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# Triacylglycerol Metabolism, Function and Accumulation in Plant Vegetative Tissues

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## Abstract

Oils in the form of triacylglycerols are the most abundant energy-dense storage compounds in eukaryotes and their metabolism plays a key role in cellular energy balance, lipid homeostasis, growth and maintenance. Plants accumulate oils primarily in seeds and fruits. Plant oils are used for food and feed, and increasingly as feedstocks for biodiesel and industrial chemicals. While plant vegetative tissues do not accumulate significant levels of triacylglycerols, they possess a high capacity for their synthesis, storage and metabolism. The development of plant vegetative oil accumulation presents an opportunity to create novel renewable platforms for expanded production of triacylglycerols as a renewable and sustainable bioenergy source. Here, we review recent progress in the understanding of triacylglycerol synthesis, turnover, storage and function in leaves, and discuss emerging genetic engineering strategies targeted at enhancing triacylglycerol accumulation in biomass crops. Such a platform could potentially be modified to produce desired oleochemical feedstocks or nutraceuticals.

**Abbreviations:** FA, fatty acid; TAG, triacylglycerol; DW, dry weight; WRI, WIRNKLED; ACCase, acetyl-CoA carboxylase; BCCP, biotin carboxyl carrier protein; BC, biotin carboxylase; MCT, medium chain thioesterase; FAT, fatty acid thioesterase; TGD1, trigalactosyldiacylglycerol1; DAG, diacylglycerol; PA, phosphatidic acid; PC, phosphatidylcholine; DGAT, diacylglycerol:acyl-CoA acyltransferase; PDAT, phospholipid:diacylglycerol acyltransferase; LD, lipid droplet; SDP, sugar-dependent; PXA, peroxisomal ATP binding cassette transporter; LPCAT, acyl-CoA:lysophosphatidylcholine acyltransferase; LEC, leafy cotyledon.

## 1. Introduction

Fatty acid (FA) synthesis occurs in every cell of the plant. However, while vegetative organs such as stems and leaves accumulate substantial levels of membrane and surface lipids, triacylglycerols (TAG) are barely detectable; typically accumulating to <0.1% of dry weight (DW). This is because leaves evolved as source tissues highly specialized for photosynthetic carbohydrate synthesis and export for metabolism, growth, and energy storage (30). As illustrated in Figure 1, during photosynthesis, light energy is converted to chemical energy, which is used to fuel the synthesis of carbohydrates from carbon dioxide by the Calvin cycle in the stroma of chloroplasts. This results in the production of triose phosphates (TPs). These TPs can be used to synthesize starch, lipids and amino acids in the chloroplast or be exported to the cytosol by the triose phosphate transporter (TPT) for sucrose synthesis. The partitioning of newly assimilated carbon between various metabolic pools is a dynamic processes that is controlled in part by metabolic status, circadian clock and redox cascade (53; 91; 194). While sucrose represents the major long-distance transport form of photoassimilates, up to half of the carbon fixed by photosynthesis is transiently stored as starch in the chloroplast in mature leaves. This starch is hydrolyzed to sugars primarily destined for export at night (52; 59; 165); indeed, up to 80% of the carbon assimilated during photosynthesis is exported from mature leaves via phloem to satisfy the metabolic and energy storage needs of sinks (76). In seeds and fruits, sucrose is cleaved into hexoses for the synthesis of starch, storage proteins and oils. Of these, oils in the form of TAGs contain more than twice the energy density of equivalent masses of carbohydrates and proteins. TAGs serve multiple important roles in plants. They are the major reserves of FAs for energy production and the synthesis of carbohydrates during seed germination and early seedling establishment (56; 169) and are essential for normal growth and development of adult plants (196). In addition, recent studies show that TAGs function as a buffer for cytotoxic FAs and other lipid intermediates, thereby playing a key role in intracellular lipid homeostasis and cell survival (43; 44).

Plant oils are important sources of food, feed and industrial feestocks for a variety of applications including the production of biodiesel, a mixture of FA esters derived from TAGs. Currently, biodiesel is produced from conventional oil crops. Oilseed-based fuel production, however, can only meet a small proportion of world transportation needs before impinging on the global food supply (38). One solution for expanding plant oil production in an environmentally sustainable way is to exploit the production of oil in vegetative biomass (30; 175). This is because: 1) Vegetative tissues of sustainable energy crops such as perennial grasses and poplar are far more abundant than seeds and fruits; therefore, producing oil in vegetative tissues, especially has the potential to yield large quantities of oil from a modest land area. For example, the high biomass yields of sugarcane of approximately 20 ton/acre, even with a modest TAG yield of 1.5% of dry mass would yield approximately 100 gal of oil/acre, which is equivalent of the average yield of an acre of canola grown in North Dakota. Based on published studies from model plants (43; 180), a yield of 15% oil by per dry weight may be achievable in crop plants using a combination

of genetic strategies. One acre of such a crop could therefore displace approximately 10 acres of canola. 2) Increasing oil content enhances the energy density and nutritional value of biomass, which is beneficial for producing electricity through burning, renewable fuels through thermochemical conversion, or nutritionally enhanced animal feed (26; 30; 38; 125; 127). 3) Producing oil in vegetative tissues may not compete with food production. Together these drivers are fueling interest in understanding the pathways and regulation of plant vegetative TAG metabolism, and the exploitation of this knowledge to engineer a new generation of oil-accumulating biomass crops.

Several reviews on metabolic engineering strategies to achieve vegetative-oil accumulation have recently been published (26; 30; 121; 175; 182). Here, we summarize current understanding of TAG synthesis, turnover, storage and function in leaves, and discuss recent advances in metabolic engineering efforts and perspectives for the development of novel bioenergy crops. Where appropriate, information from studies of sink organs i.e., seeds is compared and contrasted with studies of source tissues exemplified by leaves.

## **2. Triacylglycerol Biosynthesis**

### **2.1. Carbon flux to FAs**

Plant vegetative tissues contain 5-10% FAs on a dry weight basis; the majority of which are found in membrane lipids (126). Indeed, in a number of different studies the FA content in TAG represent less than 0.05% per dry weight in wild-type *Arabidopsis* leaves (43; 145; 162; 193). In higher plants, FAs are synthesized almost exclusively in the plastid and pyruvate is the primary precursor for FA synthesis. In oilseeds, hexoses generated by sucrose cleavage are metabolized into pyruvate for FA synthesis via the glycolysis pathway, which operates in parallel in both the cytosol and the plastid (8; 15; 16). This parallel pathway can interact through the action of highly selective transporters present in the inner envelope of plastids including the phosphoenolpyruvate (PEP)/phosphate transporter (PPT) and hexose phosphate transporter (187) (Figure 2). In Brassicaceae, such as canola (*Brassica napus*) or *Arabidopsis*, it is generally believed that the cytosolic glycolytic pathway is the major route for the metabolism of hexoses up to PEP, whereas the plastidial counterpart is largely responsible for conversion of PEP to pyruvate catalyzed by pyruvate kinase. However, disruption of PPT in the plastid envelope results in no significant changes in FA content in *Arabidopsis* seeds (99; 134), suggesting alternative routes for carbon import into plastids from the cytosol for FA synthesis at the level of hexose phosphates (77; 122). In contrast to sink tissues such as seeds and roots, the hexose phosphate transport activities are not detectable in leaf mesophyll cells (122). In addition, the glycolytic pathway in leaf chloroplasts seems to be incomplete, since the single-copy gene *ENO1*, which encodes the plastid-localized enolase responsible for the conversion of 2-phosphoglycerate into PEP via glycolysis, is not expressed in leaves (46; 134; 135). A plastid-

localized sodium-dependent pyruvate transporter (BASS2) has recently been identified and disruption of this transporter in *Arabidopsis* appears to only affect plastid-localized isopentenyl diphosphate synthesis, but not the vegetative or reproductive growth of plants (51), therefore pyruvate generated via cytosolic glycolysis is rather unlikely to be the major source of carbon for FA synthesis in plant vegetative tissues. Together, these results suggest that PEP derived from cytosolic glycolysis represents the main carbon source for FA synthesis in chloroplasts of leaf mesophyll cells.

