org>) via the PRIDE partner repository (Vizcaino et al., 2016) with the dataset identifier <PXD010188>. Up-regulated and down-regulated proteins were determined based on 1.5-fold-changes and peptides spectral matches (PSMs) ≥ 2 (Sharma et al., 2017) between ZK001-WAS vs YM18-WAS (Group 1), ZK001-GAS vs YM18-GAS (Group 2), ZK001-YAS vs YM18-YAS (Group 3), ZK001-AS vs YM18-AS (Group 4), YM18-WAS vs YM18-GAS (Group 5), YM18-WAS vs YM18-YAS (Group 6), YM18-WAS vs YM18-AS (Group 7), ZK001-WAS vs ZK001-GAS (Group 8), ZK001-WAS vs ZK001-YAS (Group 9), and ZK001-WAS vs ZK001-AS (Group 10), respectively.

Protein annotation was conducted by a BLAST search against NCBI and Uniprot databases. Protein function was classified based on the following databases: Gene Ontology (<http://www.geneontology.org/>, GO), and Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (<http://www.genome.jp/kegg/>, KEGG). For analysis of DAPs, significant GO enrichment and KEGG enrichment were defined as a corrected FDR with a p -value (Benjamini & Hochberg, 1995) less than 0.01. Proteins containing at least two peptides spectral matches (PSMs) per protein and fold change ratios ≥ 1.5 or ≤ 0.67 were considered as more abundant or less abundant proteins, respectively. In order to validate the DEP profile, the EnsemblPlants database (<http://plants.ensembl.org/index.html>) was searched for corresponding DNA sequences. A total of 10 DAPs, which were carbohydrate, calcium ion binding and transport, were selected for qRT-PCR validation.

Quantitative Real-time PCR validation

Total RNA was isolated using a Plant RNA Kit (Omega, R6827) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The quality of each RNA sample was checked on 1% agarose gels. Measurement of the concentration of RNA samples was performed using the NanoDrop 2000 spectrophotometer bioanalyzer (Thermo Fisher Scientific). cDNAs were synthesized using TransScript One-Step gDNA Removal and cDNA Synthesis SuperMix (Transgen Biotech) according to the manufacturer's protocol. qRT-PCR was used to measure the transcript levels of the proteins of interest. Each experiment was performed in three technical replicates with three biological replicates. Target gene-specific primers (Table S5) were designed using the online software Primer3 version 0.4.0 (<http://bioinfo.ut.ee/primer3-0.4.0/primer3/>) (Untergasser et al., 2012). Quantitative reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction (qRT-PCR) was performed according to the manufacturer's instructions for the FastStart Essential DNA Green Master (Roche), run in the Roche LightCycler® 96 Instrument. The *glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase* gene

from *T. aestivum* (*TaGAPDH*, GI: 7579063) was served as an internal control and the relative expression of target genes was calculated using the $2^{-\Delta\Delta CT}$ method (Livak & Schmittgen, 2001).

Statistical data analysis

The experimental data values represented the average of the measurements conducted from three independent assays and were expressed as the mean \pm standard error of the mean (SEM). The data were further analyzed using an ANOVA at a 95% confidence level followed by Duncan's ~~s'~~s test (SPSS 18.0, IBM, Somers, NY, USA). The level of significance was set at $p \leq 0.05$.

Results

Comparison of resistance to *Fusarium* head blight

Since the cleistogamous wheat mutant was isolated, we identified this cleistogamous mutant with a low FHB infection comparing to chasmo~~i~~gamous varieties. Kubo et al. (Kubo et al., 2010) showed that cleistogamous wheat cultivars have a lower FHB infection rate than chasmogamous cultivars. Therefore, we tested the FHB resistance of YM18 and *ZK001*. The results of FHB resistance testing showed that the infection rate in Sumai 3 (SM3) and *ZK001* were 7.03% and 9.39% in 2013-2014 and 8.61% and 17.60% in 2014-2015, respectively (Table 1). Compared to SM3 and *ZK001*, YM18 and Aikang (AK58) were highly susceptible, 35.16% and 38.12% in 2014-2015, respectively. However, the diseased spikelet rates for YM18 and AK58 were 15.20% and 20.41% in 2013-2014, respectively, about half the rate in 2014-2015 (Table 1). It indicates that the FHB infection rate is greatly influenced by environmental factors. These results suggested that cleistogamous cultivars had a lower FHB infection rate than chasmo~~i~~gamous cultivars. In addition, this mutant should be capable of generating excellent varieties with the phenotype of cleistogamy via conventional hybridization.

