

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 fendleri*
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

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

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

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

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

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

Ever-expanding “pathways” of triacylglycerol synthesis

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

Production of FA substrates for TAG biosynthesis

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

Acyl editing to generate diverse acyl substrate pools for TAG biosynthesis

Acyl editing is a cycle of PC de-acylation and lyso-PC re-acylation that exchanges FAs between PC and the acyl-CoA pool (Fig. 2). *In vivo* isotopic tracing of lipid metabolism indicated that 18:1 exported from the plastid is incorporated into glycerolipids predominantly through *sn*-2 PC acyl editing in leaf and seed tissues in species such as *Arabidopsis thaliana*, *Brassica napus*, *Camelina sativa*, *Glycine max*, *Nicotiana tabacum*, *Physaria fendleri*, and *Pisum sativum* (Williams et al., 2000; Bates et al., 2007; Bates et al., 2009; Bates et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2012; Yang et al., 2017; Karki et al., 2019; Zhou et al., 2020; Bhandari and Bates, 2021). PC de-acylation may proceed by either phospholipase A₂ (PLA₂, as in the Lands cycle (Lands, 1965)) or the reverse action of acyl-CoA:lysophosphatidylcholine acyltransferase (LPCAT). Free FAs produced by Lands Cycle PLA₂ activity are activated to acyl-CoA for further use likely by ER localized LACS (Shockey and Browse, 2011). The lyso-PC re-acylation proceeds through the LPCAT forward reaction. Plant

LPCATs can have different acyl specificities in their forward and reverse reactions (Lager et al., 2013; Pan et al., 2015; Jasieniecka-Gazarkiewicz et al., 2016), when combined with acyl modification on PC, leads to diverse acyl-CoA and PC molecular species pools. The *Arabidopsis lpcat1/lpcat2* mutant shifts the flux of nascent FA to *de novo* glycerolipid synthesis rather than acyl editing (Stahl et al., 2008; Bates et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2012; Karki et al., 2019) and reduces accumulation of PUFAs in TAG (Bates et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2012), demonstrating the important contribution of acyl editing to the final TAG FA composition. Interestingly, both lipid composition analysis and isotopic tracing in the *lpcat1/lpcat2* mutant background suggested some acyl flux through PC for transfer of PUFAs to other lipids still occurs (Bates et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2012; Karki et al., 2019), possibly through *de novo* PC synthesis and various PC turnover/exchange mechanisms including phosphatidylcholine:diacylglycerol cholinephosphotransferase (PDCT) or phospholipase D (Lee et al., 2011; Bates et al., 2012; Yang et al., 2017). An alternative non-LPCAT based acyl editing mechanism may also contribute to acyl flux through PC in the *lpcat1/lpcat2* mutant. Lyso-PC produced by PLA₂ action may be converted back to PC by a lyso-PC:lyso-PC transacylase (LPCT) which co-produces glycerophosphocholine. Glycerophosphocholine acyltransferase (GPCAT) can regenerate lyso-PC to maintain the LPCT reaction (Lager et al., 2015). As of yet, the molecular identity of only the GPCAT, but not LPCT, has been identified (Gląb et al., 2016). Still unknown is the relative contribution of forward/reverse LPCAT, PLA₂, LPCT, and GPCAT activities to overall acyl flux through PC and their contribution to seed TAG FA composition in wild-type and engineered plants that accumulate novel FA compositions (Bates, 2016; Correa et al., 2020).

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Diverse molecular species produced by TAG biosynthetic enzymes

