



# Different acyl-CoA:diacylglycerol acyltransferases vary widely in function, and a targeted amino acid substitution enhances oil accumulation

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Photos of oil crops; Vernonia (*Vernonia galamensis*), sunflower (*Helianthus annuus*), Jatropha (*Jatropha curcas*), and castor bean (*Ricinus communis*). Acyl-CoA:diacylglycerol acyltransferase type 1 (DGAT1) plays a pivotal role to accumulate triacylglycerol (TAG) as a storage lipid. The yeast expression experiment results imply that DGAT1s from Vernonia, sunflower, Jatropha, and sesame are highly active, while DGAT1s from Arabidopsis, soybean, and castor bean are much less active than former four species.

## Title

**Different acyl-CoA:diacylglycerol acyltransferases vary widely in function and a targeted amino acid substitution enhances oil accumulation**

## Authors

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## Running title

A targeted amino acid substitution improves DGAT1 potentials

## Highlight

Seven *DGAT1*s were tested for their effects on TAG accumulation in Arabidopsis and yeast. They were divided into high and low function and a site-directed mutagenesis enhanced function in yeast.

## Abstract

Triacylglycerols (TAGs) are the major component of plant storage lipids such as oils. Acyl-CoA:diacylglycerol acyltransferase (DGAT) catalyzes the final step of the Kennedy pathway, and is mainly responsible for plant oil accumulation. We previously found that the DGAT activity of Vernonia DGAT1 was distinctively higher than that of Arabidopsis and soybean DGAT1 in a yeast microsome assay. In this study, the *DGAT1* cDNAs of Arabidopsis, Vernonia, soybean, and castor bean were introduced into Arabidopsis. All Vernonia *DGAT1*-expressing lines showed a significantly higher oil content (49% mean increase compared with the wild-type) followed by soybean and castor bean. Most Arabidopsis *DGAT1*-overexpressing lines did not show a significant increase. In addition to these four *DGAT1*s, sunflower, Jatropha, and sesame *DGAT1* genes were introduced into a TAG biosynthesis-defective yeast mutant. In the yeast expression culture, DGAT1s from Arabidopsis, castor bean, and soybean only slightly increased the TAG content; however, DGAT1s from Vernonia, sunflower, Jatropha, and sesame increased TAG content >10-fold more than the former three DGAT1s. Three amino acid residues were characteristically common in the latter four DGAT1s. Using soybean *DGAT1*, these amino acid substitutions were created by site-directed mutagenesis and substantially increased the TAG content.

**Keywords:** Acyl-CoA:diacylglycerol acyltransferase, *Arabidopsis thaliana*, DGAT1, site-directed mutagenesis, triacylglycerol, *Vernonia galamensis*, yeast strain H1246

## Introduction

Vegetable oil is one of the most important renewable resources in the world. In addition to a wide range of food applications, vegetable oils are also valuable as renewable chemical derivatives such as lubricants, paints, adhesives, varnishes, plasticisers, and biodiesel (Carlsson, 2009; 2011; Jaworski and Cahoon, 2003; Ohlrogge, 1994). Triacylglycerol (TAG) is a major component of plant storage lipids and is synthesized by continuous esterification of acyl chains from acyl-CoA at the *sn*-1, -2, and -3 positions of the glycerol backbone (Ohlrogge and Browse, 1995).

Three types of enzymes were identified that catalyze the final stage of TAG synthesis: acyl-CoA: diacylglycerol acyltransferase (DGAT) (Cases *et al.*, 1998; Hobbs *et al.*, 1999; Zou *et al.*, 1999), phospholipid: diacylglycerol acyltransferase (PDAT) (Dahlqvist *et al.*, 2000; Oelkers *et al.*, 2000; Stahl *et al.*, 2004) and diacylglycerol transacylase (DAG transacylase) (Fraser *et al.*, 2000; Stobart *et al.*, 1997). Of these enzymes, DGAT is the most important and has been suggested to be the rate-determining factor in TAG synthesis. In eukaryotes, several classes of DGATs have been identified based on differences in structure and activity (He *et al.*, 2004; Lung and Weselake, 2006). DGAT1 belongs to the membrane-bound *O*-acyltransferase (MBOAT) family (Cases *et al.*, 1998), and is usually predicted to have nine or 10 transmembrane domains in higher plants. The gene encoding *DGAT1* has been isolated and characterized from many plant species (Banilas *et al.*, 2011; Beisson *et al.*, 2003; Bouvier-Nave *et al.*, 2000; Hatanaka *et al.*, 2003; Hobbs *et al.*, 1999; Jako *et al.*, 2001; Li *et al.*, 2013b; Li *et al.*, 2010a; Nykiforuk *et al.*, 2002; Shockey *et al.*, 2006; Tuechetto-Zolet *et al.*, 2011; 2008; Yu *et al.*, 2006). The DGAT2 protein has two predicted transmembrane domains and belongs to the monoacylglycerol acyltransferase (MGAT) family. Both DGAT1 and DGAT2 are endoplasmic reticulum (ER) membrane-binding enzymes; however, their amino acid sequences are not homologous to each other (Bates, 2016; Cases *et al.*, 2001; He *et al.*, 2004; Kroon *et al.*, 2006; Lardizabal *et al.*, 2001; Shockey *et al.*, 2006; Xu *et al.*, 2013). DGAT2 from some species is reported to contribute to the accumulation of unusual fatty acids such as a hydroxy fatty acid (ricinoleic acid) in castor bean (*Ricinus communis*) (Burgal *et al.*, 2008; Cagliari *et al.*, 2010; Kroon *et al.*, 2006; Regmi *et al.*, 2020; Shockey *et al.*, 2019; Troncoso-Ponce *et al.*, 2011), a conjugated fatty acid ( $\alpha$ -eleostearic acid) in tung tree (*Vernicia fordii*) (Shockey *et al.*, 2006), and an epoxy fatty acid (vernolic acid) in *Vernonia galamensis* (Li *et al.*, 2010b). DGAT1 and DGAT2 are ER membrane-bound, whereas DGAT3 is a soluble cytoplasmic enzyme identified in peanuts (*Arachis hypogaea*) (Saha *et al.*, 2006), *Arabidopsis thaliana* (Hernandez *et al.*, 2012), and upland cotton (*Gossypium hirsutum*) (Zhao *et al.*, 2021). A fourth type of DGAT has a sequence similar to DGAT2 and has both wax ester synthase (WS) and DGAT activity (WS / DGAT) (Kalscheuer and Steinbuchel, 2003; King *et al.*, 2007; Li *et al.*, 2008; Rosli *et al.*, 2018; Xu *et al.*, 2021). The most common DGAT is type 1 (DGAT1), which contributes to most of the TAG synthesis in higher plants (Chen *et al.*, 2016; Sanjaya *et al.*, 2013; Xu *et al.*, 2018a), but DGAT2 plays a major role in castor bean (Burgal *et al.*, 2008; Kroon *et al.*, 2006; Troncoso-Ponce *et al.*, 2011) and tung tree (Shockey *et*

101 *al.*, 2006), and DGAT3 is expressed highly in upland cotton (Zhao *et al.*, 2021). Many studies have  
102 reported that increased expression of the *DGAT1* gene increases oil content (Andrianov *et al.*, 2010;  
103 Lardizabal *et al.*, 2008; Rao and Hildebrand, 2009; Taylor *et al.*, 2009).

104 *Vernonia galamensis* is an annual herbaceous plant native to East Africa belonging to the  
105 Asteraceae family. It contains ~40% oil in its seeds and is known to be an epoxy fatty acid  
106 accumulator (Ayorinde *et al.*, 1988; Carlson and Chang, 1985; Perdue *et al.*, 1986). *Vernonia* seed  
107 oil contains up to 80% vernolic acid (*cis*-12,13-epoxy-*cis*-9-octadecenoic acid) (Anderson *et al.*,  
108 1993; Neff *et al.*, 1993). From *Vernonia* developing seeds, two types of *DGAT1* genes (*VgDGAT1A*  
109 and *VgDGAT1B*) have been isolated and their various characteristics have been investigated  
110 (Hatanaka *et al.*, 2003; Yu *et al.*, 2008). Expression of the *Stokesia laevis* epoxygenase gene in  
111 soybean seeds showed undesirable phenotypic changes in the transformed seeds such as wrinkles and  
112 weight reduction. However, these negative side effects were restored by co-expression with  
113 *VgDGAT1A* (Li *et al.*, 2012). Even though *Vernonia* DGAT2 is more effective than DGAT1s in  
114 vernolic acid accumulation (Li *et al.*, 2010b), *VgDGAT1A* also significantly increased vernolic acid  
115 accumulation in soybean seeds.