Comparison of flower between YM18 and *ZK001*

Exserted anthers increased the incidence of FHB (Sage & De Isturiz, 1974; PARRY, JENKINSON & McLEOD, 1995). Furthermore, the anthers of cleistogamy wheat were detained in glums during the flowering stage. The individual lines of YM18 and *ZK001* were grown under the same growth and environmental conditions but the morphological differences were obvious. In YM18, the anthers extrude from the palea and lemma at the anthesis stage (AS), whereas no anthers were observed in *ZK001* at all flower development stages (Figure 1A). The morphology of the lodicules of YM18 and *ZK001* was also obviously different. In order to investigate the morphology of the lodicules, the lodicules of YM18 and *ZK001* at the green anther stage (GAS) were harvested and cultured for 90 minutes on MS medium. The results showed that the width of YM18 lodicules (Figure 1B) was larger than that of *ZK001* lodicules (Figure 1C and 1D).

Physiological characters of lodicules in YM18 and *ZK001*

To reveal the cause of the lodicules difference between YM18 and *ZK001*, the starch and total soluble sugar contents were measured in the lodicules of YM18 and *ZK001* at four flower development stages. Lodicule starch and total soluble sugar contents showed an overall increase

from white anther stage (WAS) to AS for YM18 and *ZK001* (Figure 2, Table S6). No significant differences in the starch and soluble sugar contents in the lodicule were observed in YM18 or *ZK001* during WAS and GAS. Additionally, the starch and total soluble sugar contents in *ZK001* decreased by 2.54, 2.40, 2.30, and 1.75-fold compared with YM18 during the yellow anther stage (YAS), detected in the quality fraction and per pair of lodicules, respectively (Figure 2, Table S6). In contrast, the starch and total soluble sugar contents in *ZK001* increased by 4.50, 3.57, 1.87, and 1.52-fold compared with YM18 during the AS, detected in the quality fraction and per pair of lodicules, respectively (Figure 2, Table S6).

Overview of quantitative proteome analysis

In order to study the protein expression patterns in YM18 and *ZK001*, the proteomes of YM18 and *ZK001* in the four flower development stages were examined and quantitatively catalogued using iTRAQ technology, respectively. In this study, 19,422 peptides were matched to 4,497 proteins in the samples (Table S7); in addition, 11,603 unique peptides were found, and 2,172 proteins were identified with more than two unique peptide sequences excluding PTMs. Figure 3A shows that more than 99% of the peptides covered proteins within the 36 peptides, and protein quantity decreased as the number of matching peptides increased. In terms of protein mass distribution, good coverage (average of 10–18% of total proteins in each protein-mass group) was obtained for proteins > 10 kDa and < 60 kDa (Figure 3B). The length of the identified peptides was between 10 and 13 aas at the peak and about 93% of the peptide length was within 24 aas (Figure 3C). Over 77% of the proteins had > 5% sequence coverage. Additionally, sequence coverage distribution was high in most of identified proteins: more than 58% had over > 10% coverage and more than 37% had over 20% coverage (Figure 3D). These results indicate that the identified peptides were sufficient for protein identification.

Formatting of Mathematical Components

In order to identify more differentially abundant proteins, we compared the differentially abundant proteins between YM18 and *ZK001* in the flowering development process, *ZK001*-WAS vs YM18-WAS (Group 1), *ZK001*-GAS vs YM18-GAS (Group 2), *ZK001*-YAS vs YM18-YAS (Group 3), *ZK001*-AS vs YM18-AS (Group 4), YM18-WAS vs YM18-GAS (Group 5), YM18-WAS vs YM18-YAS (Group 6), YM18-WAS vs YM18-AS (Group 7), *ZK001*-WAS vs *ZK001*-GAS (Group 8), *ZK001*-WAS vs *ZK001*-YAS (Group 9), and *ZK001*-WAS vs *ZK001*-AS (Group 10), respectively. Increasing abundance and decreasing abundance proteins were determined based on fold-changes (FC) of > 1.5 or < 0.667 for expression difference comparison. For further screening, about 16, 47, 2, 0, 11, 124, 105, 15, 298 and 188 differentially abundant proteins (DAPs) were identified with a corrected P-value for GO KEGG enrichment less than 0.01 in group 1 to 10 (Table 2). A Venn diagram of the DAPs and their overlap between Group 1 and Group 2 showed that 2 and 1 common DAPs were increased-abundance and decreased- abundance, respectively (Figure S3). Group 3 and Group 4 showed no overlap with Group 1 or Group 2 (Figure S3). Venn

