

1 Towards rational control of seed oil composition: dissecting cellular organization and flux control of lipid  
2 metabolism

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15 Running title: Towards rational control of seed oil composition

16 **Advances Box**

- 17 • The network of possible pathways to produce seed oils continues to grow with the identification  
18 of triacylglycerol remodeling in *Physaria fenderi*
- 19 • Seed oil fatty acid composition is highly influenced by diacylglycerol acyltransferase selectivity for  
20 acyl-CoA and diacylglycerol molecular species, and the availability of *sn*-1,2 or *sn*-2,3 enantiomers  
21 of diacylglycerol
- 22 • Lipid metabolism may be organized into different metabolons within the endoplasmic reticulum  
23 that separate membrane lipid and oil biosynthesis, and control oil production from different pools  
24 of diacylglycerol

25

26 **Abstract:**

27 Plant lipids represent a fascinating field of scientific study, in part due to a stark dichotomy in the limited  
28 fatty acid (FA) composition of cellular membrane lipids versus the huge diversity of FAs that can  
29 accumulate in triacylglycerols (TAGs), the main component of seed storage oils. With few exceptions, the  
30 strict chemical, structural, and biophysical roles imposed on membrane lipids since the dawn of life has  
31 constrained their FA composition to predominantly lengths of 16-18 carbons and containing 0-3  
32 methylene-interrupted carbon-carbon double bonds in *cis*-configuration. However, over 450 “unusual” FA  
33 structures can be found in seed oils of different plants (Ohlrogge et al., 2018), and we are just beginning  
34 to understand the metabolic mechanisms required to produce and maintain this dichotomy. Here we  
35 review the current state of plant lipid research, specifically addressing the knowledge gaps in membrane

36 and storage lipid synthesis from three angles: pathway fluxes including newly discovered TAG remodeling,  
37 key acyltransferase substrate selectivities, and the possible roles of “metabolons”.

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40 For many plants, including a large majority of oilseed crops, the storage triacylglycerol (TAG) fatty acid (FA)  
41 composition mirrors that of membrane lipids containing common FAs (Fig. 1 A-D). In most of these oils,  
42 each specific FA constitutes no more than ~30-35% of the total. Most well-known seed oils, such as corn,  
43 soybean, peanut, and canola, fall into this category, and provide a major proportion of global human and  
44 animal caloric intake. Decades of biochemical and genetic studies indicate that the assembly of different  
45 plant oils occurs through multiple different metabolic pathways and enzyme classes that can overlap with  
46 essential membrane lipid synthesis (Ohlrogge and Browse, 1995; Gunstone et al., 2007; Bates and Browse,  
47 2012; Bates et al., 2013; Li-Beisson et al., 2013; Napier et al., 2014; Chen et al., 2015; Lee et al., 2015;  
48 Bates, 2016; Zhu et al., 2016; Aznar-Moreno and Durrett, 2017; Bates, 2022; Busta et al., 2022). However,  
49 many of the ‘cartographic’ details of the metabolic network structure and nuances of pathway regulation  
50 necessary to produce specific molecular species of both membrane and storage lipids remain to be  
51 determined.

52 This foundational knowledge void is amplified even further when considering the second category of plant  
53 oils, that contain ‘unusual FAs’ (Fig. 1 E-F) (Ohlrogge et al., 2018). Some of these are ‘industrial oils’ and  
54 serve as lucrative feedstocks for production of biofuels and dozens of other chemical compounds such as  
55 foams, plastics, adhesives, nylons, and coatings (Gunstone et al., 2007; Carlsson et al., 2011; Chen, 2017).  
56 This bifurcation primarily derives from fundamental differences in seed oil FA composition. While  
57 membrane lipid FA composition in these species is typically very similar to that of all plants, oils with high  
58 chemical utility typically contain common FAs and one or more unusual FAs (Ohlrogge et al., 2018). These  
59 include acyl groups with novel chain lengths and desaturation states, ranging in length from ~C8-C24 and  
60 including methylene-interrupted and conjugated arrangements of zero to six C-C cis- and trans-double  
61 bonds, and C-C triple bonds. This diversity is also apparent in the array of characterized side-chain  
62 functionalities including hydroxy, epoxy, furan, and carbocyclic groups. And unlike the relatively balanced  
63 FA composition found in common oilseeds, some unusual FAs (such as ricinoleic acid in castor bean and  
64  $\alpha$ -eleostearic acid in tung tree, Fig. 1F, I) can constitute up to ~70-90% of TAG FA.

65 A thorough catalog of known or suspected enzyme activities that contribute to the various branches of  
66 plant lipid metabolism has been previously described and encompasses hundreds of genes (Li-Beisson et  
67 al., 2013; McGlew et al., 2015). However, putting this suite of gene products into a coherent biochemical  
68 context that explains the enzymology and subcellular compartmentalization of common and unusual FA  
69 biosynthesis and their utilization in both membrane and storage lipid production remains a challenging  
70 goal.

71 Here we review the current state of plant lipid research, specifically addressing the knowledge gaps in  
72 membrane and storage lipid synthesis from three angles: pathway fluxes including newly discovered TAG  
73 remodeling, key acyltransferase substrate selectivities, and the possible roles of “metabolons”.

74 **Ever-expanding “pathways” of triacylglycerol synthesis**

75 A metabolic pathway may be thought of as a series of consecutive enzymatic reactions that lead to the  
76 synthesis or degradation of a particular metabolite. However, within lipid metabolism *de novo* FA  
77 synthesis, FA elongation to  $\geq 20$  carbons, FA desaturation, or other modifications (e.g. hydroxylation,  
78 epoxidation, etc.) all occur within different substrate pools, and in different cellular locations, with multiple  
79 different possible pathways of acyl flux to assemble a given lipid class thus representing a network of  
80 possible pathways (Fig. 2). Additionally, the acyltransferases and lipases involved in lipid assembly and  
81 turnover can have selectivity for different molecular species of the substrate lipid class. Therefore, the FA  
82 composition of seed oils is dependent on both the capacity to produce different FAs, and the path of  
83 substrate flux through the lipid metabolic network for different FA modification and lipid assembly  
84 reactions.