116 In our previous study, in a microsome assay using an expression system in wild-type yeast  
117 (*Saccharomyces cerevisiae*), *Vernonia* DGAT1 was ~40 times more active than *Arabidopsis* DGAT1  
118 and about nine times more active than soybean (*Glycine max*) DGAT1 (Hatanaka *et al.*, 2016).  
119 However, in this system using wild-type yeast (INVSc1, Invitrogen), the activity of *A. thaliana*  
120 *DGAT1* was close to that of the vector control. Therefore, it is unclear whether the activity of  
121 DGAT1 expressed in wild-type yeast would match these results when it is expressed in plants.

122 In this study, the effectiveness of DGAT1s among plant species was investigated. The *DGAT1*  
123 genes evaluated were derived from four species: *V. galamensis*, soybean (*G. max*), castor bean (*R.*  
124 *communis*), and *A. thaliana*. The genes were overexpressed in *Arabidopsis*, and their effects on the  
125 seed oil content and fatty acid composition were investigated. A further three *DGAT1* cDNAs were  
126 obtained from sunflower (*Helianthus annuus*), *Jatropha* (*Jatropha curcas*), and sesame (*Sesamum*  
127 *indicum*), and these seven DGAT1 genes were expressed in the yeast quadruple mutant H1246 strain  
128 (*S. cerevisiae*) (Sandager *et al.*, 2002), which is deficient in TAG synthesis, and their TAG contents  
129 were measured. The amino acid sequence of sunflower DGAT1 is very close to that of *Vernonia*  
130 DGAT1s, and there are reports that *Jatropha* *DGAT1* (Misra *et al.*, 2013) and sesame *DGAT1* (Wang  
131 *et al.*, 2014) are effective for increasing the seed oil contents of transgenic *A. thaliana* lines  
132 expressing these genes. In addition, direct protein engineering has been used to generate DGAT1  
133 variants with enhanced activity (Roesler *et al.*, 2016; Siloto *et al.*, 2009). Chen *et al.* (2017) reported  
134 that a single amino acid residue substitution leads to enhanced *Brassica napus* DGAT1 activity in  
135 yeast. Herein, we aim to clarify the diversity of DGAT1 properties among plant species, and find  
136 factor(s) to increase their effectiveness of DGAT1s in TAG accumulation.

## Materials and methods

### *DGAT1 cDNA cloning and the construction of plant and yeast expression vectors*

Total RNAs were extracted from developing seeds of *A. thaliana* (ecotype, Col-0), soybean (cv. Jack), castor bean, *Jatropha*, and sesame (cv. Kanto-1) using an RNeasy Plant Mini Kit<sup>TM</sup> according to the manufacturer's instructions (Qiagen, <https://www.qiagen.com>). Reverse transcription of RNAs was carried out using a PrimeScript II first strand cDNA Kit<sup>TM</sup> (Takara Bio, Japan). The coding sequences of *DGAT1*s were amplified by a high-fidelity KOD-Plus-Neo polymerase (Toyobo, Japan) using end-specific primers containing restriction sites. The GenBank numbers of *DGAT1* genes in this study are listed in [Supplementary Table S1](#). The primers used in this section are listed in [Supplementary Table S2-1](#). Seeds of sesame (cv. Kanto-1) were gifted from the National Agriculture and Food Research Organization (NARO) Genebank, Japan. Seeds of *Jatropha* were gifted from Dr. Kazuo Sambongi, Director of NIPPON BIODIESEL FUEL Co., Ltd.

### *Arabidopsis transformation and growth conditions*

For plant expression the amplification products, *AtDGAT1*, *GmDGAT1A*, and *RcDGAT1* were subcloned into the respective sites of the pPHI4752 vector containing a phaseolin promoter, which confers strong seed-specific expression of transgenes ([Bustos et al., 1998](#); [Kawagoe et al., 1994](#)). The phaseolin promoter cassette containing the coding region of each target gene was transferred into the corresponding sites of the binary pCAMBIA1301, T-DNA vector (Cosmo Bio, Japan). Regarding *VgDGAT1A*, the vector constructed in the previous study ([Li et al., 2012](#)) was used.

The recombinant plasmids were transformed into *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* strain EHA105 by the freeze-thaw method. Transformation of *A. thaliana* (ecotype Col-0) plants was carried out using the floral dip method ([Clough and Bent, 1998](#)). T<sub>1</sub> seeds were grown on a solid selection medium composed of MS salts ([Murashige and Skoog, 1962](#)), B5 vitamins ([Gamborg et al., 1968](#)), 1% (w/v) sucrose, 25 mg l<sup>-1</sup> (w/v) hygromycin, and 0.8% agar. Plants were grown in a culture room at 23°C under long-day conditions (16 h of light/8 h of dark) at a photon flux density of 90 μmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>. T<sub>2</sub> seeds were harvested and the seeds were checked for total lipid and TAG contents. Two individual transgenic lines into which each *DGAT1* gene was introduced were selected and grown under the same conditions described above. The developing siliques of T<sub>2</sub> generations were used for quantitative PCR (qPCR) and the mature T<sub>3</sub> seeds were used for lipid analysis.

### *Yeast transformation and culture*

For the yeast expression system, coding regions of *DGAT1*s (*AtDGAT1*, *RcDGAT1*, *GmDGAT1A*, *VgDGAT1A*, *HanDGAT1*, *JcDGAT1*, and *SiDGAT1*) were cloned into the yeast vector pYES2 (Invitrogen). *S. cerevisiae* strains were then transformed with the experimental constructs using the lithium acetate-mediated method as well as an empty vector control. The *S. cerevisiae* strains used in

this study were the quadruple knock-out strain H1246 (*MATa are1-D::HIS3, are2-D::LEU2, dgal-D::KanMX4*, and *lro1-D::TRP1 ADE2*), containing knockouts of all four neutral lipid biosynthesis genes *DGAI*, *LRO1*, *ARE1*, and *ARE2*, kindly distributed by Dr. S. Szymne (Sandager *et al.*, 2002). All transformants were selected on synthetic complete medium lacking uracil (SC-U, 6.7% (w/v) of Yeast Nitrogen Base, 0.01% (w/v) of adenine, arginine, cysteine, leucine, lysine, threonine and tryptophane; 0.050% (w/v) of aspartic acid, histidine, isoleucine, methionine, phenylalanine, proline, serine, tyrosine, and valine) supplemented with 2% (w/v) glucose and 2% (w/v) agar. The recombinant yeast cells were cultivated in a liquid medium according to the manufacturer's instructions. The induction culture was performed at 30°C with shaking at 180 rpm in the dark for 5 d to reach the stationary phase. The expression of transgenes was checked by reverse transcription-PCR (RT-PCR). Total RNA extraction and the first strand cDNA synthesis were carried out by the same method described above. Primer sequences for *DGAT1* inside fragments and yeast *Actin1* as an internal reference gene are shown in [Supplementary Table S2-2](#).

#### Quantitative RT-PCR

The relative transcript levels of *DGAT1* genes were analyzed by RT-qPCR. RNAs were isolated from 50–100 mg of Arabidopsis immature siliques or 2 d induced cultured yeast using an ISOSPIN Plant RNA Kit<sup>TM</sup> (Nippon Gene, Japan). The reverse transcription reaction was carried out using a PrimeScript II first strand cDNA Kit<sup>TM</sup> (Takara Bio, Japan) for Arabidopsis or a PrimeScript IV first-strand cDNA synthesis Kit<sup>TM</sup> (Takara Bio, Japan) for yeast. RT-qPCR (qPCR) was performed using a MyGo Pro Real Time PCR System (Funakoshi, Japan).

For Arabidopsis, the 12.5 µl reaction mixtures contained 0.4 µM of each specific oligonucleotide primer for the *DGAT1* or Arabidopsis *Actin2* (*AtACT2*) as the reference gene, 6.25 µl of SYBR Green Premix EX Taq GC<sup>TM</sup> (Takara Bio, Japan) and ~100 ng cDNA according to the manufacturer's instructions. Thermal parameters for amplification were 95°C for 10 min followed by 45 cycles of 95°C for 30 s and 60°C for 60 s. Because endogenous Arabidopsis *DGAT1* (*AtDGAT1*) of immature siliques showed a stable expression level which was calculated relative to *AtACT2* in the wild-type and all transgenic plants, we thought the expression levels of exogenous *DGAT1*s should be reliable. These results are listed in the [Supplementary Table S3](#).

For the yeast qPCR assays, the 20 µl reaction mixtures contained 0.4 µM of each specific oligonucleotide primer for *DGAT1* or yeast *Actin1* (*ScACT1*) and yeast *18S rRNA* (*ScRDNI8*) as the reference genes and 10 µL KOD SYBR qPCR Mix (Toyobo, Japan) according to the manufacturer's instructions. When *ScRDNI8* was used as a reference gene, the template cDNA was diluted to 1/1000. Thermal parameters for amplification were 98°C for 2 min followed by 45 cycles of 98°C for 10 s, 60°C for 10 s and 68°C for 30 s. Melting curves were performed immediately after the completion of the RT-qPCR, and the fluorescence was measured from 60°C to 97°C. Transcript abundances were normalized with respect to the reference genes. The expression levels of transcripts were calculated relative to the reference gene according to the equation: relative expression =  $2^{-\Delta C_q}$ ,



where  $\Delta Cq = Cq(\text{target}) - Cq(\text{reference})$ . The mean values of three technical replicates was used for each biological replicate. The oligonucleotide primer sequences are shown in [Supplementary Table S2-2](#).