diagrams indicated that 6, 10, 32, 206, 57 and 140 DAPs were specific DAPs of Groups 5, 8, 6, 9, 7 and 10, respectively (Figure S3).

Furthermore, there were more DAPs during WAS (Group 1) / GAS (Group 2) than during YAS (Group 3) and AS (Group 4). With the growth of the plant, the mass of DAPs continued increasing from WAS to YAS in both YM18 and *ZK001* (Groups 5 to 6 and Groups 8 to 9, respectively). However, there was a disparity between YM18 and *ZK001* from YAS to AS. The number of DAPs decreased by about 39% in *ZK001* from YAS to AS (Group 10), but showed a slight decrease in YM18 (Group 7) (Table 2).

Functional classification and subcellular localization of proteins

GO analysis showed that all of the identified proteins in YM18 and *ZK001* were involved in 11 subgroups of MF, 19 subgroups of BP, and 14 subgroups of CC (Figure S4). Significant GO enrichment was employed to analyse the DAPs with a corrected FDR P-value less than 0.01, and a ratio FC of more than 1.5. Based on GO annotations and enrichments, the DAPs of Group 1 were enriched in molecular function terms for lipid binding (100%) (Figure 4A), as well as biological process terms for lipid transport (14.06%), lipid localization (14.06%), macromolecule localization (20.31%), organic substance transport (20.31%), single-organism transport (15.63%) and single-organism localization (15.63%) (Figure 4B). GO classification of Group 2 revealed that the DAPs were enriched in the biological process, cellular component and molecular function (Figure 4C). No protein was enriched in Group 3 or Group 4. The DAPs of Groups 5 to 10 were also classified into biological process (Figure S5A), cellular component (Figure S5B) and molecular function (Figure S5C). DAPs involved in carbohydrate metabolism and transport, calcium ion binding and protein transport, fatty acid biosynthesis and signal transduction-related proteins were further used in cluster analyses.

Accumulation patterns of DAPs and verification of DAPs interest

Based on the above analyses, 11 genes which corresponded to DAPs of interest were chosen for qRT-PCR analyses using gene-specific primers (Table S5) to explore the expression profile at the transcription level.

The morphology of lodicules showed significant differences between YM18 and *ZK001* (Figure 1). qRT-PCR was carried out using the RNA of YM18 and *ZK001* lodicules to study the transcript profiles of the above genes corresponding to the selected DAPs (Figure 5). The results of qRT-PCR indicated that the expression level of The gene of *A0A1D6CCI3* (bidirectional sugar transporter SWEET) was expressed in the lodicules at WAS and GAS of both YM18 and *ZK001*, while almost no expression at YAS and AS (Figure 3, Table S7); (Figure 5A). Additionally, the expression trend of this gene revealed down-regulation from WAS to GAS and YAS, and then up-regulation to the initial expression level during AS in *ZK001* (Figure 5A). Furthermore, the expression trend in YM18 showed a certain similarity to that in *ZK001* (Figure 5A). The expression level of the gene *A0A1D5WGA3* was extremely down-regulated from WAS to GAS in YM18 and *ZK001*, respectively (Figure 5B). Though the relative expression level in *ZK001* was higher than