The final step to synthesize TAG from DAG is catalyzed by an acyl-CoA:diacylglycerol acyltransferase (DGAT), or by direct FA transfer from PC by PDAT. Plant DGATs and PDATs have been extensively studied and recently expertly reviewed in detail (Xu et al., 2018; Chen et al., 2022; Sah et al., 2024). Here we focus on the key aspects pertaining to their control of TAG molecular species compositions. Plants contain three unrelated DGAT enzymes. In many cases, the ER-localized DGAT1 and/or DGAT2 are the major seed oil producing acyltransferases, and the acyl-CoA selectivity of the dominant DGATs typically is consistent with the FA composition of the seed oil, as demonstrated by either *in vitro* assays or transgenic expression experiments (Xu et al., 2018; Correa et al., 2020; Chen et al., 2022). However, even within a species, different isoforms of DGAT1 and/or DGAT2 can have different acyl-CoA selectivities (Demski et al., 2019; Chen et al., 2022; Parchuri et al., 2024). The role of the soluble DGAT3 in lipid metabolism is less clear. The relatively scant experimental evidence suggests localization to the chloroplast (Aymé et al., 2018; Carro et al., 2022) and a role in lipid homeostasis in Arabidopsis vegetative tissues (Hernández et al., 2012), but results suggest a contribution of DGAT3 to *C. sativa* seed oil accumulation (Lee et al., 2022). DGAT1 and DGAT2 typically have distinct expression patterns, do not interact or co-localize in the ER, and can utilize metabolically distinct pools of DAG (Fig. 2 DAG(1-4)) (Shockey et al., 2006; Bourgis et al., 2011; Troncoso-Ponce et al., 2011; Horn et al., 2016; Regmi et al., 2020). Recently, assays of DGAT1 and DGAT2 from *C. sativa*, *Crambe hispanica*, and *P. fendleri* indicate that DGAT1 and DGAT2 can have very distinct and complementary DAG molecular species selectivities which contribute to the final oil composition (Jeppson et al., 2019; Lager et al., 2020; Parchuri et al., 2024). Figure 2 indicates where evidence suggests species-specific utilization of select DAG pools by DGAT1 or DGAT2 including: the use of *de novo* DAG(1) by *RcDGAT2* in *R. communis* endosperm (Bafor et al., 1991; Bursal et al., 2008; Troncoso-Ponce et al., 2011); the use of PC-derived DAG(2) by *AtDGAT1* or *PfDGAT1* (Regmi et al., 2020; Parchuri et al., 2024); or the use of *sn*-2,3-DAG(4) produced through TAG remodeling by *PfDGAT2* (Parchuri et al., 2024). Interestingly, when expressed transgenically, the DGAT may not utilize the same DAG pool that is exploited in the host species. For example, *RcDGAT2* expressed in the Arabidopsis *dgat1-1* mutant did not utilize *de novo* DAG(1) or the initially produced PC-derived DAG(2), but utilized a more slowly turned over PC-derived DAG(3) pool

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

While all these studies suggest some of the contextual possibilities for intersection of metabolon formation and lipid biosynthesis, our research has raised another question (additionally, see Outstanding Questions). Aside from the possible protein composition of lipid metabolons, how might metabolons play a role in the spatial segregation of the various routes of TAG biosynthesis? 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? One possibility is that lipid metabolism is organized into metabolons that separate *de novo* membrane lipid biosynthesis, from that of TAG biosynthesis, such that intermediates like PC act as effective “DAG transport molecules” that shuttle between ER domains (Shockey et al., 2016; Regmi et al., 2020; Bates, 2022). Further characterization of the protein components of different lipid biosynthetic metabolons and how each effects substrate flux will be essential for understanding the potential roles of metabolons in lipid metabolism.

Concluding Remarks

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

Outstanding Questions box

- 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?