#### *Site-directed mutagenesis of GmDGAT1A*

Single amino acid residue substitutions and site-saturation mutagenesis at sites 149, 205, or 263 were introduced into the native GmDGAT1A. Briefly, the full length of the native *GmDGAT1A* coding region was cloned into a pGEM<sup>R</sup>-T Easy Vector (Promega, USA). Site-directed mutagenesis was performed by inverse PCR using PrimeSTAR GXL polymerase (Takara, Japan) and the pGEM<sup>R</sup>-T-vector as a template. The mutagenic primers were designed to change phenylalanine to leucine (F149L), phenylalanine to valine (F205V), or alanine to valine (A263V). These primer sequences are shown in [Supplementary Table S2-2](#). The full length of the coding region in the pGEM<sup>R</sup>-T-vector was sequenced and single site mutagenesis was confirmed. To construct double- and triple-site mutants, a single site-mutated *GmDGAT1A* and a double site-mutated *GmDGAT1A* were used as a template, respectively. The single site-mutated *GmDGAT1A* variants were introduced into yeast H1246 and cultured as described above. The *HanDGAT1* introduced line was also cultured as an example of highly active DGAT1.

#### *Lipid analysis*

Lyophilised Arabidopsis mature seeds or yeast cells induction-cultured for 5 d were lyophilised and triheptadecanoin (tri-17:0) was added at 10  $\mu\text{g mg}^{-1}$  tissue as a standard. The samples were finely ground with a mortar and pestle with 2–3 mL of chloroform and methanol (2:1, v/v) containing 0.001% butylated hydroxytoluene (BHT). After a brief centrifugation, the chloroform phase was transferred into a new glass tube. Samples were divided into two aliquots. One was used for thin layer chromatography (TLC) and the other directly for gas chromatography (GC) analysis.

TLC was applied to separate individual lipid classes. The chloroform extracts were loaded on lanes of LK6D Silica gel 60A TLC plates (GE Healthcare Japan Co. Ltd, Tokyo, Japan), and the plates were put in a chamber with hexane:diethyl ether:acetic acid (80:20:1, v/v/v) containing 0.001% BHT. After chromatography, the plates were dried and then sprayed with 0.005% primulin in 80% acetone, followed by visualization under UV light. The TAG bands were scraped and transferred to a glass tube. The TAGs were eluted three times with 2 ml of diethyl ether.

For GC analysis, the samples were completely dried under an N<sub>2</sub> stream and mixed with 0.5 ml of 18 mg ml<sup>-1</sup> sodium methoxide (NaOCH<sub>3</sub>) in methanol and then incubated for 45 min with shaking at room temperature. Each dried sample was resolved in 2 ml of hexane containing 0.001% BHT. Then, the hexane layer was extracted and concentrated under an N<sub>2</sub> stream. Finally, the fatty acid methyl esters were analyzed with GC on a GC-14B (Shimadzu Co. Ltd., Kyoto, Japan) with a 2.1 m×0.25 mm glass column filled with Unisole 3000 (GL Sciences Co Ltd., Tokyo, Japan) and a flame ionization detector (GC-FID).



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*Bioinformatics*

The three-dimensional structures of VgDGAT1A, GmDGAT1A and GmDGAT1A-F146L were analyzed by I-TASSER (Yang and Zhang, 2015) and COFACTOR (Zhang et al., 2017) based on a comparison with human DGAT1 (Wang et al., 2020).

**Results and discussion**

Extent of transgenic Arabidopsis seed oil increase was dependent on the specific DGAT1 introduced

To test the results of our previous yeast microsome assay using AtDGAT1, GmDGAT1A, and VgDGAT1A *in planta*, cDNAs of *AtDGAT1*, *GmDGAT1A*, castor bean *DGAT1* (*RcDGAT1*), and *VgDGAT1A* were introduced into *A. thaliana* (Col-0) under the control of a seed-specific promoter. We obtained 11 to 16 transgenic lines from each of the introduced *DGAT1*s, and each T<sub>2</sub> seed oil contents were measured (Supplementary Fig. S1). All T<sub>2</sub> seeds with *VgDGAT1A* showed higher oil contents than the wild-type seeds. Two transgenic lines from each *DGAT1* introduced were selected, and those T<sub>3</sub> lines were designated as AtD-OE-4, AtD-OE-6 (*AtDGAT1* overexpression), GmD-1, GmD-3 (*GmDGAT1A*), RcD-4, RcD-10 (*RcDGAT1*), and VgD-10, VgD-12 (*VgDGAT1A*). Oil content and fatty acid composition of T<sub>3</sub> seeds from transgenic lines were analyzed by GC. T<sub>3</sub> seeds of VgD-10 and VgD-12 showed the highest seed oil contents (44% mean increase compared to the wild-type) followed by GmD-1, GmD-3 (32% increase), RcD-10, and RcD-4 (22% increase). VgD lines always showed significantly higher seed oil accumulation than wild-type plants (Fig. 1A). AtD-OE lines showed a small increase (Fig. 1A) even though the mRNA expression levels were 30-fold higher than the wild-type (Supplementary Table S3). These results reflected our previous yeast microsome assay study (Hatanaka et al., 2016). The fatty acid compositions did not change drastically between wild-type plants and transgenic lines (Fig. 1B).

In yeast H1246, DGAT1s from seven species were roughly classified into two groups

Because the yeast expression system predicted the function of DGAT1s in plants, we tested more *DGAT1*s from other plant species to investigate how the DAGT1 functions differed among the species. We used yeast because the results could be obtained sooner than in plants. In addition to the four *DGAT1*s above, sunflower *DGAT1* (*HanDGAT1*), Jatropha *DGAT1* (*JcDGAT1*), and sesame *DGAT1* (*SiDGAT1*) were introduced into the yeast quadruple knockout strain H1246. Transgenic yeast lines were designated ‘VC’ for an empty vector control, ‘At’ for *AtDGAT1*, ‘Rc’ for *RcDGAT1*, ‘Gm’ for *GmDGAT1A*, ‘Vg’ for *VgDGAT1A*, ‘Ha’ for *HanDGAT1*, ‘Jc’ for *JcDGAT1*, and ‘Si’ for

291 *SiDGAT1*. Because there are no codon usage biases between higher plants and *S. cerevisiae*  
292 ([Appendix S1](#)), the original plant *DGAT1* genes were introduced.

293 After 2 d, cultured cells were harvested for RT-PCR and RT-qPCR to check the gene expression.  
294 All introduced gene expressions were confirmed by RT-PCR ([Supplementary Fig. S2](#)).

295 After 5 d, cultured cells were harvested and submitted for lipid analysis. The TLC results showed  
296 that species could be classified into a low TAG accumulating group (At, Rc, and Gm) and a high  
297 TAG accumulating group (Vg, Ha, Jc, and Si) ([Supplementary Fig. S3](#)). We designated them the  
298 ‘Low’ group for the former three and the ‘High’ group for the latter four. Their total lipid and TAG  
299 contents were measured by GC ([Fig. 2A](#)). These results were supported by the image of the TLC  
300 analyses ([Supplementary Fig. S3](#)). The results from qPCR showed no correlation between the gene  
301 expression levels and the TAG accumulation levels ([Supplementary Fig. S4](#)). Fatty acid  
302 compositions were also significantly different between the two groups. For example, the level of  
303 palmitic acid (16:0) was higher and that of palmitoleic acid (16:1<sup>Δ9</sup>) was lower in the ‘High’ group  
304 than the ‘Low’ group ([Fig. 2B](#)). In yeast culture cells that accumulated a significant amount of TAG,  
305 the TAG constituted a high proportion of the total lipids. Differences in the levels of stearic acid  
306 (18:0) were a little higher in the ‘High’ group than in the ‘Low’ group. These differences suggested  
307 that the increased TAG in the ‘High’ group had a different fatty acid composition compared to the  
308 total fatty acids of VC, which is expected to consist mainly of polar lipids. Because no fatty acid or  
309 lipid was supplemented in the induction cultures, the introduction of the ‘High’ group’s *DGAT1*  
310 might have altered the distribution of fatty acids in yeast cells.