## **2.2. Role of WRI transcription factors in the regulation of carbon flux to FAs**

Carbon metabolism in seeds is tightly regulated at the level of transcription by an array of transcription factors that coordinate storage compound accumulation, embryogenesis and seed maturation. Among them, WIRNKLED1 (WRI1) is a member of the APETALA2-ethylene-responsive element binding protein (AP2/EREBP) subfamily involved in the transcriptional regulation of carbon partitioning into FA synthesis in seeds. Mutations in WRI1 cause a severe reduction in carbon flux from sugars to pyruvate in the plastidial glycolytic pathway (47; 109) and a 80% decrease in FA content in seed TAG (17; 28; 47). It appears that inactivation of WRI1 causes severe reductions in the activity of several glycolytic enzymes, but labeling experiments implied that FA synthesis is not affected in the mutant seeds (47). Interestingly, transcriptomic analysis showed that genetic modifications of WRI1 not only affect the transcript levels of genes involved in late steps of glycolysis but also those in the plastidial FA synthesis pathway (17; 113; 143; 176). Transient overexpression of WRI1 in *N. Benthamiana* leaves resulted in the upregulation of transcripts encoding enzymes involved in plastid uptake and metabolism of phosphoenolpyruvate, fatty acid and oil biosynthesis and fatty acid degradation, whereas those related to photosynthesis and starch degradation were down-regulated (60).

Most studies on the regulation of FA synthesis focus on acetyl-CoA carboxylase (ACCase), which catalyzes a potential rate-limiting step in FA synthesis in plastids (128). Plastidial ACCase is a heteromeric protein complex consisting of four different proteins: an  $\alpha$ -subunit of carboxyltransferase ( $\alpha$ -CT), a biotin carboxyl carrier protein (BCCP), a biotin carboxylase (BC) and a  $\beta$ -subunit of carboxyltransferase ( $\beta$ -CT). During the stages of rapid seed filling and vegetative plant growth, all these four ACCase subunits are coordinately expressed to meet the increased cellular demand for FAs (80; 143) and overexpression or downregulation of single subunits often leads to deleterious consequences on plant growth and development, but has only minor effects on FA accumulation in seeds (32; 168). WRI1 overexpression or disruption appears to not affect all the subunits of the plastidial ACCase at transcript (17; 143) and protein (49) levels, raising an intriguing question as to whether changes in ACCase activity per se can explain the oil phenotypes associated with *wri1* mutants or in plants overexpressing WRI1.

Besides WRI1, the Arabidopsis genome encodes three other WRI-like genes including WRI3 and WRI4 (174). Overexpression of WRI3 and WRI4 rescues the low oil accumulation phenotype of *wri1* mutants, demonstrating the *in vivo* functionality of these two WRI-like genes in regulating carbon partitioning into FA synthesis. While WRI1 is specifically expressed in seeds, WRI3 and WRI4 appear to be more ubiquitously expressed, with the highest transcripts found in vegetative tissues and flowers. Disruption of WRI3 and/or WRI4 does not affect seed oil accumulation, but all three WRIs are required in floral tissues to provide precursors for cutin biosynthesis and to prevent the fusion of flower organs during flower development. However, triple mutants lacking all three WRIs display no obvious alteration in vegetative growth, suggesting the involvement of other unknown transcription or other factors in regulating carbon partitioning to FA synthesis in vegetative tissues (174; 176).

### 2.3 Biochemical regulation of FA synthesis

Recent work uncovered a complex network of biochemical regulation that provides a number of potential targets for biotechnological manipulation, see Figure 3. For example, ACCase activity is strongly induced in the light, a phenomenon that has been attributed to changes in plastidial redox status mediated by thioredoxins (149). Downregulation of ACCase has also been demonstrated by a proteinaceous regulator PII, the sequence of which is conserved between archaeobacteria, bacteria, and plants, although interestingly, the physiological functions of their homologs are not conserved. In plants the ATP-activated PII binds to the BCCP subunit of ACCase causing its inactivation (22). To underscore the complexity of ACCase's regulatory network, synthesis of the inhibitory PII protein is controlled by the oil-promoting transcription factor WRI1, which also induces its target BCCP. This apparent paradox has been interpreted as a PII-mediated fine-tuning mechanism (14). A regulatory circuit for ACCase was proposed by Ohlogge based on Tween-feeding experiments (158). Subsequent work demonstrated the plastidial ACCase is specifically inhibited by oleoyl-acyl carrier protein (ACP), the terminal product of the ACP track of plastidial FA biosynthesis by a rapid and reversible end-product inhibition (2). In the same work the authors described a later, irreversible phase of ACCase inhibition, implying several distinct mechanisms occur on different timescales. The long term inhibition could be mediated by posttranslational modifications; and while such inhibitory modifications have yet to be identified in plant ACCase, two regulatory phosphorylation sites were identified in the yeast ACCase which, when mutated resulted in increased ACCase activity and total FA content (154).

Expression of a medium chain-acyl carrier protein thioesterase (MCT) in *Brassica napus* resulted in the accumulation of lauric acids in TAG along with increases in both FA synthesis and  $\beta$ -oxidation (42). The levels of several FA biosynthetic enzymes increased and the levels of long

chain acyl-ACPs declined. It is likely that a combination of decreased oleoyl-ACP and increases in the amount of several biosynthetic enzymes contributed to the increase in FA synthesis. Interestingly, coexpression of the four ACCase subunits in cyanobacteria in combination with overexpression of an MCT resulted in efficient chain termination of medium chain FAs, and their secretion into the media was stimulated by separate changes that weakened the cell wall (106). This strategy essentially phenocopied that of the *Brassica* MCT overexpression in which FA synthesis was upregulated upon chain termination/export from the plastid (42). In theory, overexpressing FATA or FATB, i.e., the oleoyl-ACP or palmitoyl-/oleoyl-ACP thioesterases (183), respectively, could stimulate ACCase via reducing oleoyl-ACP inhibition, though combining such overexpression with disruptions of acyl-ACP synthases (AAE15/16) (92) has been shown to partially prevent the re-esterification of FAs to ACP (172). Disrupting major isoforms of the stearoyl-ACP desaturase (SAD) such as SSI2 (75) represents another potential approach to reducing oleoyl-ACP levels while increasing those of stearoyl-ACP. However, as of yet, none of these approaches has been reported to increase oil accumulation in seeds.