that in YM18, there were almost no significant differences between YM18 and *ZK001* in GAS, YAS or AS (Figure 5B). Compared with the relative expression levels of the gene encoding A0A1D5RR02 in YM18, the gene in *ZK001* was down-regulated during WAS and GAS, respectively (Figure 5C). There was no significant difference during YAS or AS (Figure 5C). Additionally, compared with YM18, P93594-encoding mRNA was all up-regulated in the lodicules of *ZK001* (Figure 5D). Interestingly, the mRNA level of W5B5R3 in *ZK001* indicated up-regulation compared with YM18 at YAS and AS, respectively, while there was no significant difference during WAS or GAS (Figure 5E). The mRNA levels of A0A1D5SYC3 and A0A1D5VEI9 showed almost no significant difference between YM18 and *ZK001* at the four flower development stages, except that of A0A1D5SYC3 (Figure 5F) and A0A1D5VEI9 (Figure 5G). The relative expression level for A0A1D5RVB4 was up-regulated in *ZK001* compared with that in YM18 at GAS, YAS and AS (Figure 5H). Comparing with YM18, the gene expression of A0A077S2F2 in *ZK001* was down-regulated during YAS (Figure 5I).

Calcium ion plays a key role in the development of plants. Therefore, the relative expression of the genes encoding A0A1D5TN57 and A0A1D5RRV7 was also evaluated to determine the profile during flower development. Compared with YM18, the relative gene expression levels of A0A1D5TN57 in *ZK001* were up-regulated during WAS, YAS and AS, respectively (Figure 5K), while those of A0A1D5RRV7 were up-regulated during WAS, GAS and AS (Figure 5J).

Discussion

Cleistogamy provides structural barriers for diseases of *Fusarium* head blight

From the physiological point of view, the flowering stage is regarded as the most susceptible period for primary infection of wheat spikes by FHB because of the opening of wheat florets and the extension of anthers (Pugh, Johann & Dickson, 1933; Schroeder & Christensen, 1963; Gilsinger et al., 2005; Schuster & Ellner, 2008). Barley is the plant that self-fertilizes with permanently closed flowers, but it is easy to be infected with *Fusarium* in chasmogamous barley varieties (Yoshida, Kawada & Tohnooka, 2005; Culley & Klooster, 2007). Table 1 shows that the diseased spikelet rate in 2014-2015 was more severe than that in 2013-2014 except in SM3, possibly because of the resistance gene *Fhb1* (Rawat et al., 2016). Compared with YM18, which is a wild type and chasmogamous cultivar, the diseased spikelet rate for *ZK001*, which is a mutant and cleistogamous cultivar, decreased by 38.22% and 50.00% in 2013-2014 and 2014-2015, respectively (Table 1). This indicates that although the diseased spikelet rate is greatly influenced by environmental factors, cleistogamous cultivars that flower partially or completely may have a lower risk of FHB infection than chasmogamous cultivars (Kubo et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2013). Therefore, we further verified the hypothesis that cleistogamous cultivars might have lower *Fusarium* susceptibility in wheat. From the practical point of view, as a new strategy for controlling FHB, it will be very meaningful to introduce the cleistogamous function into other varieties that are suitable for production and promotion but sensitive to FHB through hybridization.

Lodicules play an important role in glume opening/closing in wheat

The molecular mechanism for cleistogamy had been intensively studied in rice (Maeng et al., 2006; Yoshida et al., 2007; Ohmori et al., 2012; Ni et al., 2014; Lombardo et al., 2017) and barley

(Turuspekov et al., 2004; Hori et al., 2005; Nair et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2013, 2015; Zhang et al., 2016). However, the molecular mechanism for cleistogamy remains unclear beyond the knowledge that lodicule is a key factor in glume opening/closing in the monocotyledon. The abnormal lodicules may lack the ability to push the lemma and palea apart during the flowering stage in the cleistogamous mutant *ZK001* (Figure 1). This phenomenon is similar to that in barley (Nair et al., 2010).