311 As we mentioned in the Introduction, our previous microsome assay using an expression system  
312 in wild-type yeast (INVSc1, Invitrogen) showed that GmDGAT1A exhibiting twice the activity of  
313 the controls and VgDGAT1A showed a 6-fold activity over GmDGAT1A, but AtDGAT1 did not  
314 show a significant difference compared with the vector control ([Hatanaka et al., 2016](#)). In the current  
315 study, the quadruple knockout strain H1246 was used because the accumulated TAGs can be clearly  
316 observed ([Sandager et al., 2002](#)). In addition, the results showed the yeast contained only four kinds  
317 of fatty acids (16:0, 16:1<sup>Δ9</sup>, 18:0, and 18:1<sup>Δ9</sup>). However, Brassicaceae plants may prefer to use very-  
318 long-chain fatty acids, such as 20:1<sup>Δ11</sup> or 22:1<sup>Δ13</sup> ([Furmanek et al., 2014](#); [McGinn et al., 2019](#); [Xu et al., 2008](#)).  
319 The wild-type soybean seeds accumulate 18:2<sup>Δ9,12</sup> as major fatty acid ([Hatanaka et al., 2016](#);  
320 [Li et al., 2013a](#); [Li et al., 2012](#)). The acyl-CoA and DAG pools in yeasts may be one of the  
321 reasons that AtDGAT1 and GmDGAT1A are in the ‘Low’ group.

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323 Three amino acid residues in the conserved region differed between the ‘High’ and ‘Low’ groups

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325 In order to find the difference in protein levels between the ‘High’ and ‘Low’ group, we thoroughly  
326 studied their amino acid sequences. [Figure 3](#) shows the amino acid sequence alignment of the  
327 conserved region of the DGAT1s tested in the yeast expression culture and rapeseed (*B. napus*)  
328 BnaDGAT1. The sequence of BnaDGAT1 is close to AtDGAT1 because they both belong to the

Brassicaceae family. BnaDGAT1 is well studied (Chen *et al.*, 2017), so it was added as a reference. The upper four DGAT1s shown in red letters were in the ‘High’ group. A comparison between the upper four and the lower four DGAT1s showed that three amino acid sites were different at (1), (2), and (3) in Fig. 3. In VgDGAT1A of the ‘High’ group, leucine (L) was at site 174, valine (V) at 230, and valine (V) at 288, whereas phenylalanine (F) was at site 149, phenylalanine (F) at 205, and alanine (A) 263 in GmDGAT1A of the ‘Low’ group. Corresponding sites of the other proteins are listed in Supplementary Table S4. Jatropha and castor bean both belong to the Euphorbiaceae family, and their full-length sequences are close (78.82% identity), but the three amino acid residues (1), (2), and (3) are different. Thus, these amino acids may cause the differences seen in TAG accumulation with the different DGAT1s. These three amino acids have not been referred to in previous reports of improving DGAT1s by amino acid substitution in GmDGAT1B (Roesler *et al.*, 2016) and BnaDGAT1 (Chen *et al.*, 2017).

In other oil crop DGAT1s, tung tree (*V. fordii*) DGAT1 (VfDGAT1) has the same three amino acid residues as the ‘High’ group, oil palm (*Elaeis guineensis*) DGAT1 (EgDGAT1) has leucine (L) at site 171, isoleucine (I) at site 227, and valine (V) at site 277; olive (*Olea europaea*) DGAT1 (OeDGAT1) has leucine (L) at site 183, valine (V) at site 238, and alanine (A) at site 297; and linseed (*Linum usitatissimum*) DGAT1 (OeDGAT1) has phenylalanine (F) at site 157, phenylalanine (F) at site 213, and valine (V) at site 271 (Supplementary Table S4). DGAT1s of olive and linseed may show medial characteristics between the ‘High’ group and the ‘Low’ group.

Black and blue lines in Fig. 3 indicate predicted trans-membrane helices (TMs) by Phobius. Most DGAT1s have nine TM helices (black lines), however DGAT1s of the Brassicaceae family have 10 TM helices (blue lines). The amino acid residue (1) is in the second TM helix (TM2), the residue (2) is in the fourth TM helix (TM4), and the residue (3) is in the cytosolic long loop (CL1) between TM4 and TM5 (Fig. 4A), however, a region around the residue (3) is within the fifth TM helix in Brassicaceae DGAT1s (Fig. 3).

#### A single amino acid substitution in GmDGAT1A increased TAG production

To analyze further the effect of amino acid residue substitutions of the DGAT1s of the ‘Low’ group on storage lipid biosynthesis, site saturation mutagenesis was performed at sites F149L, F205V, A263V, and their combinations in GmDGAT1A (Fig. 4B). All GmDGAT1A variants introduced into yeast H1246 lines accumulated higher TAG contents than the native GmDGAT1A line. In particular, F149L and A263V had a 4.95-fold higher TAG in F149L, and 3.99-fold higher TAG in A263V (Fig. 5, Supplementary Fig. S5). Interestingly, the substituted amino acid residues were all hydrophobic even at the third site (A263V), which is predicted to locate on CL1. In Brassicaceae DGAT1, this position is predicted to be within the TM domain. It may be possible that this site and adjacent amino acid residues are peripheral on or partially within the membrane. According to the study of human DGAT1 structure (Wang *et al.*, 2020), a short part of CL1 (IL1 in their report) was predicted to be in

a membrane to form the MBOAT fold (for more detail, see ‘*Bioinformatics of DGAT1 protein*’ below).

Chen *et al.* (2017) reported that the replacement of I447 of BnaDGAT1 with A, C, F, L, T, or V resulted in substantially higher neutral lipid content, whereas the replacement of I447 with D, E, N, R, K or Y resulted in a lower neutral lipid content. Because I, A, C, F, L, and V are hydrophobic amino acid residues, polar amino acids such as D, E, N, R and K are inappropriate to exist within membranes. All DGAT1s tested in this study had ‘I’ at the corresponding site 447 of BnaDGAT1 (Supplementary Table S5). Chen *et al.* (2017) also mentioned that L441P increased the neutral lipid content. Among the DGAT1s from seven species in this study, GmDGAT1A, AtDGAT1, RcDGAT1 (the ‘Low’ group), and JcDGAT1 had ‘L’, whereas VgDGAT1A, HanDGAT1, and SiDGAT1 (the ‘High’ group) had ‘F’ at site 441 of BnaDGAT1. L, I, F, and P are all hydrophobic; however, ‘F’ is an aromatic amino acid, which means it has a bulky benzene ring, but ‘L’ and ‘I’ do not (Fig. 4A). This may affect the peptide structure and F146L in GmDGAT1A in this study and I447P in BnaDGAT1 (Chen *et al.*, 2017) increased TAG accumulation likely due to the structural alteration. In their study (2017), the majority of BnaDGAT1 variants with single amino acid residue substitutions that resulted in higher TAG accumulation were either within or close to a TM domain. Exceptions were C286Y on the loop between the TM5 and TM6, G332A on the loop between the TM6 and the TM7, and Y386F on the loop between the TM7 and TM8. Looking at other DGAT1s, corresponding residues of these three amino acids are commonly on the loop region. However, the corresponding amino acid residue of G332A of BnaDGAT1 was originally ‘A’ in our tested seven DGAT1s. It is unlikely that hydrophobic amino acid residues work efficiently outside the membranes for DGAT1 activity.

In contrast, the double mutations (F149L/F205V, F205V/A263V, F149L/A263V) and the triple mutation (F149L/F205V/A263V) of GmDGAT1A were less effective in increasing TAG content than the single mutations (F149L or A263V) (Fig. 5). However, the GmDGAT1b-MOD reported by Roesler *et al.* (2016) had 13 amino acid substitutions. Chen *et al.* (2017) also reported a single mutation, I447F, which resulted in a higher TAG content than some multiple site mutations of BnaDGAT1 including 2–7 mutations. Given these results and reports, it may be possible that only one amino acid substitution will improve the DGAT ability if it locates at an effective position.

The fatty acid compositions of variants also changed. In particularly, the ratio of palmitoleic acid (16:1<sup>Δ9</sup>) was significantly decreased and that of other fatty acids increased compared with the native GmDGAT1A (Fig 6A, B). This tendency was observed in DGAT1s of the ‘High’ group (Fig. 2B). DGAT1s from several species have some differential substrate preferences. However, in general, DGAT1s do not have strong substrate specificities compared with DGAT2s (Demski *et al.*, 2019; Jeppson *et al.*, 2019; Lager *et al.*, 2020; McKeon and He, 2015; Pan, 2013; Shockey *et al.*, 2019; Xu *et al.*, 2014; Xu *et al.*, 2018b; Yu *et al.*, 2008; Yu *et al.*, 2006; Zhou *et al.*, 2013). Higher DGAT expression has been generally found to increase the relative 18:1<sup>Δ9</sup> and 16:0 contents of the

correspondingly increased TAG apparently reducing further modification of 18:1<sup>Δ9</sup> and 16:0 in the acyl-CoA and DAG pools (Chen *et al.*, 2017; Hatanaka *et al.*, 2016; Roesler *et al.*, 2016).