#### 85 **Production of FA substrates for TAG biosynthesis**

86 *De novo* FA synthesis (FAS) in the plastid builds FAs on acyl carrier proteins (ACP) up to 18 carbons.  
87 Desaturation of 18:0-ACP produces oleic acid (18:1), the major product of FAS in most plant tissues (Li-  
88 Beisson et al., 2013; Bates, 2022) (Fig. 2). In some plant seeds (e.g. coconut, California bay, *Cuphea* spp.)  
89 (Ohlrogge et al., 2018), *de novo* FAS also produces significant amounts of saturated FAs less than 16  
90 carbons that accumulate exclusively in TAG. Acyl-ACP thioesterases (FAT) hydrolyze FAs from ACP (Kalinger  
91 and Rowland, 2023), thus determining the FA length and initiating free FA export from the plastid (Koo et  
92 al., 2004; Li et al., 2015; Tian et al., 2019). Exported free FAs are activated to acyl-CoA by long chain acyl-  
93 CoA synthetase (LACS9) on the outer chloroplast envelope (Schnurr et al., 2002). Acyl-CoA may be further  
94 elongated to  $\geq 20$  carbons through the endoplasmic reticulum (ER)-localized FA elongation complex  
95 (Haslam and Kunst, 2013), or the FAs may be further desaturated within the membrane lipid pool. The ER  
96 localized Fatty Acid Desaturases (FAD) FAD2 and FAD3 primarily act on phosphatidylcholine (PC) to  
97 desaturate 18:1 to linoleic acid (18:2) and linolenic acid (18:3), respectively (Fig. 1). Membrane lipid-based  
98 FA desaturation also occurs on galactolipids in the plastid by FAD6/7/8 (Shanklin et al., 2009; Li-Beisson et  
99 al., 2013). While ER localized production of polyunsaturated FAs (PUFA) on PC is the major source for ER  
100 TAG biosynthesis, PUFAs released from galactolipids can be incorporated into TAG under some  
101 circumstances such as abiotic stress or metabolic adaptations to mutations (Neumann et al.; Moellering  
102 et al., 2010; Aulakh and Durrett, 2019; Bhattacharya, 2022). In some species, PC is also the substrate for  
103 other FA modifications by FAD2 enzyme variants (Shanklin et al., 2009) that produce a diverse range of  
104 structures, including but not limited to hydroxyl, epoxy, or cyclopropyl functional groups, or uncommon  
105 double bond locations in seed oil FAs (Ohlrogge et al., 2018) (Fig. 1).

#### 106 **Acyl editing to generate diverse acyl substrate pools for TAG biosynthesis**

107 Acyl editing is a cycle of PC de-acylation and lyso-PC re-acylation that exchanges FAs between PC and the  
108 acyl-CoA pool (Fig. 2). *In vivo* isotopic tracing of lipid metabolism indicated that 18:1 exported from the  
109 plastid is incorporated into glycerolipids predominantly through *sn*-2 PC acyl editing in leaf and seed  
110 tissues in species such as *Arabidopsis thaliana*, *Brassica napus*, *Camelina sativa*, *Glycine max*, *Nicotiana*  
111 *tabacum*, *Physaria fendleri*, and *Pisum sativum* (Williams et al., 2000; Bates et al., 2007; Bates et al., 2009;  
112 Bates et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2012; Yang et al., 2017; Karki et al., 2019; Zhou et al., 2020; Bhandari and  
113 Bates, 2021). PC de-acylation may proceed by either phospholipase A<sub>2</sub> (PLA<sub>2</sub>, as in the Lands cycle (Lands,  
114 1965)) or the reverse action of acyl-CoA:lysophosphatidylcholine acyltransferase (LPCAT). Free FAs  
115 produced by Lands Cycle PLA<sub>2</sub> activity are activated to acyl-CoA for further use likely by ER localized LACS  
116 (Shockey and Browse, 2011). The lyso-PC re-acylation proceeds through the LPCAT forward reaction. Plant

117 LPCATs can have different acyl specificities in their forward and reverse reactions (Lager et al., 2013; Pan  
118 et al., 2015; Jasieniecka-Gazarkiewicz et al., 2016), when combined with acyl modification on PC, leads to  
119 diverse acyl-CoA and PC molecular species pools. The *Arabidopsis lpcat1/lpcat2* mutant shifts the flux of  
120 nascent FA to *de novo* glycerolipid synthesis rather than acyl editing (Stahl et al., 2008; Bates et al., 2012; Wang  
121 et al., 2012; Karki et al., 2019) and reduces accumulation of PUFAs in TAG (Bates et al., 2012; Wang  
122 et al., 2012), demonstrating the important contribution of acyl editing to the final TAG FA composition.  
123 Interestingly, both lipid composition analysis and isotopic tracing in the *lpcat1/lpcat2* mutant background  
124 suggested some acyl flux through PC for transfer of PUFAs to other lipids still occurs (Bates et al., 2012;  
125 Wang et al., 2012; Karki et al., 2019), possibly through *de novo* PC synthesis and various PC  
126 turnover/exchange mechanisms including phosphatidylcholine:diacylglycerol cholinephosphotransferase  
127 (PDCT) or phospholipase D (Lee et al., 2011; Bates et al., 2012; Yang et al., 2017). An alternative non-  
128 LPCAT based acyl editing mechanism may also contribute to acyl flux through PC in the *lpcat1/lpcat2*  
129 mutant. Lyso-PC produced by PLA<sub>2</sub> action may be converted back to PC by a lysoph-PC:lysoph-PC transacylase  
130 (LPCT) which co-produces glycerophosphocholine. Glycerophosphocholine acyltransferase (GPCAT) can  
131 regenerate lyso-PC to maintain the LPCT reaction (Lager et al., 2015). As of yet, the molecular identity of  
132 only the GPCAT, but not LPCT, has been identified (Gläb et al., 2016). Still unknown is the relative  
133 contribution of forward/reverse LPCAT, PLA<sub>2</sub>, LPCT, and GPCAT activities to overall acyl flux through PC and  
134 their contribution to seed TAG FA composition in wild-type and engineered plants that accumulate novel  
135 FA compositions (Bates, 2016; Correa et al., 2020).

### 136 **Production of *de novo* sn-1,2-diacylglycerol for TAG biosynthesis**

137 Two major pathways have been identified that produce the *sn*-1,2-diacylglycerol (*sn*-1,2-DAG) substrate  
138 for TAG biosynthesis. First, *de novo* glycerolipid assembly (also known as the Kennedy pathway (Weiss et  
139 al., 1960)) involves the consecutive reactions of acyl-CoA dependent glycerol-3-phosphate acyltransferase  
140 (GPAT) and lysophosphatidic acid acyltransferase (LPAT) to produce lysophosphatidic acid (LPA, 1-acyl-  
141 glycerol 3-phosphate) and phosphatidic acid (PA, 1,2-diacyl-sn-glycerol-3-phosphate), respectively.  
142 Subsequent PA dephosphorylation by PA phosphatase/hydrolase produces *de novo* *sn*-1,2-DAG (Fig. 2,  
143 DAG(1)). Thus, GPAT and LPAT acyl selectivities control *de novo* DAG composition. In *Arabidopsis* there are  
144 10 GPATs (Yang et al., 2012), but only GPAT9 has a confirmed role in ER-localized membrane lipid and TAG  
145 production (Shockey et al., 2016; Singer et al., 2016). Similarly, there are five LPATs in *Arabidopsis*. LPAT2  
146 is the major isoform involved in ER TAG and membrane lipid production in most plants studied to date  
147 (Kim et al., 2005; Maisonneuve et al., 2010; Barroga and Nakamura, 2022), but *RcLPAT3B* and *BnLPAT5*  
148 may also contribute to seed TAG accumulation in *Ricinus communis* and *B. napus*, respectively (Kim et al.,  
149 2020; Zhang et al., 2022).