Mutations in trigalactosyldiacylglycerol1 (TGD1), a component of the ABC transporter responsible for the reimport of phospholipids into the plastid results in decreased lipid availability for photosynthetic membrane synthesis (191). It was recently shown that relative to WT, *tgd1* exhibits a 3.8-fold increase in FA biosynthesis (44). Alternatively, stimulating FA export by overexpression of a recently-identified FA export protein 1 (FAX1) resulted in a decrease in the levels of plastid lipids and increased TAG accumulation in leaves and flowers (100). Together these data show that decreasing plastid FA levels either by increasing their export or decreasing their reimport stimulates FA synthesis.

#### **2.4. Regulation of FA partitioning between TAG and membrane lipids**

In photosynthetic tissues of most plants, the end products of FA synthesis have two metabolic fates. They can be used directly in the plastid for the sequential acylation of glycerol-3-phosphate (G3P) catalyzed by plastidial acyltransferases, leading to the generation of phosphatidic acid (PA). Dephosphorylation of PA by PA phosphohydrolase (PAH) gives rise to diacylglycerol (DAG). Alternatively, FAs are exported from the plastid and first incorporated into phosphatidylcholine (PC) through a very active deacylation/ reacylation cycle (12), with acyl-CoA:lysophosphatidylcholine acyltransferases (LPCATs) playing a central role (94). Acyl groups released from PC acyl editing rather than nascent FAs directly exported from the plastid are used for the synthesis of PA and DAG by G-3-P acylation and PA dephosphorylation reactions, respectively in the ER. DAG is the common precursor of TAG and membrane lipids. However, in leaves, the majority of DAG assembled from de-novo synthesized FAs is used for membrane lipid synthesis to support cell growth, proliferation and membrane maintenance (9).



In addition to serving as central intermediates in lipid metabolism, both PA and DAG play important roles in lipid signaling. While the signaling function of DAG appears to be largely limited to higher eukaryotes (27), PA is a universal signaling molecule implicated in a wide variety of cellular processes including lipid metabolism, vesicular trafficking and membrane biogenesis (108). In eukaryotes, key players involved in the control of PA and DAG levels are the lipin family of  $Mg^{2+}$ -dependent PAHs. In yeast, DAG pools generated by the lipin orthologue *pah1p*, are the major source of DAG for TAG synthesis and inactivation of *pah1p* causes a dramatic reduction in TAG synthesis and storage (1; 65) and an increase in accumulation of fatty acids, phospholipids and sterol esters (64; 65; 147). Similarly, disruption of the single lipin orthologue in *Drosophila melanogaster* (177) or inactivation of lipin-1 in mice (116) or lipin-2 in human cells (178) leads to defects in TAG storage. Arabidopsis contains two lipin homolog proteins called PAH1 and PAH2 (119). Disruption of both genes leads to increased FA and phospholipid synthesis, massive proliferation of endoplasmic reticulum (ER) membranes (33; 41) and decreased TAG accumulation in leaves (43), suggesting a conserved role for lipins in triacylglycerol synthesis for yeast, mammals and plant vegetative tissues.

Members of the lipin family are bifunctional intracellular proteins, acting as transcriptional regulators in controlling the expression of genes involved in membrane and storage lipid metabolism, in addition to catalyzing the dephosphorylation of PA (66; 69; 132). However, the up-regulation of phospholipid synthesis gene expression in yeast mutant cells lacking *pah1p* is due to the accumulation of the *pah1p* substrate PA (64). The transcriptional regulatory functions of mammalian lipins are also mediated by PA (39; 116; 197). Similarly, increased phospholipid synthesis in Arabidopsis mutants disrupted in PAH1 and PAH2 is due to the biochemical activation of the key enzyme in the PC biosynthetic pathway by PA accumulation rather than to the increased expression of genes associated with phospholipid synthesis (33). Thus, a picture is rapidly emerging that PA plays a central signaling role in regulating lipid metabolism and that lipin family proteins are key determinants of levels of a PA pool that impacts FA partitioning between membrane lipid and TAG synthesis.

## **2.5. Relative contributions of acyl-CoA-dependent and -independent pathways to TAG synthesis**

The esterification of DAG to TAG represents the last and the only committed step in de novo TAG synthesis. In plants, although plastids also contain TAG and harbor TAG synthetic activities, ER is the major site of TAG assembly and DAG originating from ER is the predominant precursor for TAG synthesis. In support of the ER-localization of TAG biosynthesis, key enzymes involved in DAG synthesis and the final step of TAG synthesis are also associated with the ER network (13; 31). In contrast to most seeds, where PC is the major donor of DAG for TAG synthesis (13), PA dephosphorylation catalyzed by the Arabidopsis lipins appears to be the major source of DAG for TAG synthesis in leaves (43) (Figure 4). In yeast,

plants and algae, DAG esterification to TAG can proceed via both acyl-CoA-dependent and -independent mechanisms (13; 31). The acyl-CoA-dependent TAG synthesis is catalyzed by diacylglycerol:acyl-CoA acyltransferases (DGATs) using acyl-CoA and DAG as substrates to form TAG. In plants, at least three types of DGATs, namely two membrane-bound enzymes, DGAT1 and DGAT2 and a cytosolic enzyme, DGAT3 are functionally characterized. The acyl-CoA-independent reaction is catalyzed by phospholipid:diacylglycerol acyltransferase (PDAT), which use phospholipids as acyl donor and DAG as acyl acceptor to produce TAG and lysophospholipids. The Arabidopsis genome contains two close homologs to the yeast PDAT gene, but only PDAT1 activity has been confirmed by overexpression of the PDAT1 in Arabidopsis seedlings (34; 164). All three DGATs and PDAT1 appear to be ubiquitously expressed in both vegetative and reproductive tissues of Arabidopsis (70; 101; 110). While the *DGAT1* transcript level is at least 4- and 10-fold higher in mature siliques and in senescing leaves, respectively, than in young leaves, the expression levels of PDAT1, DGAT2 and DGAT3 exhibit only small variations in different tissues and across various stages of leaf development (70). Among the four genes encoding TAG assembly enzymes, the transcript level of DGAT3 is consistently higher than that of the other three genes except in senescing leaves, where DGAT1 is more strongly expressed than DGAT3. Interestingly, the transcript of PDAT1 is present at higher levels than that of DGAT1 in growing and mature leaves, whereas the opposite is true in senescing leaves (45; 70).

Recent biochemical and genetic studies in Arabidopsis have begun to shed light on the roles of DGATs and PDAT1 in TAG biosynthesis and function in vegetative plant tissues, taking advantages of *tgdl* and other mutants defective in various aspects of TAG metabolism. While the role of DGAT3 may be limited to the partitioning of acyl groups to TAG during seed germination and early seedling establishment as revealed by characterizing the mutants defective in TAG breakdown (70), two other acyltransferases, PDAT1 and DGAT1 jointly play major, but distinct roles in TAG assembly in leaves, roots and floral tissues of adult plants (44; 83). In particular, while PDAT1 appears to be more involved in TAG assembly than DGAT1 in growing leaves and young floral organs, DGAT1 is more important in TAG accumulation in senescing leaves (44; 45), roots (83) and developing seeds (79; 141). The distinct roles of PDAT1 and DGAT1 in TAG synthesis during leaf growth and development are in line with the data from transcriptomic analyses (45; 70). However, the acyl-CoA-dependent pathway catalyzed by DGAT1 is largely responsible for label incorporation into TAG when young Arabidopsis leaves were fed with exogenous <sup>14</sup>C-labeled lauric acid (171). Other plant acyltransferases with DGAT activity include phytyl ester synthase 1 and 2 (104) and a soluble acyltransferase associated with the formation of cutins (137). The phytyl ester synthases are localized in the plastid and have been suggested to play a role in the recycling of free FAs into TAG and phytyl esters in the plastid during abiotic stress and senescence (104), thus may not contribute to cytosolic TAG synthesis in leaves.