## Bioinformatics of DGAT1 proteins

I-TASSER (Yang and Zhang, 2015; Zhang *et al.*, 2017) is a protein structure prediction and structure-based function annotation web-based server that was ranked on December 2020 as the No. 1 protein structure prediction server in the 14<sup>th</sup> CASP experiment ([https://www.predictioncenter.org/casp14/zscores\\_final.cgi?gr\\_type=server\\_only](https://www.predictioncenter.org/casp14/zscores_final.cgi?gr_type=server_only)). I-TASSER simulations generate decoys, which are a large ensemble of structural conformations. Then, I-TASSER uses the SPICKER program to cluster all the decoys based on the pair-wise structure similarity, and reports up to five models that corresponds to the five largest structure clusters. The confidence of each model is quantitatively measured by a C-score (range of [-5, 2]) that is calculated based on the significance of threading template alignments and the convergence parameters of the structure assembly simulations. I-TASSER matches the best confidence model with all structures in the Protein Data Bank (PDB) library by the TM-align structural alignment program and scores them with TM-score. The best match model for VgDGAT1A, GmDGAT1A, and GmDGAT1A-F149L was human DGAT1 (Wang *et al.*, 2020). The TM-scores for VgDGAT1A, GmDGAT1A, and GmDGAT1A-F149L were 0.762, 0.799, and 0.801, respectively. Given these high scores, VgDGAT1A, GmDGAT1A, and GmDGAT1A-F149L proteins in this study have a very similar structure to the human DGAT1 protein. Additionally, the web-based tool can predicted the function of the I-TASSER structure of the target protein through the COACH and COFACTOR programs. The COFACTOR deduces protein functions (Ligand-binding sites, Enzyme Commission numbers and active sites, and Gene Ontology terms) using structure comparison and protein-protein networks and COACH is a meta-server approach that combines multiple function annotation results (on ligand-binding sites) from the COFACTOR, TM-SITE, and S-SITE programs. According to the prediction, the best ligand binding sites for VgDGAT1A was Mn<sup>2+</sup> (with 1twaA PBD hit and confidence score: 0.09) at ligand binding site residues 277 and 281s (Fig. 7). The best ligand-binding sites for GmDGAT1A were nucleic acids (with 4 × 6aA PBD hit and confidence score: 0.08) at the 372, 375, 377, 380, and 382 ligand binding site residues (Fig. 8A). Also, the best ligand-binding sites for GmDGAT1A-F149L was HEGA-10 (with 2y04B PBD hit and confidence score: 0.06) at the 220 and 221 ligand-binding site residues (Fig. 8B). HEGA-10 is a detergent used for solubilizing protein that has biomolecular interactions with voltage-gated sodium channels (McCusker *et al.*, 2012). Interestingly, the predicted models for all were the same but the ligand-binding sites were absolutely different (Figs. 7 and 8). This difference occurred by single site-directed mutagenesis of F149L for GmDGAT1A. These results are supported by the results of our yeast experiment. Thus, substituting this amino acid has a great role in changing protein function and might lead to the production of more TAG.



DGAT1 belongs to the MBOAT superfamily, which is found in all kingdoms of life. DGAT1 from plants and mammals was previously shown to form a dimer (Caldo *et al.*, 2017; McFie *et al.*, 2010). This dimerization was confirmed by the recent cryo-electron microscopy (cryo-EM) studies of human DAGT1 (Sui *et al.*, 2020; Wang *et al.*, 2020). Each protomer of human DGAT1 has nine trans-membrane (TM) helices, TM1–TM9, with N- and C-termini located on the cytosolic and luminal sides of the ER membrane, respectively. Short helices in the cytosolic loop (CL) and luminal loop (LL) regions orient in parallel to the membrane surface (Wang, *et al.* 2020). This structure is very similar to the topology models of VgDGAT1A and GmDGAT1A (Fig. 4). Crossover of helix TM1 allows the N-terminal CL1 of one protomer to interact with both CL1 and CL2 of the another protomer (Sui *et al.*, 2020). TM2–TM9 and the two CLs, CL2 and CL3 form a distinctive structural fold that called the MBOAT fold (Wang *et al.*, 2020) (Fig. 9). The MBOAT fold of DGAT1 carves out a large hollow chamber within the membrane that is open to the bilayer via a wide lateral gate, and this region is considered as the DGAT1 active site (Sui *et al.*, 2020; Wang *et al.*, 2020). The three amino acid residues in this study face to this reaction chamber (Fig. 9). Of all DGAT1s, the three-dimensional structure of Human DGAT1 is the most investigated using cryo-EM (Sui *et al.*, 2020; Wang *et al.*, 2020). However, their acyl-CoA binding site, DAG binding site, and catalytically active sites are still speculative. Our results reported here can be more completely interpreted when additional discoveries are reported.

In conclusion, our results showed that three amino acids, L174, V230, and V288 in VgDGAT1A; 154L, 210V, and 268V in HanDGAT1; 194L, 250V, and 308V in SiDGAT1; and 154L, 226V and 284V in JcDGAT1, could be key factors of the DGAT1 ‘High’ group’s TAG accumulation (Supplementary Table S4). Also, given the examples of BnaDGAT1 variants (Chen *et al.*, 2017), our results show that a single base change resulting on one single amino acid substitution can be effective in increasing the activities of low performance DGAT1s. As we showed in the primer sequences for site-directed mutagenesis (Supplementary Table S2-2), a single base substitution can increase the TAG accumulation of DGAT1s. This technique can easily be applied to a genome-editing method.

## Supplementary data

The following supplementary data are available at [JXB online](#).

Table S1. GenBank numbers of genes mentioned in this study.

Table S2. Primer sequences used in the current study.

Table S3. Quantitative gene expression analysis in transgenic Arabidopsis siliques.

Table S4. Corresponding amino acid residue sites, which are numbered on Fig. 3 for various plant DGAT1.

Table S5. Corresponding amino acid residue sites that were tested in BnaDGAT1 (data from [Chen et al. 2017](#)).

Fig. S1. T2 seed oil contents of individual transgenic lines and the wild-type (WT).

Fig. S2. An example of TLC development of total lipid extracts from transgenic yeast lines (H1246).

Fig. S3. Reverse transcription-PCR of transgenic yeast lines (H1246).

Fig. S4. An example of TLC development of total lipid extracts from transgenic yeast lines (H1246) expressing *GmDGAT1A* variants.

Fig. S5. Quantitative DGAT1 gene expression analysis in transgenic yeast strain H1246.

Fig. S6. A deduced topology model of DGAT1.

Appendix S1. Codon usage biases of DGATs among plants, yeast, and algae.

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## Author contributions

TH designed and performed most of the experiments, analyzed the data, and prepared the initial draft of the manuscript; YT performed Arabidopsis transformation and obtained all transgenic lines in this study; DM supervised yeast experiments; HF helped vector constructions and other molecular techniques; DS and TA contributed to valuable discussions during this study; MS worked on bioinformatics; DH supervised this whole study and English editing of the manuscript. All authors contributed to the preparation of the final article.

## Conflicts of interest

The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest with the content of this article.

## Data availability

All relevant data can be found within the manuscript and its supplementary data.



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## Figure legends

**Fig. 1.** Wild-type (WT) and T3 seed oil contents (A) and the major fatty acid compositions (B) of exogenous *DGAT1* gene expressing Arabidopsis lines.

Two individual lines of each *DGAT1*-introduced plants were grown and the mature T3 seeds were harvested. WT, wild-type; AtD-OE-4 and AtD-OE-6, *AtDGAT1* over-expression lines; RcD-4 and RcD-10, *RcDGAT1* expressing lines; GmD-1 and GmD-3, *GmDGAT1A* expressing lines; VgD-10 and VgD-12, *VgDGAT1A* expressing lines, respectively. Values indicate the mean  $\pm$  SD ( $n = 3 \sim 5$ ). (A) Wild-type (WT) and T3 seed oil contents. *Different letters* indicate a significant difference ( $p < 0.05$ ) between transgenic lines based on Tukey's HSD test. (B) Major fatty acid compositions of T3 seed oil contents of WT and exogenous *DGAT1*-expressing Arabidopsis lines. 16:0, palmitic acid; 18:0, stearic acid; 18:1, oleic acid; 18:2, linoleic acid; 18:3,  $\alpha$ -linolenic acid; 20:1, eicosenoic acid. Others include palmitoleic acid (16:1<sup>A9</sup>), arachidic acid (20:0), eicosadienoic acid (20:2<sup>A11,14</sup>), Eicosatrienoic acid (20:3<sup>A11,14,17</sup>), behenic acid (22:0), erucic acid (22:1<sup>A13</sup>), lignoceric acid (24:0), and nervonic acid (24:1<sup>A15</sup>) those contents were less than 1.8%.