150 In general, LPATs have more rigid acyl selectivities than GPATs, which contributes to the strict limitation of  
151 saturated FAs at the *sn*-2 position of ER membrane lipids and TAG from most species (Ohlrogge and  
152 Browse, 1995; Brown et al., 2002). Both *in vitro* and *in vivo* analyses have shown that some GPAT and LPAT  
153 enzymes can have enhanced selectivity for unusual FAs specific to that species, leading to production of  
154 TAG with diverse and/or unusual FA compositions. For example, the GPAT and LPAT activities from *R.*  
155 *communis* or *Cuphea lanceolata* seed tissue possess selectivity for ricinoleoyl- or decanoyl-CoAs,  
156 respectively (Bafor et al., 1990; Bafor et al., 1991). Likewise, co-expression of the *R. communis*, *Cuphea*  
157 *viscosissima*, or *Vernicia fordii* GPAT and/or LPAT with the respective FA hydroxylase, thioesterase, or  
158 desaturase that produces the species-specific unusual FAs led to enhanced accumulation of ricinoleate,  
159 decanoate, or  $\alpha$ -eleostearate, respectively, (Fig. 1 E, F, I) in TAG of transgenic plants (Kim et al., 2015; Lunn

160 et al., 2019; Shockey et al., 2019). These results indicate that GPAT/LPAT acyl selectivity can co-evolve with  
161 unusual FA biosynthesis to produce TAG molecular species enriched in unusual FAs. However, GPAT acyl  
162 selectivity does not always coincide with TAG *sn*-1 FA composition. For example, *Crambe abyssinica*  
163 accumulates TAG with ~60% erucic acid (22:1, Fig. 1K) which is localized to the *sn*-1 and *sn*-3 positions.  
164 However, GPAT assays with developing seed extracts indicated 22:1-CoA was only about 3% as effective as  
165 18:1-CoA (Guan et al., 2014), making it unclear how the *sn*-1 position of *C. abyssinica* TAG is composed  
166 almost entirely of 22:1. Multiple possibilities may account for the apparent discrepancy between GPAT  
167 selectivity and TAG composition. First, the molecular species specificity of LPAT and/or DGAT may be high  
168 enough for 22:1-containing substrates to specifically produce these TAG molecular species from diverse  
169 LPA and DAG substrate pools, respectively. Alternatively, TAG remodeling may change the *sn*-1 FA  
170 composition after initial TAG biosynthesis (discussed more below) (Bhandari and Bates, 2021; Parchuri et  
171 al., 2024). Thus, *de novo* DAG and subsequent TAG biosynthesis with molecular species selective acyl  
172 transferases can produce unique TAG composition. Examples of species where biochemical evidence  
173 suggests TAG synthesis from *de novo* DAG(1) (Fig. 2) is the major pathway for TAG accumulation include *R.*  
174 *communis*, *Cuphea lanceolata*, *Persea americana*, *Coriandrum sativum*, and *Theobroma cacao* (Griffiths et  
175 al., 1988; Bafor et al., 1990; Bafor et al., 1991; Griffiths and Harwood, 1991; Cahoon and Ohlrogge, 1994).

#### 176 **Production of PC-derived *sn*-1,2-diacylglycerol for TAG biosynthesis**

177 In many different oilseed species including *Arabidopsis*, *B. napus*, *C. sativa*, *Carthamus tinctorius*, *Linum*  
178 *usitatissimum*, *G. max*, and *P. fendleri* *in vivo* isotopic tracing has indicated that DAG derived from PC (Fig.  
179 2, DAG(2)), rather than *de novo* DAG, can contribute to or be the predominant source of *sn*-1,2-DAG  
180 utilized for TAG biosynthesis (Slack et al., 1978; Griffiths et al., 1988; Bates et al., 2009; Bates and Browse,  
181 2011; Guan et al., 2014; Yang et al., 2017; Bhandari and Bates, 2021; Pollard and Shachar-Hill, 2022).  
182 Because PC is the site for acyl editing and FA modification, the molecular species of PC-derived DAG(2) can  
183 be distinct from *de novo* DAG(1). There are multiple mechanisms to produce PC-derived DAG(2) including  
184 PC synthesis from *de novo* DAG(1) and CDP-choline via cholinephosphotransferase (CPT; also known as  
185 aminoalcoholphosphotransferase, AAPT) and subsequent PC turnover by the reverse action of CPT,  
186 phospholipase C (PLC) hydrolysis, or phospholipase D (PLD) hydrolysis and subsequent dephosphorylation  
187 by PA phosphatase (Bates, 2016; Ali et al., 2022; Bates, 2022). Gene knockdown, knockout, and  
188 overexpression studies support the roles for nonspecific phospholipase C 6 (AtNPC6), AtPLD $\zeta$ , and GmPLD $\alpha$   
189 in PC-derived DAG production in *Arabidopsis* and *G. max*, respectively (Lee et al., 2011; Yang et al., 2017;  
190 Cai et al., 2020). The changes in TAG amounts and/or FA composition (or measured lipid flux) for each was  
191 consistent with at least a partial role in PC-derived DAG production, however it is unclear if these PC  
192 turnover enzymes are selective for specific PC molecular species that ultimately affect the TAG FA  
193 composition.

194 A major alternative to *de novo* PC synthesis and turnover is phosphocholine exchange between PC and  
195 DAG producing new molecules of DAG and PC, a reaction catalyzed by phosphatidylcholine:diacylglycerol  
196 cholinephosphotransferase (PDCT) (Lu et al., 2009). PDCT activity can incorporate DAG into PC for further  
197 acyl modification (e.g. desaturation), and concomitant conversion of modified PC molecular species back  
198 into DAG for TAG biosynthesis. Reduced PUFA content of the *Arabidopsis*, *B. napus*, *G. max*, and *Thlaspi*  
199 *arvense* PDCT mutants is consistent with this role (Lu et al., 2009; Bai et al., 2020; Jarvis et al., 2021; Li et  
200 al., 2023). Additionally, *in vitro* assays of *C. sativa* PDCT demonstrated strong activity with DAG and PC  
201 substrates containing 18:1, 18:2, 18:3, or 22:1 FAs indicating a possible role of equilibrating molecular  
202 species of DAG and PC (Demski et al., 2021). However, PDCT can also be highly selective for or against

203 unusual FA-containing DAG molecular species. *R. communis* predominantly accumulates TAG containing  
204 three ricinoleates; *in vitro* assays indicated *RcPDCT* was selective for DAG containing one ricinoleate and  
205 against DAG containing two ricinoleates. However, PDCT from *C. sativa* (that does not naturally produce  
206 ricinoleic acid) would not use DAG containing ricinoleate (Lager et al., 2020; Demski et al., 2022). This  
207 result is similar to *in vivo* isotopic tracing of transgenic ricinoleate producing Arabidopsis, where the flux  
208 of ricinoleate-containing DAG into PC was inhibited (Bates and Browse, 2011), which in turn limited  
209 ricinoleate-containing *de novo* DAG flux into PC then TAG. However, *RcPDCT* expression in the same  
210 transgenic Arabidopsis background enhanced the accumulation of ricinoleate in TAG (Hu et al., 2012), and  
211 similar overexpression studies with *PDCT* genes from various plants have correlated PDCT activity with  
212 enrichment of PC modified FAs in TAG (Wickramarathna et al., 2015; Yu et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2021).  
213 Thus, the PDCT DAG molecular species selectivity can influence multiple outcomes, including limiting the  
214 flux of some molecular species into PC or enhancing the flux of select DAG molecular species into PC. Both  
215 actions would enrich the DAG pool in certain DAG molecular species for TAG biosynthesis. Once in PC, the  
216 FAs can either be further modified, shuttled into the acyl-CoA pool through acyl editing, or directly utilized  
217 for TAG biosynthesis by phospholipid:diacylglycerol acyltransferase (PDAT). Collectively, these findings  
218 suggest that PDCT primarily serves to edit the DAG molecular species pool utilized for TAG biosynthesis.