### **3. TAG storage**

The storage of neutral lipids such as TAGs mainly involves a universal subcellular organelle named lipid droplet (LD) or oil body in the cytosol. During the past decade, studies in yeast, mammals and plant oilseeds have completely changed our perception of LD from an inert neutral lipid store to a dynamic subcellular organelle vital for lipid metabolism and homeostasis, intracellular lipid trafficking and stress responses (18; 29; 62; 90; 114; 129; 188). Despite its importance, however, we have limited knowledge about the biology of LDs in vegetative tissues of plants, although its ubiquitous occurrence in leaf mesophyll cells has been known for a long time (97; 163).

A large body of work exists on the structural and functional aspects of plant seed LDs (for reviews see (29; 118; 155)). Like its counterparts in other organisms, plant seed LDs are composed of a neutral lipid core coated by a monolayer of phospholipids with a specific set of hydrophobic proteins embedded. There are at least three classes of functionally characterized seed LD proteins namely oleosins, caleosins and steroleosins. Oleosins are the major class of seed-specific LD proteins that are not present in vegetative tissues of plants. Nevertheless, *Arabidopsis* seed oleosins can be correctly targeted to leaf LDs when transiently expressed in tobacco leaf cells (35; 184). Ectopic expression of the *Arabidopsis* oleosin1 in leaves increases leaf oil content (180; 189), reduces leaf LD size and promotes the clustering of leaf LDs (45), supporting a role of oleosins in stabilizing and regulating the size of LDs as revealed by studies in *Arabidopsis* seeds (156; 160). In contrast to oleosins, caleosins and steroleosins are minor proteins in seed LDs and genes encoding caleosin homologs and steroleosins are expressed in vegetative tissues of plants, particularly under abiotic and biotic stresses (6; 87; 157). A recent proteomic analysis of *Arabidopsis* leaf LDs identified caleosin3 and  $\alpha$ -dioxygenase as their protein components involved in the generation of an antifungal compound named phytoalexin under a pathological condition, revealing a role of leaf LDs in plant defense against pathogens (157). The *Arabidopsis* steroleosin plays an important role in brassinosteroid biosynthesis and signaling (98) and is not targeted to leaf LDs but retained in ER when transiently expressed in leaf tobacco protoplasts (35). A new class of LD-associated proteins has recently been identified by combined lipidomic, proteomic, and transcriptomic analyses of avocado (*Persea americana*) mesocarp (71). This class of lipid droplet-associated proteins bears no sequence similarity to known *Arabidopsis* seed LD proteins and its *Arabidopsis* homolog was found to be associated with the surface of leaf LDs after transient expression in tobacco leaf cells (71), but its role in TAG metabolism awaits further investigation.

### **4. Triacylglycerol Turnover**

#### **4.1. Triacylglycerol hydrolysis**

During times of carbon and energy deficiency, TAG stored in LDs is hydrolyzed to release FAs and other metabolites, and optimal utilization of this resource is vital for cellular energy balance, lipid homeostasis, membrane proliferation, cell growth and survival. The catabolism of TAG is initiated by an evolutionally conserved family of patatin domain lipases in yeast (4; 5), humans (199) and *Drosophila melanogaster* (61). In the model plant *Arabidopsis*, the sugar-dependent 1 (SDP1) encodes a TAG lipase with patatin-like acyl-hydrolase domain (40) and emerging evidence indicates that SDP1 plays a major role in TAG hydrolysis in roots and leaves of adult plants (43; 83), in addition to young seedlings (40; 81). There is evidence that the TAG hydrolytic activity of SDP1 is associated with LDs during postgerminative growth and early seedling establishment (40). Interestingly, it was recently showed that SDP1 is initially localized on peroxisomes and then delivered to the LD surface through peroxisome extensions during the course of seed oil mobilization (167). The subcellular localization of SDP1 in vegetative tissues of adult plants remains unknown.

Besides SDP1, there are at least two additional patatin-domain TAG lipase candidates in *Arabidopsis*, namely sugar-dependent1-like (SDP1L) and adipose triglyceride lipase-like (ATGLL) (40). Analysis of *Arabidopsis* mutants lacking SDP1 and/or SDP1L has shown that SDP1L has an overlapping role with SDP1 in TAG breakdown following seed germination (81), but this enzyme appears not to contribute significantly to TAG hydrolysis in roots and leaves of adult plants (43; 83). In mammals, the enzymatic activity of ATGL is regulated by a coactivator protein named comparative gene identifier 58 (CGI58) (96). Although the recombinant *Arabidopsis* CGI58-like protein exhibited TAG lipase activity in in vitro assays (55), disruption of CGI58L or ATGLL appears to affect neither the rate of TAG mobilization in young seedlings of the mutants lacking SDP1 and SDP1L (81) nor TAG content in leaves of adult *tgdl* mutant plants (43). There is evidence that loss-of-function of CGI58 in *Arabidopsis* leaves can result in accumulation of TAGs in cytosolic LDs (72), but this is likely mediated through the interaction of CGI58 with the *Arabidopsis* peroxisomal ATP binding cassette transporter1 (PXA1, also known as comatose or peroxisomal defective3) (Park et al, 2013), not via lipase activity directly. At least three other enzymes from *Arabidopsis* including a leaf senescence-associated protein SAG101 (68), a TAG hydrolase homologous to mammalian lysosomal acid lipase (78) and a plastid TAG lipase (130) also exhibit TAG hydrolytic activity in in vitro assays using recombinant proteins, but their roles in TAG hydrolysis in vegetative plant tissues remain to be tested.

Biochemical assays have shown that both SDP1 and SDP1L have a substrate preference for TAG over DAG and monoglycerol (MAG), implying that the patatin domain TAG lipases have to work in concert with additional lipases to completely breakdown TAG into free FAs and glycerol (40; 81). However, to date, there is little information regarding the molecular identity of lipases responsible for hydrolyzing DAG and MAG in plants. In the *Arabidopsis* genome, there are more than 270 genes annotated as lipases and among them 30 genes annotated as TAG or MAG lipases, but, functional characterization remains to be performed on most of these (175).

Interestingly, a cytosolic member of the DAD1-like acyl-hydrolase family encoded by At4g18550 can specifically hydrolyze DAG and MAG at the *sn-1* position and there is evidence that this protein is involved in the regulation of storage oil mobilization and early seedling establishment in Arabidopsis (84).

