

Accounting for environmental variation in the free asparagine content of wheat grain

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Commentary

Accounting for environmental variation in the free asparagine content of wheat grain

Abstract

The free (soluble, non-protein) asparagine content of wheat grain can vary massively due to environmental factors and agronomic differences in how the crop is grown. This is concerning because free asparagine concentration is the key determinant of acrylamide formation in wheat-based food products, yet it is not clear how different environmental conditions and some agronomic practices impact grain asparagine content. A key aspect of keeping free asparagine levels low in wheat grain in the future lies in improving our understanding of the many environmental and crop management components that impact free asparagine accumulation during cultivation. We also consider the emerging technology of monitoring free asparagine accumulation through crop imaging.

Main text

The formation, via the Maillard reaction, of the probable human carcinogen acrylamide in certain cooked foods was first reported in 2002 (Tareke et al., 2002), and strategies to reduce the potential for its formation continue to be of importance (Peivasteh-Roudsari et al., 2023). As the key determinant of acrylamide levels in wheat-based food products, the free asparagine content of wheat grain has been the subject of much investigation. The evolving regulations concerning acrylamide levels in food, with the EU reportedly looking at imposing Maximum Levels, above which it would be illegal to sell a food product, possibly in 2023, mean that the free asparagine content of wheat grain will likely have even greater importance to the food industry in the years to come (European Commission, 2023). However, environmentally-induced variation in grain free asparagine content (represented in the variation due to trial year and site) remains mostly unaccounted for. Many possible causes for this environmental variation have been proposed, such as differences in weather, disease pressure, and soil type of the trial site. There will always be a risk of grain being produced with unexpectedly high concentrations of free asparagine while this variation remains poorly understood.

30 Figure 1 shows data from a number of field trials that measured free asparagine
31 concentrations in wheat grain. Sulphur deficiency has been shown to cause a massive increase
32 in free asparagine concentration in the grain (reviewed by Raffan and Halford, 2019). However,
33 there was no significant effect of sulphur deficiency on grain free asparagine content in a field
34 trial conducted in 2011–2012 at Woburn in the UK (shown in Figure 1 as 11/12 Woburn trial),
35 whereas a pronounced effect was observed at the same site in 2012–2013 (12/13 Woburn in
36 Figure 1), meaning that there was a significant year by treatment interaction ($p < 0.001$, F -test)
37 (Curtis et al., 2018). The reason for this was suggested to have been an effect of the weather,
38 the spring and summer of 2012 being unusually wet in the UK, but the authors conceded that
39 this explanation was entirely speculative. Morris et al. (2022) also did not observe any impact
40 of variable sulphur fertilisation on grain asparagine content in a series of trials across different
41 sites and years, although there were other differences between the trials. In this case, the lack
42 of a sulphur effect was attributed to the intrinsic sulphur sufficiency of the soil at the trial sites.
43 On the other hand, Wilson et al. (2020) observed extremely high concentrations of free
44 asparagine content in response to sulphur deficiency in trials undertaken in Kansas.

45 This influence of trial location and year has been quantified in some cases: Malunga et
46 al. (2021), for example, found that in their study of grain free asparagine content across two
47 trial sites, 80% of the observed variation in free asparagine was due to location. Xie et al. (2021)
48 similarly found that 44.3% of the observed variation in grain free asparagine content across
49 four different field trials was attributable to environmental effects (trial year and/or location).
50 The same study also noted that sulphur fertilisation did not have any impact at trial sites where
51 sulphur was already plentiful in the soil. It is notable from this comparison of trials that those
52 studies which show the greatest variability in free asparagine levels are those that test different
53 application rates of sulphur.

54 Many of the studies shown in Figure 1 detected significant effects of genotype within
55 their trials, often with significant $G \times E$ interactions (Curtis et al., 2016; Curtis et al., 2018;
56 Wilson et al., 2020; Oddy et al., 2022), emphasising the need to consider genotype alongside
57 environment and the interaction between the two. The importance of genotypic effects on free
58 asparagine was recently demonstrated through the trialling of wheat that had been edited to
59 have non-functional asparagine synthetase 2 genes (Raffan et al., 2023), which showed large
60 decreases relative to genotypes with functional alleles. The use of such gene-edited genotypes
61 is likely to increase in the future in the UK due to the recent passing of the UK Genetic
62 Technology act (UK Parliament, 2023).