## 219 **Diverse molecular species produced by TAG biosynthetic enzymes**

220 The final step to synthesize TAG from DAG is catalyzed by an acyl-CoA:diacylglycerol acyltransferase  
221 (DGAT), or by direct FA transfer from PC by PDAT. Plant DGATs and PDATs have been extensively studied  
222 and recently expertly reviewed in detail (Xu et al., 2018; Chen et al., 2022; Sah et al., 2024). Here we focus  
223 on the key aspects pertaining to their control of TAG molecular species compositions. Plants contain three  
224 unrelated DGAT enzymes. In many cases, the ER-localized DGAT1 and/or DGAT2 are the major seed oil  
225 producing acyltransferases, and the acyl-CoA selectivity of the dominant DGATs typically is consistent with  
226 the FA composition of the seed oil, as demonstrated by either *in vitro* assays or transgenic expression  
227 experiments (Xu et al., 2018; Correa et al., 2020; Chen et al., 2022). However, even within a species,  
228 different isoforms of DGAT1 and/or DGAT2 can have different acyl-CoA selectivities (Demski et al., 2019;  
229 Chen et al., 2022; Parchuri et al., 2024). The role of the soluble DGAT3 in lipid metabolism is less clear. The  
230 relatively scant experimental evidence suggests localization to the chloroplast (Aymé et al., 2018; Carro et  
231 al., 2022) and a role in lipid homeostasis in Arabidopsis vegetative tissues (Hernández et al., 2012), but  
232 results suggest a contribution of DGAT3 to *C. sativa* seed oil accumulation (Lee et al., 2022). DGAT1 and  
233 DGAT2 typically have distinct expression patterns, do not interact or co-localize in the ER, and can utilize  
234 metabolically distinct pools of DAG (Fig. 2 DAG(1-4)) (Shockley et al., 2006; Bourgis et al., 2011; Troncoso-  
235 Ponce et al., 2011; Horn et al., 2016; Regmi et al., 2020). Recently, assays of DGAT1 and DGAT2 from *C.*  
236 *sativa*, *Crambe hispanica*, and *P. fendleri* indicate that DGAT1 and DGAT2 can have very distinct and  
237 complementary DAG molecular species selectivities which contribute to the final oil composition (Jeppson  
238 et al., 2019; Lager et al., 2020; Parchuri et al., 2024). Figure 2 indicates where evidence suggests species-  
239 specific utilization of select DAG pools by DGAT1 or DGAT2 including: the use of *de novo* DAG(1) by  
240 *RcDGAT2* in *R. communis* endosperm (Bafor et al., 1991; Burgal et al., 2008; Troncoso-Ponce et al., 2011);  
241 the use of PC-derived DAG(2) by AtDGAT1 or PfeDGAT1 (Regmi et al., 2020; Parchuri et al., 2024); or the  
242 use of *sn*-2,3-DAG(4) produced through TAG remodeling by PfeDGAT2 (Parchuri et al., 2024). Interestingly,  
243 when expressed transgenically, the DGAT may not utilize the same DAG pool that is exploited in the host  
244 species. For example, *RcDGAT2* expressed in the Arabidopsis *dgat1-1* mutant did not utilize *de novo* DAG(1)  
245 or the initially produced PC-derived DAG(2), but utilized a more slowly turned over PC-derived DAG(3) pool

246 that was also utilized by AtPDAT1 (Regmi et al., 2020). Therefore, the control of DAG pool utilization may  
247 not reside with the DGAT itself, but how that specific DGAT incorporates into the host plant lipid metabolic  
248 network.

249 In addition to DGATs, PDATs also contribute to seed oil accumulation and FA composition. *Arabidopsis*  
250 contains two *PDAT* genes (Dahlqvist et al., 2000; Stahl et al., 2004). Many plants contain one or more  
251 homeologs of *AtPDAT1* and/or *AtPDAT2*, and some plants have additional *PDAT* isoforms (Sah et al., 2024).  
252 *In vitro*, PDATs can utilize both PC and phosphatidylethanolamine (PE) as an acyl donor, but *in vivo* results  
253 indicate that PDATs predominantly enhance the transfer of PC-modified FAs from *sn*-2 PC to TAG. The lyso-  
254 PC coproduct is converted back to PC by LPCAT, thus acyl editing and PDAT can work together to channel  
255 18:1 into PC for desaturation (or other modification) and subsequent transfer into TAG. Various TAG FA  
256 composition engineering studies support this role for PDAT1 (van Erp et al., 2011; Xu et al., 2012; Pan et  
257 al., 2013; Marmon et al., 2017; Lunn et al., 2020; Park and Kim, 2024). PDAT1s can also have high selectivity  
258 for the acyl donor and DAG molecular species (Lager et al., 2020) ultimately affecting the TAG acyl  
259 composition.