## 4.2. FA activation, transport and $\beta$ -oxidation

Following TAG hydrolysis by lipases, FAs are activated to acyl-CoA by long-chain acyl-CoA synthetases (LACSs) prior to their entry into the peroxisome, the sole site for the breakdown of FAs via  $\beta$ -oxidation in plants and fungi (56; 169). In Arabidopsis, LACSs are encoded by a family of nine genes and all but LACS5 are expressed in various tissues including leaves and roots (159). Many studies have been performed on the functional characterization of Arabidopsis LACSs (50; 111; 150; 198), but the enzymes which activate FAs destined for peroxisomal  $\beta$ -oxidation in seeds and other tissues remain to be assigned though LACS6 and LACS7 are potential candidates (50). Recently, it was shown that LACS4 and LACS9 play an overlapping role in the generation of acyl-CoAs for the synthesis of galactolipids through the eukaryotic pathway in leaves (74). Whether the same two LACSs are also involved in the activation of FAs for TAG synthesis and FA breakdown in vegetative tissues requires further investigation.

The import of acyl-CoA into peroxisomes is mediated by ATP binding cassette proteins of subfamily D including PXA1 (170). The Arabidopsis PXA1 has recently been shown to possess intrinsic acyl-CoA thioesterase activity, which hydrolyzes acyl-CoAs to free FAs and coenzyme A as part of the FA transport cycle (36). Two LACS enzymes, LACS6 and LACS7 are involved in the reactivation of free FAs inside the peroxisome (50) and this reactivation requires the supply of ATP by peroxisomal adenine nucleotide translocators PNC1 and 2 (103). Disruption of PXA1 impairs TAG mobilization during early seedling establishment following germination (48; 67; 200) and FA turnover in leaves of adult *tgd1* mutant (43) and wild-type (93) plants.

The end product of  $\beta$ -oxidation of FAs is acetyl-CoA, which is a key metabolite for energy production via mitochondrial respiration and for the synthesis of carbon skeletons via the glyoxylate cycle and gluconeogenesis. While the role of glyoxylate cycle in the bulk conversion of oils into carbohydrates has been well established (56; 169), two marker enzyme of the glyoxylate cycle, namely malate synthase and isocitrate lyase are not expressed in mature Arabidopsis plants (24; 179). Therefore, in contrast to young seedlings, where  $\beta$ -oxidation of FAs supplies energy and carbohydrates, in mature leaves under most conditions the glyoxylate cycle activity appears to be absent and  $\beta$ -oxidation supplies energy but not carbohydrates (93). However, the activities of malate synthase and isocitrate lyase are induced in leaves of barley, spinach and cucumber during senescence (57; 63; 95), supporting a role for the glyoxylate cycle and gluconeogenesis in senescence-related processes (175).

## 5. TAG metabolism and lipid homeostasis

Under conditions of lipid overload, excess FAs are converted into biologically inert neutral lipid in the form of TAG which is packaged in LDs, thereby sequestering them away from cellular membranes. Cells deficient in TAG synthesis show increased levels of membrane lipids, and accumulate toxic lipid intermediates such as DAG and free FAs. They also exhibit, massive proliferation of intracellular membranes and ultimately undergo programmed cell death (89). In plants, PDAT1 and DGAT1 mediated TAG synthesis is essential for pollen and embryo development (196), and deficiency of DGAT1 activity has negative effects on overall growth and developmental (79; 107; 162). In the *tgd1* mutant, disruption of PDAT1 causes premature cell death in growing leaves and floral organs with concomitant increases in the levels of free FAs, DAG and membrane phospholipids along with severe decreases in TAG levels (44). Thus, the role of TAG synthesis in lipid homeostasis and cell survival is evolutionarily conserved in eukaryotes ranging from yeast and plants to humans.

TAG metabolism encompasses multiple subcellular organelles, which necessitates extensive trafficking of FAs and other intermediates between cellular organelles and within and across biological membranes. During FA trafficking, special cellular mechanisms appear to exist to strictly limit the buildup of toxic FAs in the cytosol. One example is the PDAT1/LPCAT cycle involved in TAG synthesis in growing leaves (44) (Figure 4). In this cycle, nascent FAs exported from the plastid are first incorporated into PC (12), catalyzed by LPCATs (11; 185), likely at the chloroplast envelope membranes (19; 88; 173). PC is used for DAG esterification to produce TAG catalyzed by PDAT1 in the ER (34). The by-product of this reaction, lysoPC, can rapidly partition from the ER to the chloroplast (19), where it is re-acylated to produce PC (19; 88; 173), the substrate for PDAT1-mediated TAG synthesis. In principle, the PDAT1/LPCAT cycle can be more efficient in protecting against FA-induced toxicity if it occurs at membrane contact sites between the ER and the plastid (20; 186), as such sites could enable ER-residing PDAT1 to access PC in the plastid envelope for DAG esterification and/or plastidic PC to be effectively translocated to ER for PDAT1-mediated TAG synthesis, thereby avoiding overabundance of toxic free acyl groups in the cytosol.

Recent evidence indicates that LDs serve as a conduit for FA breakdown and efficient  $\beta$ -oxidation requires close association of LDs with organelles carrying out  $\beta$ -oxidation to facilitate the intraorganelle movement of FAs. Unlike plants and fungi,  $\beta$ -oxidation of FAs in mammals occurs in the mitochondria. Under nutrient starvation, an important source of FAs for  $\beta$ -oxidation is derived from autophagic digestion of membrane structures (161). Rather than being directly imported into mitochondria for energy production, FAs derived from membrane lipids are first incorporated into TAG and stored in LDs prior to being released by TAG lipases before entering the mitochondrial  $\beta$ -oxidation pathway (136). During TAG consumption, the trafficking of FAs from LDs into mitochondria requires the close association of the two organelles (7) and the establishment of mitochondrial networks through fusion (136). In plants, the lipin homologs, in addition to PDAT1, SDP1 and PXA1 direct de novo-synthesized FAs towards peroxisomal  $\beta$ -

oxidation through a transient TAG pool and this process is important for maintaining membrane lipid homeostasis in *tgdl* leaves (43) (Figure 4). Transfer of FAs released from LDs into peroxisomes appears to require close physical apposition of these two organelles in plants also (167; 169).

## **6. Strategies for Engineering Oil Accumulation in Vegetative Tissues**

Metabolic engineering strategies to enhance oil accumulation in plants include increasing the supply of FAs, increasing TAG assembly activities and blocking TAG breakdown pathways, as recently reviewed (26; 30; 38; 121; 127; 175; 182). A list of genes, manipulation of which resulting in increased TAG content in vegetative plant tissues was recently presented (182). A difficulty in comparing reports on increasing TAG accumulation is that results are often cited as fold-increases. Because very low levels of TAG accumulate in most wild type leaves, and low levels of TAG are difficult to quantitate, comparisons based on % of DW are far more useful and reliable (193).