63

64 **Fig. 1 here.**

65

66 These data make it clear that the development of low free asparagine varieties must be
67 accompanied by further research on the effects of the environment and crop management, and
68 the $G \times E$ interaction, or the $G \times E \times M$ interaction if environmental and management effects
69 are separated. This is made more important by the fact that environment/management factors
70 may have differential effects on different varieties, meaning that varietal rankings break down
71 under some conditions. This is true for both sulphur deficiency and disease control (Curtis et
72 al., 2016; 2018). We encourage wheat breeders to develop low asparagine wheat varieties, but
73 this will have to be accompanied by further research into the other causes of environmental
74 variation, involving field trials measuring all relevant factors that could impact grain free
75 asparagine content. This would require measurements of weather, disease pressure, soil
76 nutrients and fertiliser application over several sites and years. By breaking down the effects
77 of the environment into constituent parts, the amount of variation attributable to each
78 component could be measured. This could be done alongside glasshouse studies that introduced
79 individual, specific stressors to isolate and compare the effect each stressor had on grain free
80 asparagine content in a controlled environment. These experiments could be more easily
81 performed due to their smaller scale but, of course, conclusions drawn would have to be tested
82 in the field.

83 A more detailed understanding of the environmental factors that control grain free
84 asparagine content could enable food manufacturers to predict the grain free asparagine content
85 of their raw material, but it would take several years of trials for predictive models to be
86 developed. In the meantime, it may be possible to develop accessible imaging tools that could
87 predict grain free asparagine content from measurements of plants and seeds. We have used
88 multispectral measurements of plants in the field to predict the free asparagine content of grain,
89 with an accuracy of 71 %, whilst a combination of multispectral, fluorescence, and
90 morphological measurements of seeds could distinguish high and low free asparagine grain
91 with an even higher accuracy of 86 % (Oddy et al., 2023). However, a number of challenges
92 would need to be addressed if this approach were to become widely applicable. Firstly,
93 predictive models need to be built from many measurements of plants and seeds. By training
94 models on diverse datasets, predictions of free asparagine content would become accurate

95 across a range of different environments. This could be achieved by collecting imaging data
96 from a series of field trials in different locations and years, similar to those described above for
97 the study of environmental variation. Indeed, the simultaneous collection of imaging and
98 environmental variation data would greatly enhance our ability to predict grain free asparagine
99 content.

100 Of course, the ability to build such models relies on the assumption that stressors that
101 cause free asparagine to accumulate in the grain also leave a “signature” that can be detected
102 by imaging technology (an obvious example being the yellowing of the wheat canopy caused
103 by sulphur deficiency). Many stressors do cause such signatures (Lowe et al., 2017), but the
104 relationship between signatures of stress and grain free asparagine content requires further
105 research. The development of such models would have to assess the conditions under which
106 predictions were most accurate, and those in which the models would under- or over-estimate.

107 Another challenge facing the deployment of such a monitoring strategy is the
108 accessibility of imaging tools. Some labour-intensive forms of monitoring require the imaging
109 device to be held above the crop canopy to take a measurement. Similar multispectral
110 measurements can be taken with unmanned aerial vehicles (UAVs) (Feng et al., 2021), and this
111 would save time and labour. UAVs may not be accessible to every farmer, but this may be
112 something contract agronomists could help with. Alternatively, it may be possible to use
113 satellite data to estimate grain free asparagine content. The spatial resolution of satellite data
114 collection continues to improve (some satellites now have a resolution of 0.25 m²) and some
115 satellites are able to collect multispectral data (Li et al., 2021). Access to and interpretation of
116 these data would still require specialist knowledge (as with other monitoring methods), but the
117 use of satellite data may require less input from the farmer in terms of time, labour, and money.

118 In conclusion, as regulations concerning the levels of acrylamide in food continue to
119 tighten, the need to understand why free asparagine accumulates in wheat grain will only
120 become more important. Further developing our ability to predict free asparagine content from
121 environmental variables and crop monitoring technology will enable the targeting of measures
122 to control free asparagine accumulation during cultivation and the proactive identification of
123 grain with high acrylamide-forming potential before it enters the food chain. It will also ensure
124 that maximum benefit is derived from low asparagine varieties as they become available.