260 In plants, PDAT1 appears to be secondary to DGAT1 or DGAT2 for seed oil synthesis. The *Arabidopsis pdat1*  
261 mutant has no seed oil phenotype, however AtPDAT1 enzymatic activity provides ~80% of wild-type TAG  
262 biosynthetic capacity in the *dgat1-1* mutant background (Zhang et al., 2009). Interestingly, *in vivo* flux  
263 analysis in *dgat1-1* mutant demonstrated AtPDAT1 utilizes a metabolically distinct pool of PC-derived DAG  
264 (Fig. 2, DAG(3)) from that of AtDGAT1 (Regmi et al., 2020), indicating AtPDAT1 does not just replace  
265 AtDGAT1 in TAG biosynthesis. Instead lipid metabolism adapts to the loss of AtDGAT1 to utilize AtPDAT1,  
266 including altered acyl flux through chloroplast lipids (Aulakh and Durrett, 2019). Additionally, in *C. sativa*  
267 mRNA knockdowns or gene mutations of *PDAT1* altered the oil content, although to a lesser extent than  
268 the corresponding *DGAT1* mRNA knockdowns or mutants, which also suggests PDAT1 as accessory to  
269 DGATs for seed oil biosynthesis (Aznar-Moreno and Durrett, 2017; Marmon et al., 2017). Genome-wide  
270 analysis of the *PDAT* family in four *Gossypium* species indicated none of the *PDAT* genes correlated with  
271 quantitative trait loci for oil content, despite expression in developing seeds, further suggesting a  
272 secondary role to DGATs for oil quantity and composition (Zang et al., 2019). The endogenous role of *PDAT2*  
273 has been less studied, and *AtPDAT2* cannot complement for the loss of *AtDGAT1* and *AtPDAT1* in  
274 *Arabidopsis* (Zhang et al., 2009). However, overexpression of various plant *PDAT2*s in yeast or plant tissue  
275 can increase TAG production and alter the FA content, indicating they are functional TAG synthesizing  
276 enzymes (Pan et al., 2013; Yuan et al., 2017; Parchuri et al., 2022). PDATs have also been highly associated  
277 with changes in membrane and TAG content during plant stresses in various tissues (Sah et al., 2024;  
278 Shomo et al., 2024). Considering that PDAT activity directly connects the PC and TAG pools it is tempting  
279 to speculate that the role of PDATs during seed oil filling may be related to membrane editing during high  
280 rates of FA synthesis and FA modification. The contribution to TAG biosynthesis may be a byproduct of  
281 maintaining membrane lipid homeostasis, especially when unusual FAs may disrupt the membrane  
282 structure/function. A major unknown in most plant seeds is the relative contribution of DGAT1, DGAT2,  
283 DGAT3, PDAT1, or PDAT2 to the final oil amount and molecular species composition.

284 **Initial TAG biosynthesis is not a metabolic end point in seed oil accumulation**

285 Seed oil is predominantly a storage product until germination where it is broken down to provide carbon  
286 and energy for seedling establishment. During seed maturation in many species ~10% of TAG is broken  
287 down due to expression of the SDP1 TAG lipase in preparation for germination (Eastmond, 2006; Kelly et

288 al., 2013; Kim et al., 2014; Kanai et al., 2019; Azeez et al., 2022; Aznar-Moreno et al., 2022). Yet, during the  
289 oil accumulation phase of seed development TAG production has been historically considered a metabolic  
290 end point. However, recently the remodeling of TAG molecular species was discovered through *in vivo*  
291 metabolic tracing of *P. fendleri* developing seeds (Bhandari and Bates, 2021). TAG remodeling is defined as  
292 a cycle of partial TAG degradation (through lipase removal of the *sn*-1 or *sn*-3 FA producing *sn*-1,2-DAG or  
293 *sn*-2,3-DAG), and subsequent TAG resynthesis with different acyl-CoA species producing new molecular  
294 species of TAG. *P. fendleri* accumulates high levels of lesquerolic acid, a 20-carbon hydroxylated FA (HFA),  
295 (Fig. 1J), at the *sn*-1 and *sn*-3 positions of TAG, but not in membrane lipids (Hayes and Kleiman, 1996; Chen  
296 et al., 2011; Bhandari and Bates, 2021). TAG synthesis starts with PC-derived *sn*-1,2-DAG (not containing  
297 HFA) and an *sn*-3 HFA is added by PfeDGAT1 that is selective for the *sn*-1,2-DAG enantiomer structure and  
298 molecular species not containing HFA. The initially produced TAG containing a single HFA is then  
299 remodeled to contain a second HFA by a TAG lipase (PfeTAGL1) that interacts with PfeDGAT1 and removes  
300 the *sn*-1 common FA. PfeDGAT2 is selective for HFA-containing *sn*-2,3-DAG enantiomer and lesqueroyl-  
301 CoA, and produces the final TAG species containing HFA at both *sn*-1 and *sn*-3 (Bhandari and Bates, 2021;  
302 Parchuri et al., 2024). Consequently, TAG remodeling in *P. fendleri* utilizes two DGATs with differential  
303 selectivity for the *sn*-1,2 or *sn*-2,3 enantiomers of DAG. Thus, *P. fendleri* changes the TAG FA composition  
304 after initial synthesis and may be a way to utilize PC-derived DAG but also incorporate FAs into TAG that  
305 are incompatible with membrane lipid intermediates.

306 It is likely that TAG remodeling also occurs in other plants. Homologs of *PfeTAGL1* are found throughout  
307 the plant kingdom but their role in metabolism has yet to be characterized, although the *Arabidopsis*  
308 homolog (*At1g23330*) was identified associated with lipid droplets by proteomics (Kretzschmar et al.,  
309 2020). *De novo* DAG produced from PA or PC-derived DAG are both *sn*-1,2 DAG enantiomers due to their  
310 original synthesis from glycerol-3-phosphate. However, TAG lipases can remove FAs from either the *sn*-1  
311 or *sn*-3 position producing both the *sn*-1,2 or *sn*-2,3 enantiomers of DAG. The utilization of these TAG-  
312 derived DAGs to produce different molecular species of TAG constitutes TAG remodeling but requires an  
313 acyltransferase that can utilize the *sn*-2,3-DAG. The DAG enantiomer selectivity of DGATs has not been  
314 assayed in species other than *P. fendleri* (Parchuri et al., 2024), however if additional plant DGATs  
315 demonstrate selectivity for specific DAG enantiomers it may suggest that TAG remodeling occurs in other  
316 species and may help explain the differential roles of DGAT1, DGAT2, or DGAT3 in plant TAG metabolism.  
317 Additionally, TAG remodeling may help to explain discrepancies between seed TAG FA composition and  
318 observed acyltransferase selectivities. For example, erucic acid (22:1) is highly enriched in the *sn*-1 position  
319 of *Crambe abyssinica* TAG, but the microsomal GPAT does not efficiently utilize 22:1-CoA (Guan et al.,  
320 2014). TAG remodeling could be a mechanism to incorporate 22:1 into *sn*-1 TAG. It is also possible that  
321 TAG remodeling may be induced by stress conditions during seed development and could help explain the  
322 effect of cold on increasing PUFA content in *Helianthus annuus* seeds (Garces et al., 1994; Sarmiento et  
323 al., 1998).

### 324 **The control of lipid metabolic flux may be dependent on cellular organization of lipid metabolism**

325 How acyl flux through the complex lipid metabolic network for TAG assembly (Fig. 2) is controlled to  
326 produce specific TAG molecular species, while maintaining distinct acyl compositions within membrane  
327 lipids, is still an unsolved metabolic mystery. Additionally, one of the major unknowns regarding the  
328 cellular control of metabolism (including but not limited to lipid biosynthesis) is the “blueprint” used for  
329 subcellular and suborganellar compartmentalization of reactions. The ER membrane contains at least 16  
330 morphologically (and likely physiologically) distinct domains (Staehelin, 1997; Levine and Rabouille, 2005).