Theoretically, increasing the supply of FAs for TAG synthesis can be achieved by 1) increasing the flux of carbon into FA synthesis; 2) overexpressing transcriptional or other regulators controlling FA synthesis 3) increasing the expression of ACCase, the first committed enzyme in the plastidic FA synthesis pathway; 4) suppressing competing pathways for FA utilization including membrane lipid synthesis; and 5) increasing carbon partitioning into FA synthesis by blocking starch synthesis. Petrie and colleagues have categorized three aspects to increasing vegetative TAG, namely push, by modulating WRI1, other transcription factors, ACCase or mutants in TGD1 or MGD1, pull by acyltransferases, and protection by oleosin, LEC1,2 and mutants of SDP1 and CGI58 (182). Because modulation of the push factors on their own don't increase TAG accumulation to a significant degree, possibly because WRI1 induces futile cycling by upregulating both fatty acid synthesis and fatty acid degradation (60), it might be more useful to think of these factors in terms of defining capacity to increase TAG accumulation. In contrast, in the absence of push factor modulation, overexpression of acyltransferases increase sink strength (23) and combinations of pull and protect such as coexpression of DGAT1 with cys-OLEOSIN appear to dramatically increases sink strength to the point that along with TAG increase, photosynthesis and even biomass are seen to increase (189). This is a dramatic effect considering that lipid synthesis is highly demanding both in terms of energy and reducing equivalents (Figure 2). While leaves have evolved as source tissues, being the site of photosynthesis provides access to an abundant local source of energy and reducing equivalents.

### **6.1 Increasing the flux of carbon into FA synthesis**

Attempts to increase the supply of precursors for FA synthesis by creating simple changes to central metabolism have generally failed (37; 168). The lack of success likely results from the fact that individual enzymes rarely determine the flux through a pathway, rather flux control is

often shared amongst multiple components of the pathway (117). However, beyond the classical concepts of flux control, allosteric control of enzyme activity can be substantially involved in control of carbon partitioning. Quantitative multilevel analysis of central metabolism in developing *Brassica napus* embryos from a series of *Brassica* lines that exhibit a range of starch:lipid ratios implicated pyruvate kinase, the enzyme responsible for pyruvate production as contributing to flux control over the production of pyruvate for oil biosynthesis (152). Flux control was proposed to be mediated by concerted allosteric feedback control of phosphofructokinase and ADP-glucose pyrophosphorylase1 (ADG1) by PEP and 3-phosphoglycerate (3PGA), respectively.

## 6.2. Increasing FA supply

Because FA synthesis in seeds is subject to transcriptional regulation, a direct approach to increasing TAG synthesis in vegetative tissue is to initiate the seed oil synthesis program by ectopically expressing transcription factors. In seeds, TAG deposition is under developmental control that initiates at the completion of seed morphogenesis when maturation begins (146). It is principally under the control of a set of B3-domain containing master transcriptional activating factors referred to as AFL after their three members: ABSCISIC ACID INSENSITIVE1, FUSCA3 and LEAFY COTYLEDON2 (LEC2). AFL activators have redundant functions and act in concert with LEC1 to activate the maturation program. The maturation program can be repressed by chromatin remodeling factors such as PICKLE (124), or a set of three B3-like proteins that compete for AFL binding (16). Ectopic expression of LEC2 was found to be sufficient to trigger the accumulation of oil and seed specific mRNAs in the leaves of *Arabidopsis* (148). The action of LEC2 (and possibly LEC1) on lipid synthesis is specified by WRI1 (Figure 3). As discussed in section 2.2, the influence of WRI1 is more specific to the induction of genes associated with FA synthesis and glycolysis (and SUC2) and its effects are potentiated by sugar (115; 144). Whether sugar potentiation is related solely to the availability of carbon, or perhaps more likely, involves interplay between oil- and sugar signaling networks (140) remains to be determined. The overexpression of LEC2 induces both WRI1 and oil droplet-specific proteins such as oleosins (148), however, expression of LEC2 can produce strong negative pleiotropic developmental relative to those reported for the expression of WRI1 (85; 144; 166). The use of chemical-, or senescence-inducible promoters can mitigate some of the negative pleiotropic effects (3; 86; 148). In terms of TAG accumulation, expression of WRI1 on its own led to a 2.8-fold increase in TAG in whole plant tissue (144), whereas expression of LEC2 led to the accumulation of 0.8% DW in senescing *Arabidopsis* leaves (162) and a more than doubling of total lipids in tobacco to 6.8% DW (3). The effects of ectopic expression of WRI1's from several sources highlighted a range of TAG accumulation when transiently expressed in *N. benthamiana* leaves (60).



Early attempts to increasing FA synthesis focused on potential rate-limiting steps in the FA synthesis pathway with mixed results. For example, coordinate overexpression of all four heteromeric ACCase subunits in cyanobacteria increased FA biosynthesis (106), whereas in Arabidopsis, expression of BCCP resulted in inactivation of the plastid ACCase and reduced seed oil content (168). Overexpression of 3-ketoacyl-acyl-carrier protein synthase III (KAS III) notably reduced the rate of FA synthesis in developing oilseeds (37). In Brassica, plastidial targeting of the Arabidopsis homomeric ACCase in Brassica seeds resulted in an approximately 5% increase in seed TAG under growth chamber conditions (139). It should be noted that oil content is dependent on light availability and other factors(102), and so growth chamber and field results can differ substantially.

### **6.3 Disruption of pathways competing with TAG synthesis**

Silencing of monogalactosyldiacylglycerol synthase (MGD1), the first committed step in thylakoid galactolipid synthesis resulted in a decrease in galactolipid content and an 8.3-fold increase in TAG accumulation in tobacco leaves (190). Perhaps surprisingly, disruption of starch synthesis produced only minor increases in TAG accumulation. When APS1, a major isoform of the small subunit of ADP-glucose pyrophosphorylase involved in starch biosynthesis was downregulated, by RNAi, the resulting lines accumulated more hexoses, less starch but only 30-40% more TAG compared to WT (144).

### **6.4. Increasing TAG assembly activities**

As discussed in a recent review (Morandini, 2013), flux control of many metabolic pathways that supply building blocks for the synthesis of macromolecules including lipids, proteins, nucleic acids and carbohydrates often occurs on the demand side. Therefore, increasing the demand for precursors can be more effective at enhancing flux through many pathways than increasing the supply. This strategy has been referred to as pull with respect to TAG assembly (182). In the case of the engineering of TAG accumulation, overexpression of TAG assembly enzymes appears to be more successful at boosting TAG content in seeds (Jako et al., 2001(105)) as well as vegetative tissues (Fan et al., 2013b) than overexpression of enzymes mediating FA synthesis (Roesler et al., 1997; Dehesh et al., 2001; Thelen and Ohlrogge, 2002).

DGAT has long been recognized as an activity for which ectopic expression can cause substantial increases in the accumulation of vegetative TAG (105). Expression of the Arabidopsis DGAT1 in tobacco yielded between a 7- and 20-fold increase in TAG (3; 23), whereas expression of a *Chlamydomonas* DGAT2 increased TAG accumulation in Arabidopsis by 25-fold and changed the TAG composition by favoring the incorporation of very-long-chain FAs (145). Recent analysis showed that the addition of an N-terminal peptide tag could mask

the deleterious influence of *B. napus* DGAT1's N-terminal sequence, stabilizing it and increasing its accumulation in yeast, and increasing its in vitro activity by a remarkable 150-fold (58). Intriguingly, overexpression of PDAT1 in Arabidopsis enhanced the rate of FA synthesis, leading to the accumulation of 2.6% DW of TAG in leaves (45). The heterologous expression of mouse monoacylglycerol (MAG) acyltransferases 1 and 2 in tobacco led to 7-9-fold increases in the accumulation of TAG by a Kennedy pathway-independent mechanism involving the conversion of glycerol-3-phosphate to MAG by sn-2 glycerol-3-phosphate:acyl-CoA acyltransferase (GPAT) and on to TAG by the action of MGAT (133).