**Fig. 2.** Oil content and fatty acid composition of yeast (H1246) transgenic lines measured by GC. (A) Total lipid (blue column) and TAG (red column) contents. (B) Fatty acid compositions in total lipid. 16:0, palmitic acid; 16:1, palmitoleic acid; 18:0, stearic acid; 18:1, oleic acid. VC, empty vector control; At, *AtDGAT1*; Rc, *RcDGAT1*; Gm, *GmDGAT1A*; Vg, *VgDGAT1A*; Ha, *HanDGAT1*; Jc, *JcDGAT1*; Si, *SiDGAT1* expressing lines, respectively. Values represent the means  $\pm$  S.E. of 5~13 replications. There were significant differences between the "Low" group and the "High" group in both total lipid and in TAG based on Tukey's HSD test ( $p < 0.05$ ).

**Fig. 3.** Amino acid sequence alignment of VgDGAT1A, HanDGAT1, SiDGAT1, JcDGAT1, RcDGAT1, AtDGAT1, GmDGAT1A and BnaDGAT1.

Red arrows indicate the different amino acid residues between the upper four (the "High" group) and the lower four. Black lines show trans-membrane domains of upper six DGAT1s and blue lines show trans-membrane domains of lower two DGAT1s of Brassicaceae family. Trans-membrane domains were predicted by Phobius.

**Fig. 4.** The predicted topology models of VgDGAT1A (A) and (B) GmDGAT1A created by Protter (Omasits *et al.*, 2014).

The trans-membrane domains were predicted by Phobius. TM, trans-membrane domain; CL, cytosolic loop; LL, ER luminal loop. Residues in color indicate that Red, residues for substitution; Pink, putative active site; Green, dimer forming interface; Blue, putative acyl-CoA binding site; Purple, putative DAG binding site. Yellow circles indicate amino acid residues tested in

BnaDGAT1 (Chen *et al.*, 2017). Putative functional sites are according to several reports (Chen *et al.*, 2017; Sui *et al.*, 2020; Wang *et al.*, 2020). (A) VgDGAT1A. Red numbers and arrows are predicted key amino acid residues in this study. (B) GmDGAT1A. Site-directed amino acid substitutions are shown in red letters.

**Fig. 5.** Total lipid (blue column) and TAG (red column) contents of yeast H1246 strains hosting *GmDGAT1A* variants generated by site-directed mutagenesis.

VC, empty vector control; Gm, native GmDGAT1A, and GmDGAT1A variants, F149L, F205V, A263V, F149L/F205V, F205V/A263V, F149L/A263V; Triple means F149L/F205V/A263V. Oil contents of the yeast (H1246) cells were analyzed by GC-FID. *Different letters* indicate a significant difference ( $p < 0.05$ ) between variant lines based on Tukey's HSD test ( $n = 5$ ).

**Fig. 6.** Fatty acid composition in total lipid (A) and TAG fraction (B) of yeast H1246 strains hosting *GmDGAT1A* variants generated by site-directed mutagenesis.

VC, empty vector control; Gm, native GmDGAT1A; GmDGAT1A variants are same as in Fig. 5. Fatty acids of the yeast cells were analyzed by GC-FID. *Different letters* indicate a significant difference ( $p < 0.05$ ) between variant lines based on Tukey's HSD test ( $n = 5$ ).

**Fig. 7.** Two view pictures of ligand binding site residues for VgDGAT1A.

Atomic view (A) and ribbon view (B) with manganese (2+) ligand binding site at 277 and 281 residues (red arrows).

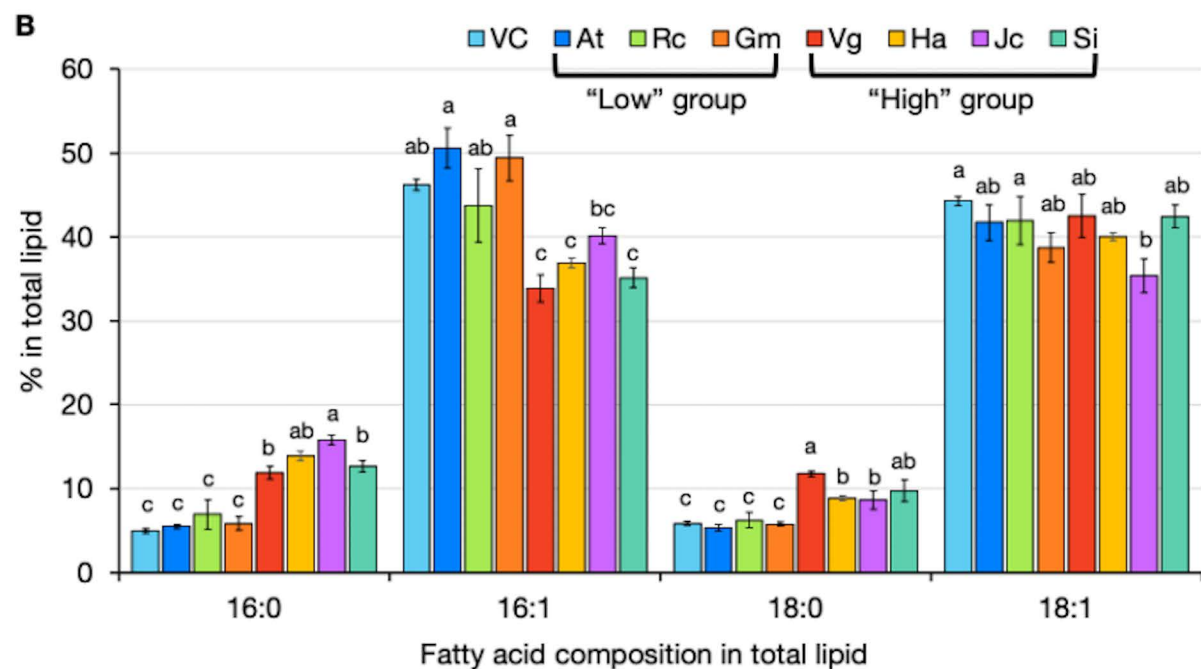
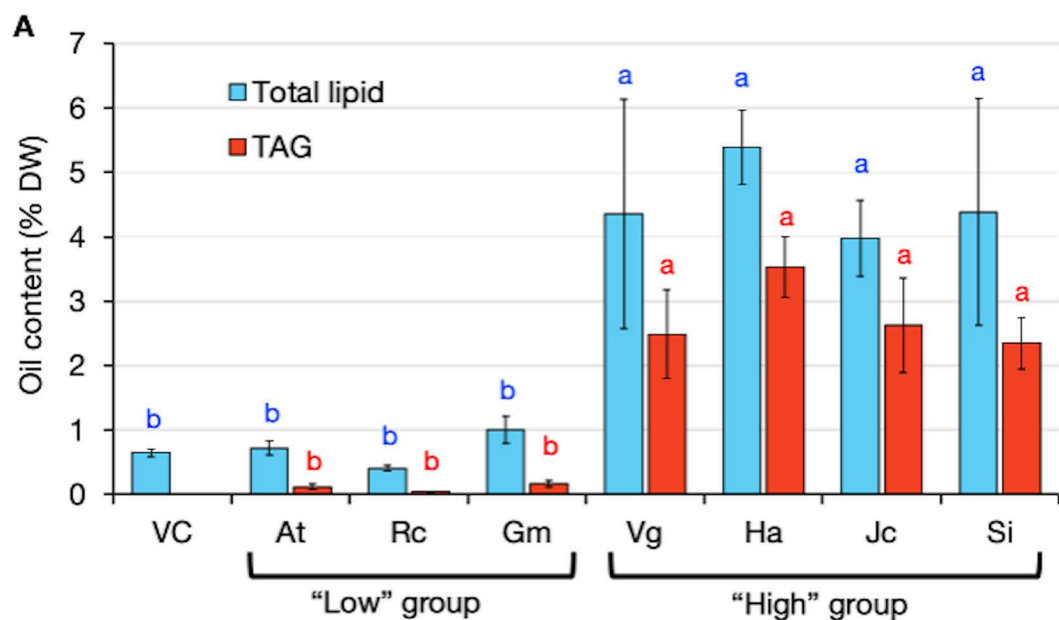
**Fig. 8.** Two view pictures of ligand binding site residues for GmDGAT1A (A) and GmDGAT1A-F149L (B).