331 Some of these domains likely serve as specialized sites for either membrane or TAG biosynthesis  
332 (Fernandez and Staehelin, 1987; Vogel and Browse, 1996). 'Metabolons' provide the conditions necessary  
333 for tightly regulated, highly coordinated transfer of intermediates directly from one enzyme to the next  
334 (Dastmalchi and Facchini, 2016; Bassard and Halkier, 2018; Coleman, 2019). Metabolons contain all the  
335 necessary enzymes, scaffolding proteins, and other cofactors required for efficient metabolite production;  
336 unique ER lipid composition and interaction with cellular scaffolding may also contribute to protein  
337 associations within the metabolon. Sequestration of substrates in metabolons serves to increase their local  
338 concentrations, thus enhancing reaction rates. Substrate channeling helps to prevent the release and  
339 potential degradation of pathway intermediates. Metabolon protein complexes can be homomeric or  
340 heteromeric and exist in either permanent or transient states. Various properties of permanent and  
341 transient complexes differ, especially including the binding affinities between the different protein  
342 subunits and may affect metabolon function (Dahmani et al., 2023). Because metabolons can be  
343 dissociable, determining what is a metabolon for substrate channeling vs just interacting proteins can be  
344 difficult.

345 Plant terpenoid biosynthesis is strongly suspected to be regulated, at least in part, by metabolon  
346 formation. Terpenoids are a large category of lipophilic chemicals that serve important general roles as  
347 electron carriers, hormones, and pigments, while specialized terpenoids are used by certain plant families  
348 to mediate both helpful and harmful biotic interactions. Even when ignoring the biochemistry necessary  
349 to create the fully elaborated profile of dozens or hundreds of specific terpenoids found in each species or  
350 tissue, the biosynthesis of the foundational terpenoid building blocks is itself very complex. Two primary  
351 biosynthetic pathways operate in parallel for the early biosynthetic reactions. These pathways occupy at  
352 least three subcellular compartments and draw upon the same isopentenyl diphosphate and dimethylallyl  
353 diphosphate precursors. Efficient channeling of metabolites through these pathways strongly suggests that  
354 plant cells can contain and channel certain plant terpenoid intermediates through the appropriate  
355 branches of the respective biosynthetic networks, as expertly reviewed recently (Gutensohn et al., 2022).  
356 Additionally, different transgenic engineering approaches have been used to enhance terpenoid  
357 accumulation via metabolic channeling using non-traditional approaches such as protein fusions between  
358 successive enzymes and the use of different types of protein scaffolds (Brodelius et al., 2002; Dueber et  
359 al., 2009; Han et al., 2016; Sadre et al., 2019; Gutensohn et al., 2022).

360 Within plant membrane lipid and TAG synthesis, multiple studies have provided enticing suggestions for  
361 existence of lipid biosynthetic metabolons. All the enzymes and cofactors necessary for FA synthesis are  
362 integrated within spinach chloroplasts, leading to highly efficient channeling of carbon into FAs and other  
363 complex lipids, even when chloroplasts were disrupted and even though the chloroplastic FA synthase  
364 complex is made up of several soluble enzymes that could reasonably be expected to leak from lysed  
365 organelles *in vitro* (Roughan and Ohlrogge, 1996). Other findings demonstrated that ER membrane lipid  
366 metabolic domains themselves might be further separated into additional categories, as evidenced by  
367 non-overlapping targeting of two different DGAT enzymes from tung tree (*Vernicia fordii*) (Shockley et al.,  
368 2006). Combined with the contrasting expression profiles and transgenic product profiles produced by the  
369 two tung enzymes, it seems likely that they co-localize with different protein partners and serve  
370 substantially different roles *in vivo*. The strongest evidence for possible metabolons in lipid metabolism  
371 comes from the *in vivo* metabolic tracing discussed above, where plants can control the flux of Kennedy  
372 pathway produced *de novo* DAG into PC rather than directly into TAG and eventually utilize PC-derived  
373 DAG for TAG synthesis (Bates et al., 2009; Bates and Browse, 2011; Yang et al., 2017; Regmi et al., 2020;

374 Bhandari and Bates, 2021), despite all known enzymes involved in *de novo* DAG, PC, PC-derived DAG, and  
375 TAG synthesis localizing to the ER membrane. What is lacking is evidence of the organization of metabolon  
376 protein components that may control this metabolism, but supportive results are starting to accumulate  
377 (Xu et al., 2023).

378 Our focus lies mostly with plant lipids, yet recent work in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* (Greenwood et al.,  
379 2023) is especially relevant to plant TAG production. Extensive interactions between all three Kennedy  
380 pathway acyltransferases (GPAT, LPAT, and DGAT) was reported. Additionally, a ‘supercomplex’ containing  
381 the  $\Delta 9$  FA desaturase Ole1 and the latter two Kennedy pathway enzymes LPAT (Slc1) and DGAT (Dga1) was  
382 described. Dubbed as a ‘desaturasome’ (Greenwood et al., 2023), this complex likely helps to channel  
383 unsaturated FAs into phospholipids during rapid cell division, thereby helping to maintain proper  
384 membrane fluidity, and may also help to initiate lipid droplet formation by supplying unsaturated FAs for  
385 DAG and TAG (Zoni et al., 2021).

386 Yeast two-hybrid (Y2H) was used to demonstrate the interaction of *Arabidopsis* DGAT1 with PDCT and  
387 LPCAT2, suggesting possible delivery of PC-derived DAG and acyl-CoA for TAG synthesis. Notably, the yeast  
388 two-hybrid system used in this study (and others like it) utilizes a split-ubiquitin approach that allows for  
389 assessment of soluble proteins, membrane-bound proteins, or combinations thereof (Gidda et al., 2011).  
390 Additionally, both Y2H and biomolecular fluorescence complementation (BiFC) demonstrated the  
391 interaction of AtDGAT1 and AtPDAT1 (Lee and Seo, 2019; Regmi et al., 2020), consistent with accumulation  
392 of heart-healthy oleic acid in TAG in transgenic systems expressing avocado PaDGAT1 and PaPDAT1 (Behera  
393 et al., 2022). However, *in vivo* metabolic tracing in developing seeds of *Arabidopsis* wild-type and *dgat1-1*  
394 mutant (where AtPDAT1 synthesizes TAG) suggested the use of different PC-derived DAG pools for TAG  
395 biosynthesis by AtDGAT1 and AtPDAT1. Thus, more information is needed to understand how potential  
396 metabolon components control substrate flux into specific TAG molecular species. Flax (*Linum  
397 usitatissimum*) seed oil contains very high levels of the omega-3 FA  $\alpha$ -linolenic acid (18:3, Fig. 1D). The  
398 efficient accumulation of 18:3 may be explained in part by substrate channeling/TAG metabolon  
399 formation. Y2H and BiFC approaches demonstrated physical interactions between flax DGATs and other  
400 lipid biosynthetic enzymes, including LuLPCAT2 and LuPDCT (Xu et al., 2019). Notably, in contrast to the  
401 *Arabidopsis* results cited above, these authors did not observe interactions between LuDGAT1 and  
402 LuPDAT1, further indicating that more information is needed to understand the coordinated TAG  
403 biosynthesis between DGAT and PDAT in different species. Caution must be used in interpreting Y2H and  
404 BiFC data, because positive interactions in these systems do not necessarily imply substrate channeling or  
405 metabolon formation, but are nonetheless compelling evidence that points in those directions.