Recently, SEIPIN, a protein that localizes to the ER of mammals and regulates adipocyte differentiation, lipolysis and determine the size and distribution of lipid droplets (Fei et al., 2011) was identified in plants. Overexpression of SEIPIN1 in Arabidopsis increased numbers of LDs and TAG content in leaves and boosted oil content in seeds (25).

## 6.5. Blocking TAG breakdown pathways

Stabilizing oil storage compartments by overexpressing oleosins is an effective means to boosting TAG accumulation in vegetative plant tissues. Oleosins are small amphipathic proteins that intercalate with TAG and form an interface with the cytoplasm. They also limit the size of LDs and appear to serve as a steric barrier protecting TAG from lipase activities (155; 160). Support for the notion that oleosins protect TAG comes from the expression in Arabidopsis of poly-oleosins comprising up to six head-to-tail oleosin repeats that was shown to increase the structural rigidity of the oil bodies (153). In other work, oleosins were engineered to contain multiple cysteine residues (Cys-oleosins) that form intermolecular disulfide bonds which form a cross-linked network (189).

As an alternative approach to physically protecting the TAG in LD is to disrupt TAG lipase activity or the transport of lipids into the peroxisome by disruption of SDP1 or PXA1. Disruption of SDP1 resulted in increases in TAG accumulation of close to 1% of DW in roots with smaller effects seen in other tissues (82). Disruption of PXA1 results in the accumulation of up to 1.8% TAG in senescing leaves (162). Another potential target to block FA turnover is the 3-ketoacyl-CoA thiolase (KAT) (54), a key enzyme in  $\beta$ -oxidation. The *kat2* null mutant is viable if germinated in the presence of sugar, however, it exhibits slower and more stunted growth than *pxa1*. The Arabidopsis homolog of CGI-58 was identified by Chapman's group (72), mutations of which in humans result in hyperaccumulation of lipid droplets in tissues that do not normally store lipids (192). Plants containing mutated *CGI-58* exhibit a 10-fold increase in TAG in mature leaves with minimal detrimental phenotypic effects (72), suggesting that plant and mammalian CGI-58 proteins share a common function, possibly via interaction with PXA1 in plants (131).

## 6.6. Combinatorial approaches

As discussed above, many individual factors have been shown to increase the accumulation of TAG to several percent of DW. Because flux control is shared amongst different pathway steps, and biochemical feedback control tends to buffer against single-gene changes, the most effective strategies to substantially increase TAG accumulation typically involve simultaneous down-regulation, up-regulation, or heterologous expression of two or more factors. Indeed many successful modulations of two- or more genes have been reported. For example, co-expression of Cys-oleosins along with DGAT in Arabidopsis resulted in increased biomass, photosynthetic rate and the doubling of FA content in mature leaves, that was attributed to the protection of TAG within LD from degradation (189). Coexpression of DGAT and WRI1 produced a synergistic increase in TAG accumulation when transiently coexpressed in *N. benthamiana* (181). Their stable expression in Arabidopsis yielded TAG accumulation in the 2-3% of DW range albeit with significant reduction in total biomass (83). Coexpression of DGAT1 and WRI1 in the *sdp1* mutant background approximately doubled the TAG accumulation in Arabidopsis (83); however, further enhancements were not seen upon expression in *sdp1 cgi-58*, or *sdp1 pxa1*, presumably because mutations in the same pathway were not additive. In contrast, when WRI1 was overexpressed in a line deficient in starch biosynthesis, a 5.8-fold increase in TAG accumulation was observed relative to the parental line in which starch was reduced to half of that of wild type (144). Overexpressing Arabidopsis PDAT1, along with Arabidopsis OLEOSIN1 in the *tgdl* mutant background resulted in leaf TAG accumulation of 8.6% with total FAs accumulating to 16.2% (45). Further experiments combining *tgdl* with *sdp1* or *pxa1* resulted in approximately 9% TAG accumulation in Arabidopsis leaves (43). Recently Petrie and colleagues reported the accumulation of > 15% TAG (17.7% total lipids) by DW in stably transformed *Nicotiana tabacum* leaves coexpressing the Arabidopsis WRI1, and DGAT1 along with the sesame OLEOSIN driven by the Arabidopsis RuBisCo small subunit promoter (for WRI1 and OLEOSIN) and 35S promoter (for DGAT1). The authors report that the accumulation of TAG at levels close to those of soybean seeds was without detrimental effects on plant development and seed viability similar to what was observed upon the overexpression of cys-Ole1 and DGAT in Arabidopsis (189). This raises the question as to what proportion of the DW of vegetative tissues TAG can be reached before significant detrimental effects become inevitable. The answer to this question is likely to depend on the timing of accumulation, the plant species, and the tissue (leaves vs stems). A lack of negative consequences on source tissues such as leaves may be aided by the inert nature of TAG based on its immiscibility with the aqueous cytoplasmic phase, and its physical sequestration in LD. We note the currently most successful three-gene over-expression strategy (180) and the two 2-gene disruption strategies (43) contain non-overlapping gene sets. It is therefore conceivable that further combinations of these factors alone, or in combination with other factors, modulations of which have been shown to result in enhancement of vegetative TAG accumulation described above, will likely yield further increases in TAG accumulation.

## 7. Opportunities and Challenges

American founding father Thomas Jefferson wrote: “*The greatest service which can be rendered any country is to add a useful plant to its culture*”. He went on to exemplify grain and oil as examples (73). Recent discoveries regarding the biochemistry and regulation of vegetative oil metabolism are fueling optimism that novel vegetative-oil accumulating crops may soon be added to our culture. The incorporation of enzyme variants (58) or perhaps transcription factor variants with enhanced activity/stability (112) presents a particularly promising approach to increasing oil yield. The discovery that several combinations of gene mutations can lead to TAG accumulation of close to 10% in vegetative tissue without the overexpression of transgenes (43) raises an intriguing possibility of creating vegetative TAG-accumulating crops by targeted disruption of tissue-specific isoforms of these, and maybe other genes, using CRISPR-CAS9 gene editing or equivalent technologies (21). Conceivably mutation-based strategies could lead to non-GM crops that streamline commercialization. Other promising enabling technologies to identify targets for TAG accumulation include metabolic flux analysis to quantify fluxes through central metabolism (123) and the lipid biosynthetic network (10) of developing seeds. Also, predictive *in silico* modeling approaches (151) might be refined to select non-intuitive combinations of potential targets to increase oil accumulation.

However, many questions remain to be answered including: Which combinations of TAG-accumulating genes will provide optimal oil accumulation while minimizing yield drag and preserving coproduct yields? Which promoters will facilitate optimal TAG accumulation in the desired tissues at the desired developmental stage? Will vegetative oilcrops be more susceptible to pathogens or herbivory or adverse environmental conditions? If so, can mitigation strategies be identified? Will results obtained in growth chambers or greenhouses be observed under field conditions? Because most work in this area has focused on model plants, perhaps the major open question is: Which crop plants should be targeted to accumulate vegetative TAG? Candidates should have sufficient biomass yield and geographical range to produce large quantities of oil, be able to thrive on marginal land and be productive with mammal agricultural inputs. Sugarcane represents one potential candidate, which accumulates excess photosynthate as sugar to approximately 50% of its stem biomass by DW that could potentially be converted to TAG (195). Because of its exceptional biomass yield, “oilcane” i.e., an engineered sugarcane in which a significant fraction of its stored sugar is converted to TAG could provide a meaningful contribution to our liquid transportation fuel needs. Successful strategies, initially developed for sugarcane could in theory be transferred to its more cold-tolerant relative sweet sorghum or eventually to perennial crops such as *Miscanthus* or poplar which require low inputs. Sugarcane and sorghum are also appealing because there is an existing infrastructure to grow and harvest sugarcane and sorghum and harvest oil which can be converted to biodiesel in a single unit operation. In terms of energy yield, achieving vegetative TAG accumulation to 10% of DW increases the energy content of the crop by 30% relative to fermentation to ethanol (127).