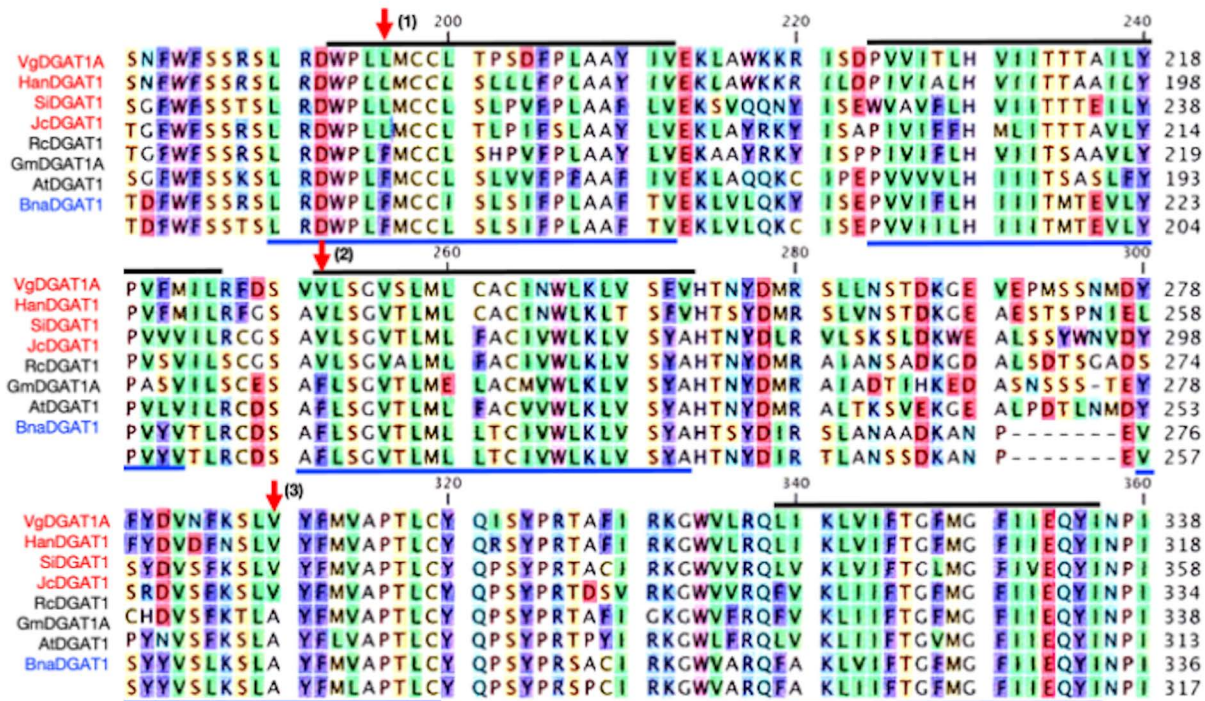
A. Top, Atomic view; bottom, ribbon view of GmDGAT1A with nucleic acid ligand binding site at 372, 375, 377, 380 and 382 residues. B. Top, Atomic view; bottom, ribbon view of GmDGAT1A-F149L with HEGA-10 ligand binding site at 220 and 221 residues (red arrows).

**Fig. 9.** Three-dimensional structures of VgDGAT1A, GmDGAT1A, and GmDGAT1A-F149L.

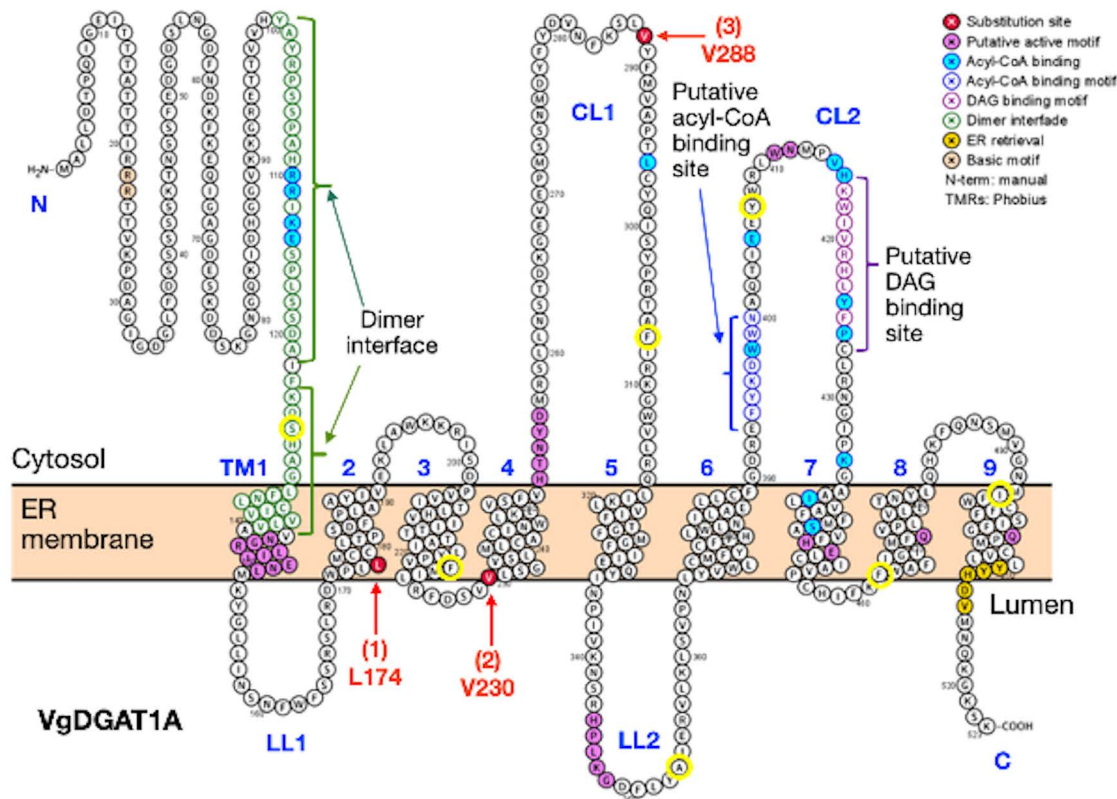
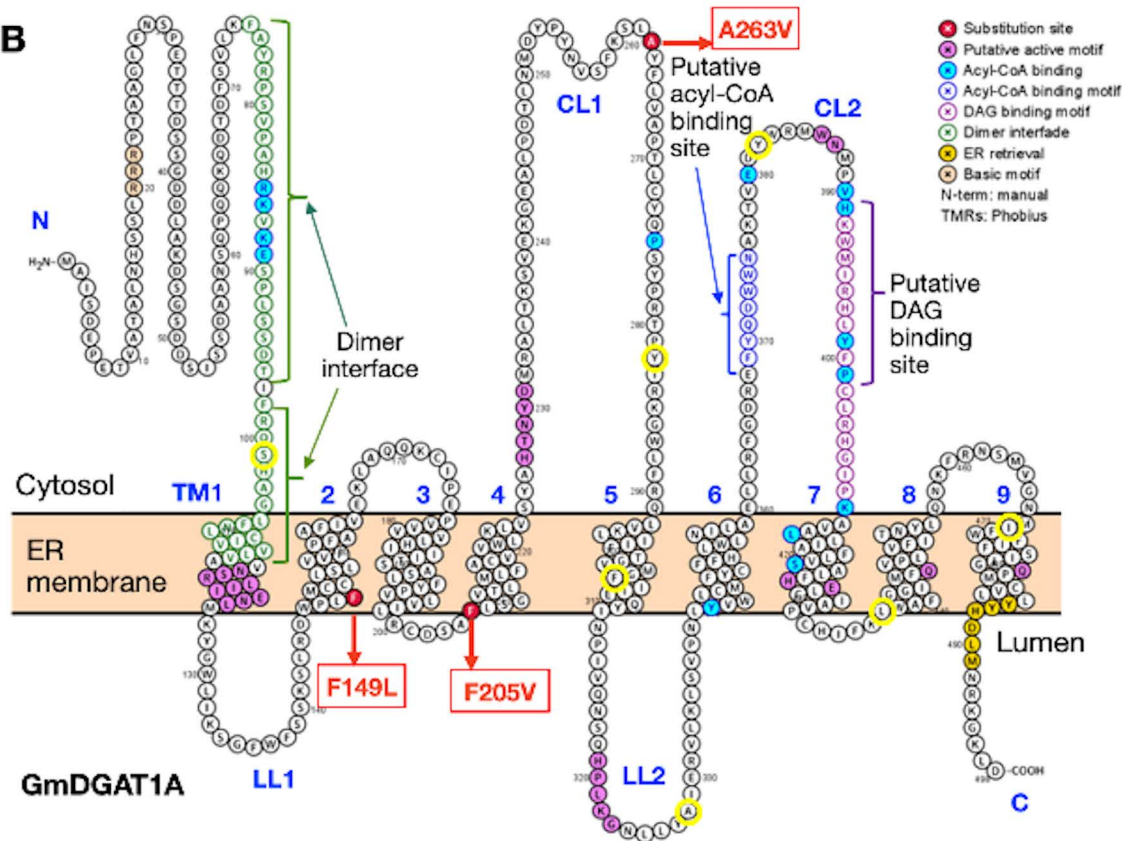
Cartoons represent each DGAT1 protomer in two orientations. The MBOAT fold is marked with a red dashed circle.