406 Another example of potential metabolons in plant lipid metabolism is the growing evidence for lineage  
407 specific coordination of proteins to produce specific TAG molecular species (Busta et al., 2022). For  
408 example, Castor (*Ricinus communis*) accumulates ~90% of the HFA ricinoleic acid (Fig. 1I) in its seed oils,  
409 but little to no ricinoleic acid in membrane lipids. This dichotomy suggests evolutionary optimization of  
410 HFA biosynthesis, acyltransferase substrate selectivity, and substrate channeling, that could be  
411 accomplished by metabolon formation. While the primary castor oleate hydroxylase enzyme is capable of  
412 modest ricinoleate production in transgenic systems, these lines often suffered from oil yield penalties,  
413 poor germination, and other problems. Stacking of multiple castor acyltransferases and TAG metabolic  
414 genes into the hydroxylase *Arabidopsis* lines progressively overcame these physiological defects while also  
415 resulting in large increases in the total amounts of ricinoleate produced in seed oils (Lu et al., 2006; Burgal  
416 et al., 2008; van Erp et al., 2011; Lunn et al., 2019; Shockley et al., 2019). The enhanced efficiency seen in

417 these lines suggests formation of protein:protein complexes among the castor enzymes, creating more  
418 efficient HFA flux into TAG. Similarly, *in vivo* metabolic tracing, protein:protein interactions, and transgenic  
419 expression support a potential metabolon for the accumulation of the HFA lesquerolic acid (Fig. 1J)  
420 through TAG remodeling in *P. fenderli* (Bhandari and Bates, 2021; Parchuri et al., 2024). Thus, metabolons  
421 may be one mechanism to separate unusual FA metabolism for TAG biosynthesis from common FA  
422 metabolism required for membrane function.

423 While all these studies suggest some of the contextual possibilities for intersection of metabolon  
424 formation and lipid biosynthesis, our research has raised another question (additionally, see Outstanding  
425 Questions). Aside from the possible protein composition of lipid metabolons, how might metabolons play  
426 a role in the spatial segregation of the various routes of TAG biosynthesis? Could the sorting of key enzymes  
427 into distinct metabolons control the diversity of metabolic pathways used to produce TAG from *de novo*  
428 DAG, PC-derived DAG, or through TAG remodeling? One possibility is that lipid metabolism is organized  
429 into metabolons that separate *de novo* membrane lipid biosynthesis, from that of TAG biosynthesis, such  
430 that intermediates like PC act as effective “DAG transport molecules” that shuttle between ER domains  
431 (Shockey et al., 2016; Regmi et al., 2020; Bates, 2022). Further characterization of the protein components  
432 of different lipid biosynthetic metabolons and how each effects substrate flux will be essential for  
433 understanding the potential roles of metabolons in lipid metabolism.

#### 434 **Concluding Remarks**

435 As our knowledge of plant TAG biosynthesis increases, so does our appreciation of the complexity of the  
436 pathways and mechanisms required to produce different TAG molecular species. The advent of rapid and  
437 inexpensive genome and transcriptome sequencing has allowed us to quickly identify homologs of many  
438 TAG biosynthesis-related enzymes that are expressed in oil accumulating tissues. However, as we  
439 presented here the same types of TAG biosynthetic enzymes may be utilized within different metabolic  
440 pathways and have different selectivities for substrate molecular species or even stereochemical  
441 structures. Therefore, to thoroughly comprehend oil biosynthesis in any plant species will require  
442 understanding the biochemical activities of the enzymes involved and how they cooperate to control the  
443 overall carbon flux through lipid metabolism (see Outstanding Questions). Additionally, despite the  
444 deceptive simplicity of drawing “metabolic pathways”, it is important to remember that metabolism occurs  
445 within the multi-compartmental and three-dimensional confines of a dynamic living cell. Therefore,  
446 additional insights to the cellular organization of lipid metabolism will be essential to understand how the  
447 overlapping pathways of membrane lipid and storage oil biosynthesis are organized and controlled. Finally,  
448 as the recent discovery of TAG remodeling demonstrates (Bhandari and Bates, 2021; Parchuri et al., 2024),  
449 there are likely additional unanticipated metabolic pathways (or network branches) involved in TAG  
450 accumulation, at least in some plant species. Understanding the species-specific differences and  
451 organization of TAG metabolism will be key for rational engineering of designer oils for the benefit of  
452 humankind.

#### 453 **Outstanding Questions box**

454

- 455 • What controls acyl flux through different branches of the lipid metabolic network?
- Does TAG remodeling occur in species that do not accumulate hydroxylated fatty acids?

- Do DGATs from species other than *P. fendleri* have selectivity for *sn*-1,2- or *sn*-2,3-DAG enantiomers? If so, what role does DAG enantiomer selectivity or lack thereof have within lipid metabolism?
- What is the relative contribution of different acyltransferase isoforms to TAG biosynthesis in different species?
- Do the protein:protein interactions identified within plant TAG synthesis actually function to channel substrates into TAG as a functional metabolon?
- Could the sorting of key enzymes into distinct metabolons control the diversity of metabolic pathways used to produce TAG from *de novo* DAG, PC-derived DAG, or through TAG remodeling?
- What controls the localization of different enzymes and/or distinct metabolite pools to distinct metabolons to produce different TAG molecular species?
- Can engineering artificial metabolons allow us to more efficiently tailor seed oil fatty acid composition without disturbing essential membrane lipid compositions?
- Considering the huge diversity of fatty acid structures in nature, are there additional uncharacterized metabolic pathways of TAG assembly that are key to controlling seed oil fatty acid compositions?

## 472 **Acknowledgments**

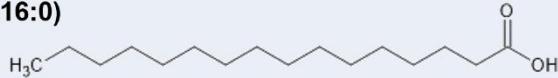
473 This material is based upon work supported by the National Science Foundation under grant Nos.  
474 1829365 and 2242822; the United States Department of Agriculture National Institute of Food and  
475 Agriculture grant Nos. 2020-67013-30899 and 2023-67013-39022, Hatch Project No. 1015621 and Multi-  
476 State Project No. 1013013; and the U. S. Department of Energy, Office of Science, Office of Biological and  
477 Environmental Research, under award No. DE-SC0023142. This work was supported in part by the U.S.  
478 Department of Agriculture, Agricultural Research Service. Mention of trade names or commercial  
479 products is solely for the purpose of providing specific information and does not imply recommendation  
480 or endorsement by USDA. USDA is an equal opportunity provider and employer.