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FIGURE LEGENDS

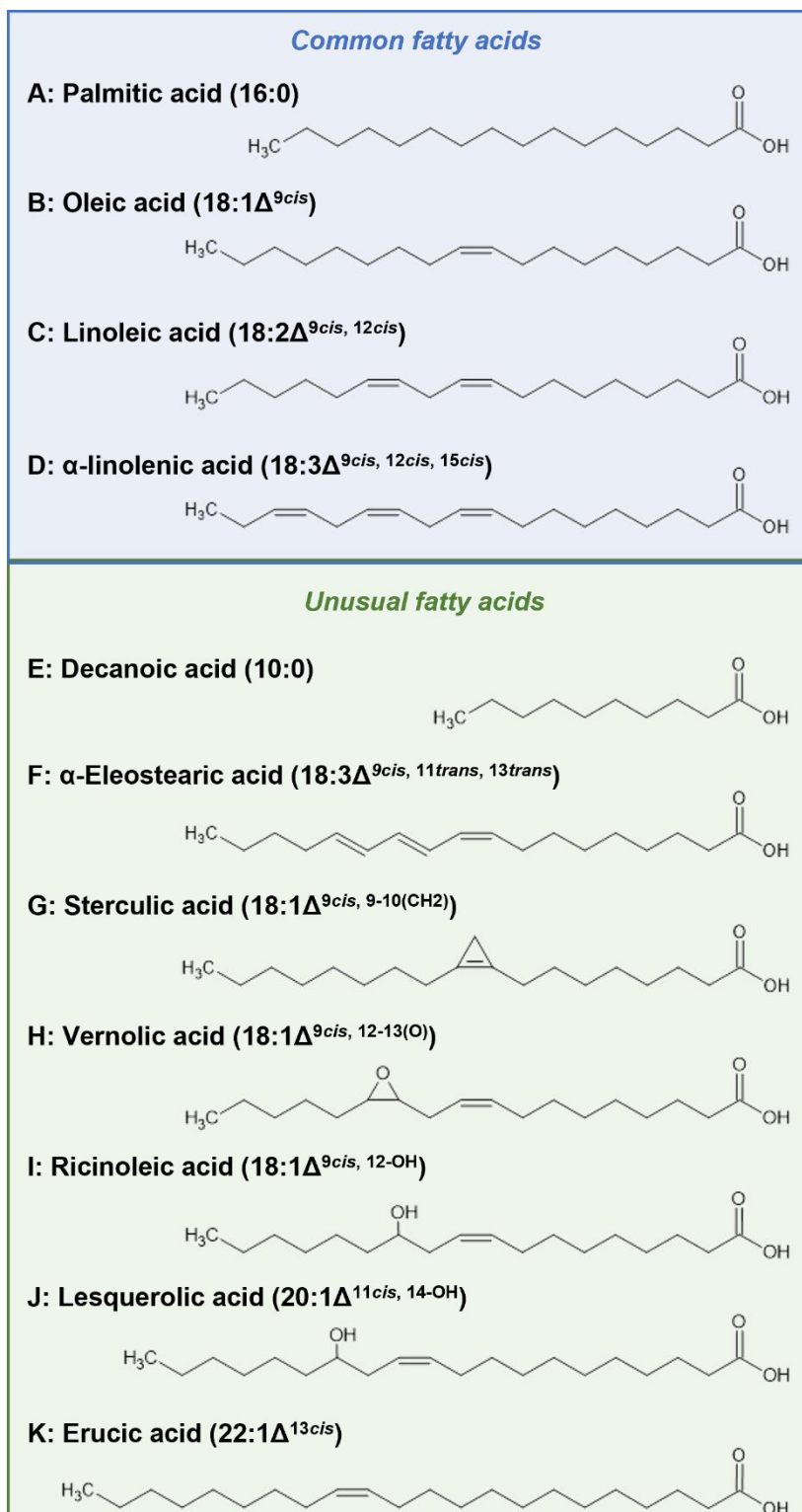


Figure 1. Examples of common and unusual fatty acids.

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

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

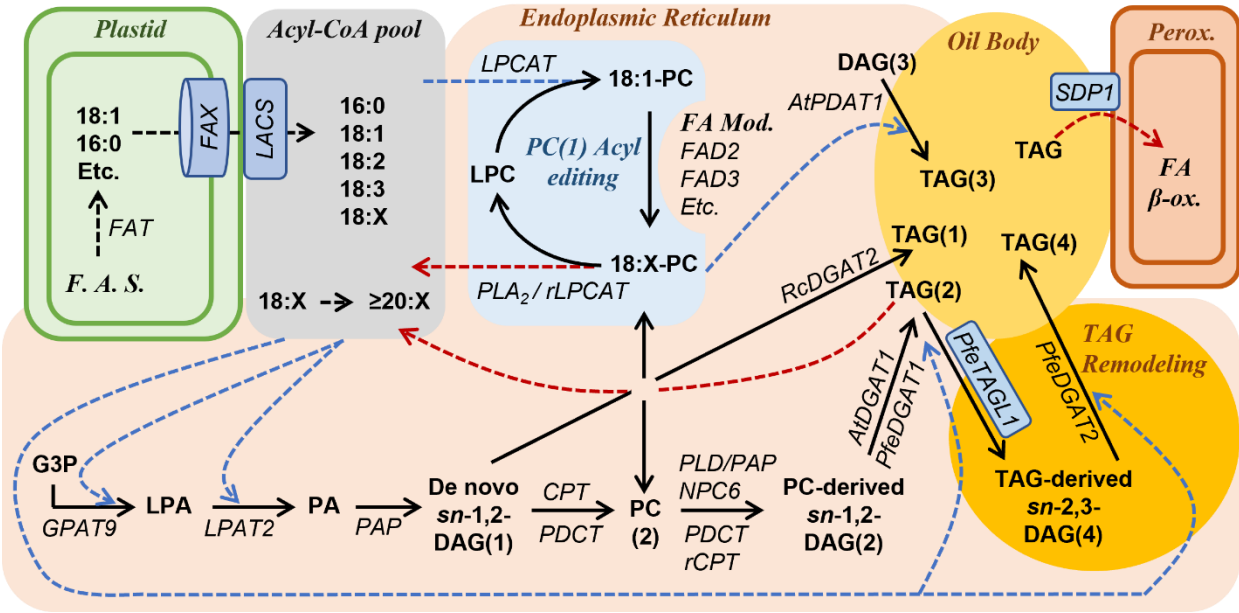


Figure 2. Expanding diversity of metabolic reactions controlling TAG molecular species accumulation.

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

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