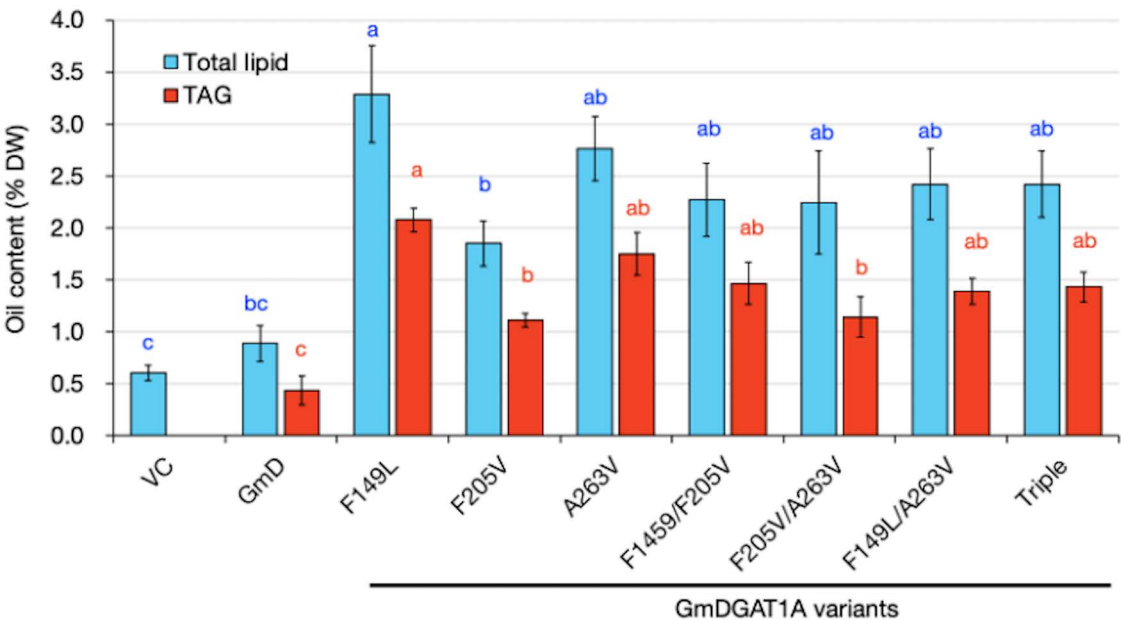




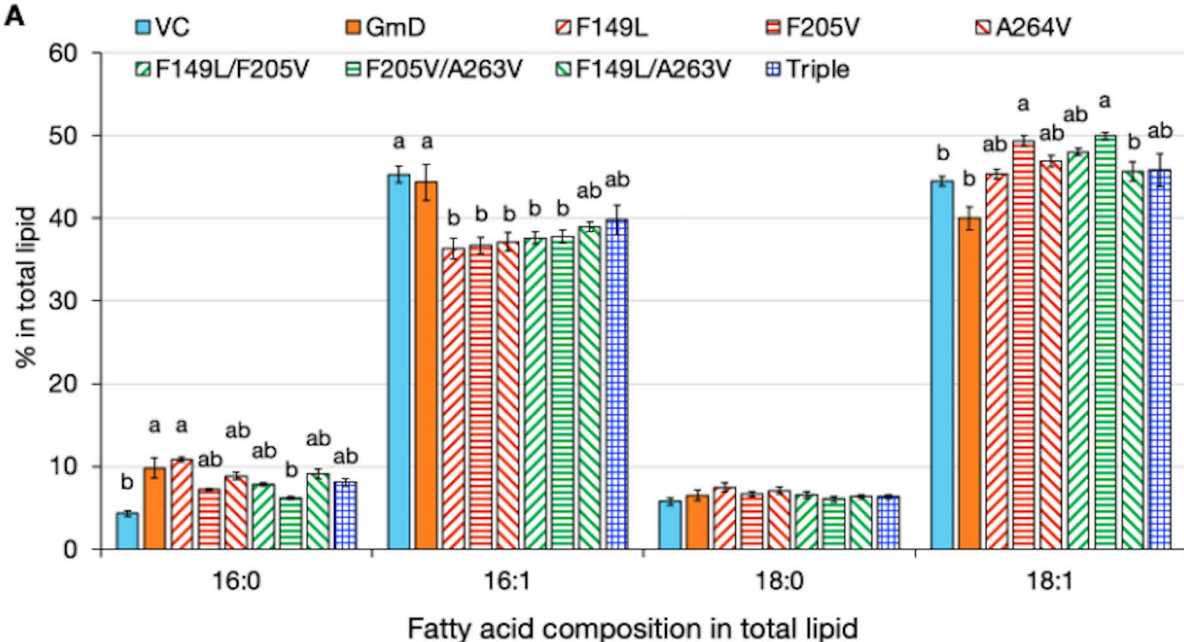
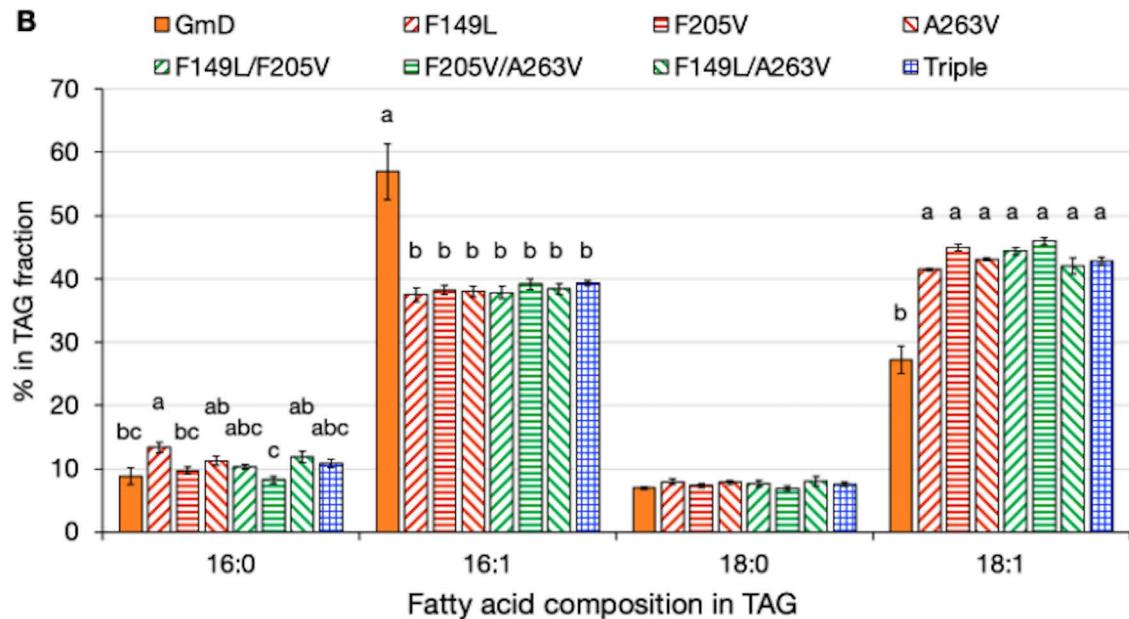




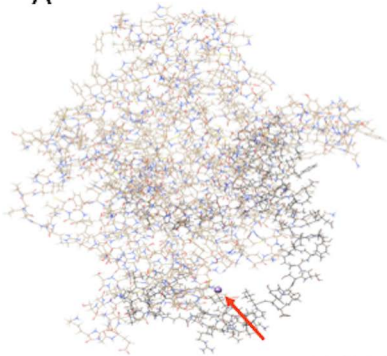
**A****B**





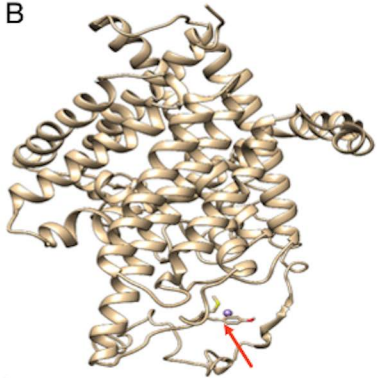
**A****B**

A

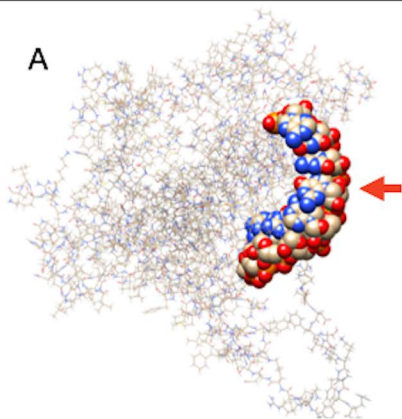


VgDGAT1A

B

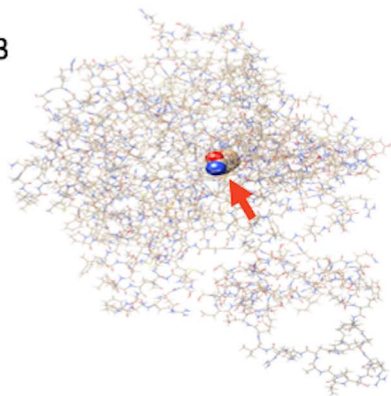


A



GmDGAT1A

B



GmDGAT1A-F149L