125

126 **References**

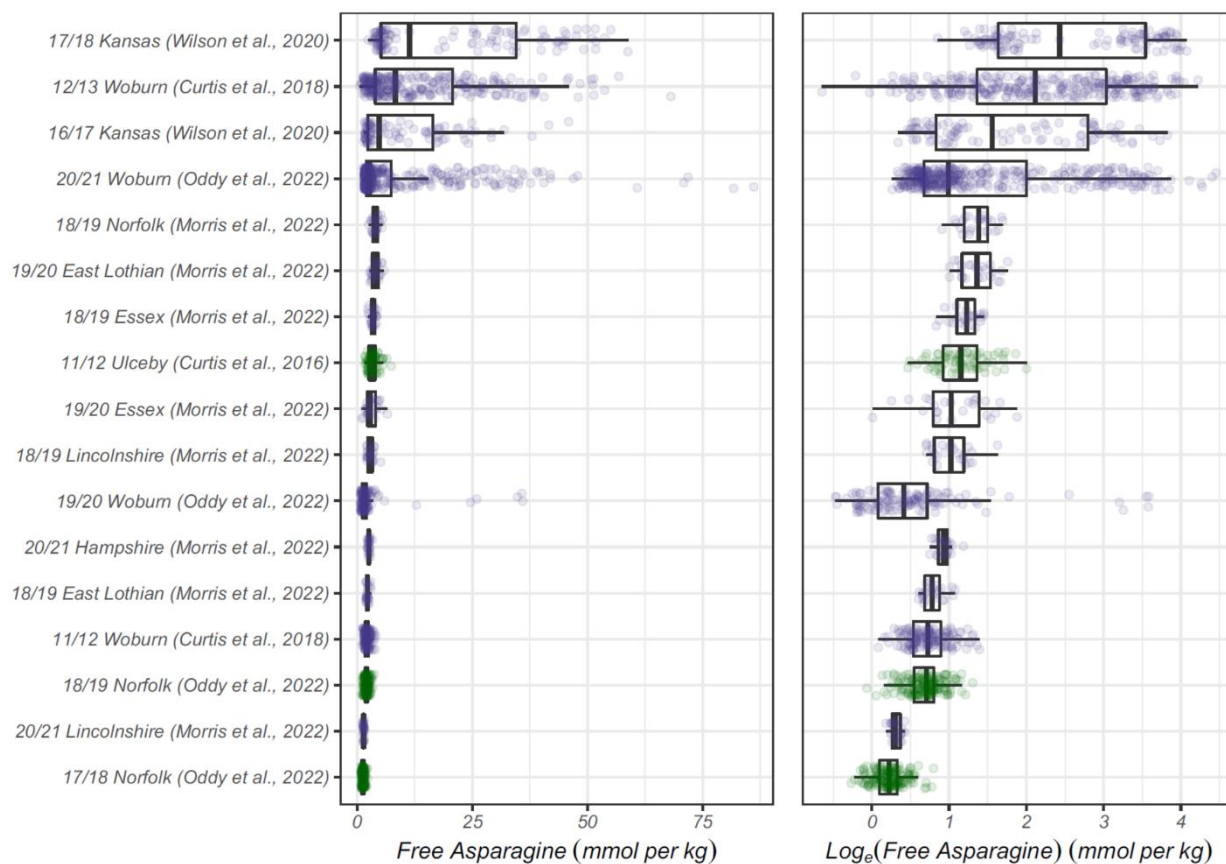
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178

FIGURE

179



180 **Figure 1.** Free asparagine concentrations in wheat grain from 18 different field trials on raw
 181 scale (left panel) and \log_e transformed (right panel). Trials testing different levels of sulphur
 182 are shown in purple and those with consistent levels of fertiliser are shown in green. The trial
 183 undertaken by Curtis et al. (2016) contained plots that were either treated or untreated with
 184 fungicides. Boxes show the interquartile range and median values, with the whiskers showing
 185 the largest or smallest value within 1.5 times below or above the 25th or 75th percentile,
 186 respectively.

187