While vegetative TAG can be viewed as a future source for biofuel uses, the technology could be equally well be combined with other successful strategies for modifying the composition of oil such as accumulating nutritionally valuable lipids (142) or industrially useful feedstocks (120) as recently demonstrated for medium chain fatty acid accumulation in leaves (138).

### **Summary points**

1. Although plant vegetative tissues such as leaves possess a high inherent capacity to synthesize, store and mobilize TAG, they normally do not accumulate TAG. This is because leaves evolved as source tissues highly specialized for photosynthetic carbohydrate synthesis and export and the majority of FAs and DAG are used for the synthesis of photosynthetic membranes.
2. The activity of the plastidial ACCase, which catalyzes the first committed step in FA synthesis, can potentially be modulated by a wide array of biochemical, transcriptional and posttranslational mechanisms.
3. The lipin family of PA phosphohydrolases play important roles in regulating FA and DAG partitioning between TAG and membrane lipid synthesis in leaves via modulation of lipid PA levels.
4. TAG assembly in vegetative tissues is mediated by acyl-CoA-dependent- and acyl-CoA-independent mechanisms. In Arabidopsis, PDAT1 and DGAT1 play major, but distinct roles in TAG accumulation in leaves.
6. TAG is a key intermediate in fatty acid breakdown through the peroxisomal  $\beta$ -oxidation pathway which is vital for protection against fatty acid-induced cell death in leaves under conditions of fatty acid overload.
7. The most effective strategies to substantially increase TAG accumulation involve simultaneous down-regulation, up-regulation, or heterologous expression of two or more factors.

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### **Figure legend**

**Figure 1.** Overview of the source and sink relationship in oilseed plants. Abbreviations as defined in the text; except AA, amino acids.

**Figure 2.** Overview of carbon flux in relation to FA and sucrose synthesis in a leaf mesophyll cell. Photosynthetic light reactions generate ATP and DNAPH, which power both carbon fixation via the Calvin cycle and FA synthesis catalyzed by ACCase and a series of enzymatic reactions collectively referred to as fatty acid synthase (FAS). Dotted arrows indicate multiple reactions. Red arrows indicate steps in glycolysis. Green letters indicate proteins. Abbreviations as defined in the text; except: ADPGlc, ADP\_glucose; Glc1P, glucose-1-phosphate; Glc6P, glucose-6-phosphate; MEX1, maltose excess protein1; pGlcT, plastidial glucose transporter; 2PGA, 2-phosphoglycerate.

**Figure 3.** Scheme of factors that can potentially regulate FA synthesis. Abbreviations as defined in the text

**Figure 4.** Overview of TAG metabolism pathways in a leaf mesophyll cell. Abbreviations as defined in the text.

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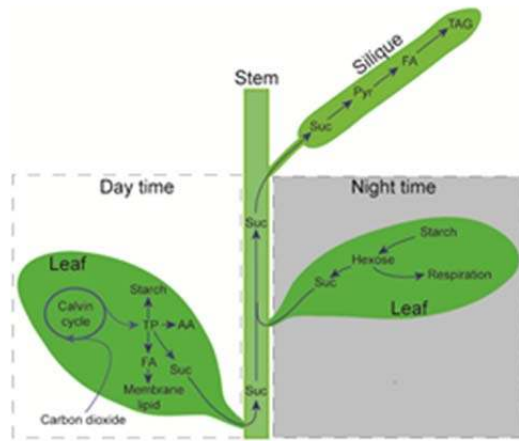


Figure 1 Overview of the source and sink relationship in oilseed plants. Additional abbreviation: AA, amino acids.

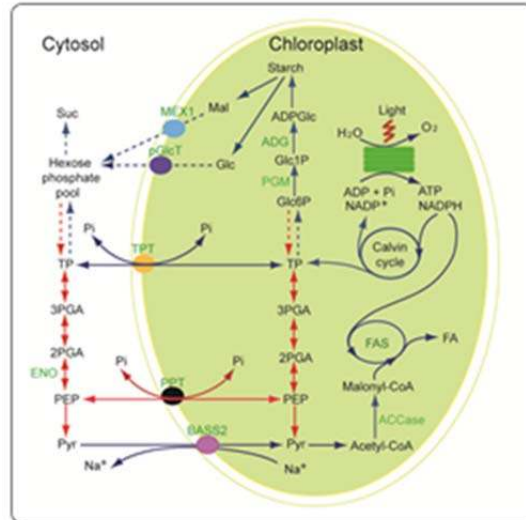


Figure 2. Overview of carbon flux in relation to FA and sucrose synthesis in a leaf mesophyll cell. Red arrows indicate steps in glycolysis. Photosynthetic light reactions generate ATP and DNAPH, which power both carbon fixation via the Calvin cycle and FA synthesis catalyzed by ACCase and a series of enzymatic reactions collectively referred to as fatty acid synthase (FAS). Dotted arrows indicate multiple reactions. Green letters indicate proteins. Additional abbreviations: ADPGlc, ADP<sub>glucose</sub>; Glc1P, glucose-1-phosphate; Glc6P, glucose-6-phosphate; MEX1, maltose excess protein1; pGlcT, plastidial glucose transporter; 2PGA, 2-phosphoglycerate.

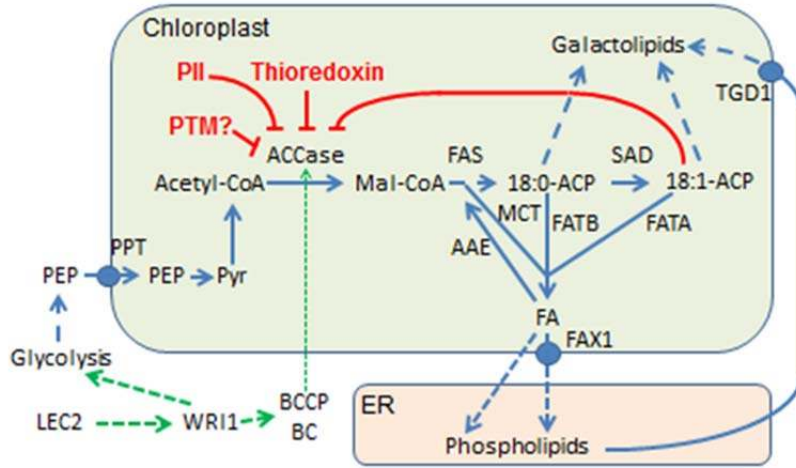


Figure 3. Scheme of factors that can potentially regulate the synthesis of FAs.