## 481

## 482 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

### Common fatty acids

#### A: Palmitic acid (16:0)



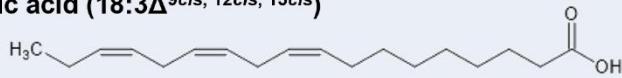
#### B: Oleic acid (18:1 $\Delta^{9cis}$ )



#### C: Linoleic acid (18:2 $\Delta^{9cis}, 12cis$ )

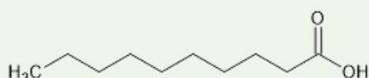


#### D: $\alpha$ -linolenic acid (18:3 $\Delta^{9cis}, 12cis, 15cis$ )

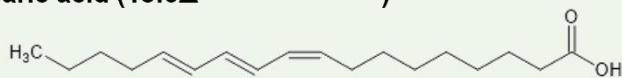


### Unusual fatty acids

#### E: Decanoic acid (10:0)



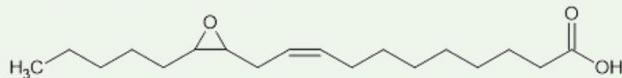
#### F: $\alpha$ -Eleostearic acid (18:3 $\Delta^{9cis}, 11trans, 13trans$ )



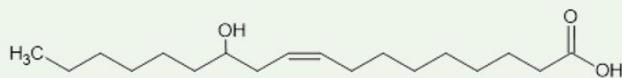
#### G: Sterculic acid (18:1 $\Delta^{9cis}, 9-10(CH_2)$ )



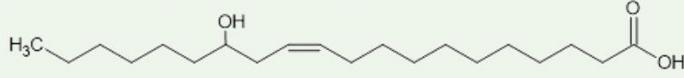
#### H: Vernolic acid (18:1 $\Delta^{9cis}, 12-13(O)$ )



#### I: Ricinoleic acid (18:1 $\Delta^{9cis}, 12-OH$ )



#### J: Lesquerolic acid (20:1 $\Delta^{11cis}, 14-OH$ )



#### K: Erucic acid (22:1 $\Delta^{13cis}$ )

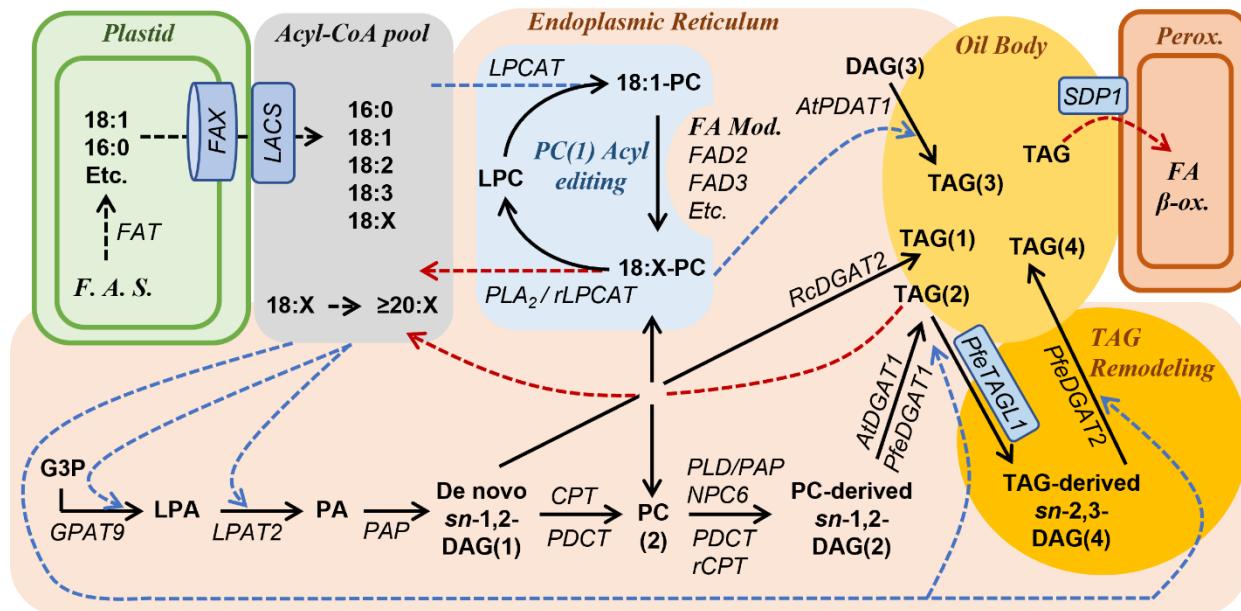


484 **Figure 1. Examples of common and unusual fatty acids.**

485 The fatty acid common names, and where appropriate common abbreviations, are in the figure. The IUPAC  
486 names are: A, hexadecanoic acid; B, (Z)-octadec-9-enoic acid; C, (9Z,12Z)-octadeca-9,12-dienoic acid; D,  
487 (9Z,12Z,15Z)-octadeca-9,12,15-trienoic acid; E, decanoic acid; F, (9Z,11E,13E)-octadeca-9,11,13-trienoic

488 acid; G, 8-(2-octylcyclopropen-1-yl)octanoic acid; H, (Z)-11-[(2S,3R)-3-pentyloxiran-2-yl]undec-9-enoic  
 489 acid; I, (Z,12R)-12-hydroxyoctadec-9-enoic acid; J, (Z,14R)-14-hydroxyicos-11-enoic acid; K, (Z)-docos-13-  
 490 enoic acid.

491



492

493 **Figure 2. Expanding diversity of metabolic reactions controlling TAG molecular species accumulation.**

494 Solid black lines involve glycerol backbone flux. Dashed arrows are acyl transfers, blue are glycerolipid  
 495 assembly, red are fatty acid removal from glycerolipids. Substrates are in bold, where appropriate  
 496 numbered substrates represent different metabolic pools as identified from isotopic tracing studies.  
 497 Enzymes next to arrows are in italics, where appropriate specific genes isoforms are indicated. For TAG  
 498 synthesizing enzymes that utilize different DAG pools, examples of species genes are indicated where  
 499 results suggest which DAG pool each utilizes in that species. Enzymes in boxes represent reactions at the  
 500 interphase of two cellular compartments. Cellular locations or description of a multi-step metabolic  
 501 activity is Times New Roman font in italics, abbreviations: Perox., peroxisome; β-ox., beta-oxidation; FA  
 502 Mod., fatty acid modification; F. A. S., fatty acid synthesis. Substrate abbreviations in bold: DAG,  
 503 diacylglycerol; G3P, glycerol-3-phosphate; LPA, lyso-phosphatidic acid; LPC, lysophosphatidylcholine; PA,  
 504 phosphatidic acid; PC, phosphatidylcholine; TAG, triacylglycerol. Enzyme abbreviations in italics: CPT, CDP-  
 505 choline:DAG cholinophosphotransferase; DGAT, acyl-CoA:DAG acyltransferase; FAD, fatty acid desaturase;  
 506 FAT, fatty acid thioesterase; FAX, fatty acid exporter; GPAT9, acyl-CoA:G3P acyltransferase 9; LACS, long  
 507 chain acyl-CoA synthetase; LPAT2, acyl-CoA:LPA acyltransferase 2; LPCAT, acyl-CoA:LPC acyltransferase;  
 508 NPC6, non-specific phospholipase C 6; PAP, PA phosphatase; PDCT, PC:DAG cholinophosphotransferase;  
 509 PDAT, phospholipid:DAG acyltransferase; PLA, phospholipase A; PLD, phospholipase D. Lowercase r before  
 510 enzyme indicates reverse reaction.

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