Carbohydrates and calcium are the main factors regulating lodicule osmotic pressure

Sucrose is the primary form by which sugar is transported for photosynthetic carbon assimilation (Chen et al., 2012). The gene of *A0A1D6CCI3* was expressed in the lodicules of both YM18 and *ZK001* (Figure 5A, Table S8). This indicates that carbohydrates can be transferred to the lodicules of both YM18 and *ZK001* normally. Nevertheless, the starch and soluble sugar content in the lodicules of YM18 increased dramatically from GAS to YAS (Figure 2A-D, Table S6). Liu et al. (Liu et al., 2017) suggested that retarded lodicule expansion in ZS97A was caused by reduced water accumulation because of retarded accumulation of osmotic regulation substances. In contrast, the lower soluble sugar content in the lodicules of *ZK001* prevented the accumulation of water during YAS (Figure 2C and 2D, Table S6). The lodicule mass of YM18 was higher than that of *ZK001* because the starch and soluble sugar contents in the lodicules of *ZK001* decreased from GAS to YAS, leading to little water transfer to the lodicules. The lodicules of wheat swell extensively and subsequently contract after rapid autolysis of the tissues (Craig & O'Brien, 1975). Therefore, the starch and soluble sugar contents in the lodicule of YM18 were lower than those in *ZK001* at AS (Figure 2A-D, Table S6).

Cytosolic calcium is an important secondary messenger in plants and plays important roles in the response to both environmental and internal signals (Poovaiah & Reddy, 1993; Liao, Zheng & Guo, 2017). Plant annexins are calcium-dependent phospholipid binding proteins with many biological functions; for instance, they participate in calcium ion channel formation, membrane dynamics, plant growth and the stress response (Mortimer et al., 2008; Laohavisit & Davies, 2011). In this study, the gene relative expression levels of annexin (*A0A1D5RRV7*) and the calcium ion binding-related protein (*A0A1D5TN57*) in the lodicules of *ZK001* were up-regulated during WAS compared to those of YM18, respectively (Figure 5J and 5K). Therefore, we inferred that WAS was a critical period for the lodicules.

An overview of the pathways for proteome metabolic changes in lodicules

Many factors regulate the osmotic pressure of lodicules, such as soluble sugar (Zee & O'Brien, 1971; Wang, Gu & Gao, 1991; Yan et al., 2017), starch (Pissarek, 1971), calcium (Qin, Yang & Zhao, 2005; Chen et al., 2016) and potassium (Heslop-Harrison & Heslop-Harrison, 1996; Chen et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2017). In this paper, we propose an overview of the metabolic pathways involving the carbohydrates that regulate the osmotic pressure of the lodicules. Our results and previous studies provide an overview of the osmotic mechanisms. As shown in Figure 6, sucrose is transferred into the lodicules from the extra-cellular environment through a bidirectional sugar transporter, and is converted into d-fructose-6p by hexokinase after being broken down into d-fructose. d-fructose-6p converted to α -d-glucose-1p, which can be converted to d-glucose by β -

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glucosidase and synthesized amylose. The starch formed by amylose can be broken down into d-glucose under the action of β -amylase. UDP-glucose formed from amino sugar and nucleotide sugar can also be converted into d-glucose under the action of β -glucosidase. The accumulation of d-glucose leads to a change in osmotic pressure in the lodicules. Additionally, α -d-glucose-1p can enter the pentose phosphate pathway and the fatty acid biosynthesis pathway through the formation of α -d-glucose-6P and β -d-glucose-6P. Soluble sugar can also enter and exit cells through the bidirectional sugar transporter. Furthermore, annexin can trigger calcium ion influx, increasing the osmotic pressure. Once the osmotic pressure changes, water accumulates in / is excreted from the cells of the lodicules and induces the expansion / shrinkage of the lodicules.

Conclusions

The wheat mutant, *ZK001*, with the atrophied, thin and ineffective lodicules lost the ability to push the lemma and palea apart in the flower development process. Besides, compared with YM18, *ZK001* showed lower *Fusarium* infection because of the cleistogamous phenotype. Furthermore, we speculated that the thin lodicule of *ZK001* resulted from the lower soluble sugar, calcium ion and potassium ion contents in lodicule which were regulated by carbohydrate metabolic, protein transport, and calcium ion binding-related proteins. Though, little is known about the mechanism of cleistogamy in wheat, we propose an overview metabolic pathway about the carbohydrate which regulates the osmotic pressure of the lodicules. This study provides foundations for researchers to explore the mechanism of cleistogamy. Furthermore, it should be possible to generate a cleistogamous wheat via conventional crossing, which would improve the FHB resistance of wheat and control pollen-mediated gene flow of genetically modified wheat.

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e.g. α -D-glucose

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Why does Figure 2 B and D have different units? 10^{-3} mg/PL versus ug/PL ?

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