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Enhanced production of hydroxy fatty acids in *Arabidopsis* seed through modification of multiple gene expression

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Abstract

Background: Castor (*Ricinus communis L.*) seeds contain unusual fatty acid, hydroxy fatty acid (HFA) used as a chemical feedstock for numerous industrial products. Castor cultivation is limited by the potent toxin ricin in its seeds and other poor agronomic traits, so it is advantageous to develop a suitable HFA-producing crop. Significant research efforts have been made to produce HFA in model *Arabidopsis*, but the level of HFA produced in transgenic *Arabidopsis* is much less than the level found in castor seeds which produce 90% HFA in seed oil.

Results: We designed a transformation construct that allowed co-expression of five essential castor genes (named pCam5) involved in HFA biosynthesis, including an *oleate* Δ 12-hydroxylase (FAH12), diacylglycerol (DAG) acyltransferase 2 (DGAT2), phospholipid: DAG acyltransferase 1–2 (PDAT1-2), phosphatidylcholine (PC): DAG cholinephosphotransferase (PDCT) and Lyso-PC acyltransferase (LPCAT). Transgenic Arabidopsis pCam5 lines produced HFA counting for 25% in seed oil. By knocking out Arabidopsis Fatty acid elongase 1 (AtFAE1) in pCam5 using CRISPR/Cas9 technology, the resulted *pCam5-atfae1* lines produced over 31% of HFA. Astonishingly, the *pCam5-atfae1* line increased seed size, weight, and total oil per seed exceeding wild type by 40%. Seed germination, seedling growth and seed mucilage content of *pCam5-atfae1* lines were not affected by the genetic modification.

Conclusions: Our results provide not only insights for future research uncovering mechanisms of HFA synthesis in seed, but also metabolic engineering strategies for generating safe HFA-producing crops.

Keywords: Diacylglycerol acyltransferase 2, Fatty acid elongase 1, Lyso-PC acyltransferase, Oleate Δ 12-hydroxylase, Phospholipid: DAG acyltransferase 1–2, Phosphatidylcholine: DAG cholinephosphotransferase

Background

Castor seed oil contains 80–90% of ricinoleic acid (12-hydroxy-octadeca-9-enoic acid, 18:1OH), a typical hydroxy fatty acid (HFA) widely used as an industrial raw material for manufacturing high-grade lubricant, paint, coating, plastic, and pharmaceutical products [1, 2]. Castor production is hampered by the presence of deadly toxin ricin and potent allergenic 2S albumins [3–5].

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Other limiting factors include narrow growth adaptation to tropical regions and labor-intensive hand-harvesting due to not simultaneously maturation of seeds [6]. As such, it is desirable to develop new HFA-producing crops that are safe and suitable for agronomic practices.

Pathways for seed oil (triacylglycerol, TAG) biosynthesis have been well studied. During seed development, fatty acids (FAs) are synthesized in plastids, exported to the cytosol, and activated to acyl-coenzyme As (acyl-CoAs). The acyl-CoAs are transferred into glycerol-3-phosphate (G3P) to synthesize TAG in the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) [7, 8] (Fig. 1). In the ER, TAGs are synthesized mainly through the de novo biosynthetic



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pathway or Kennedy pathway [7, 9-11], which consists of three sequential acylations of acyl-CoAs to a G3P backbone by glycerol-3-phosphate acyltransferase (GPAT) to produce lysophosphatidic acid (LPA), followed by LPA acyltransferase (LPAT) to generate phosphatidic acid (PA), and PA is then converted to 1,2-sn-diacylglycerol (DAG, or de novo DAG, DAG(1)) by PA phosphatase (PAP). Finally, the DAG is acylated by 1,2-sn-diacylglycerol acyltransferase (DGAT) to produce TAG (Fig. 1). In the cytosol, acyl-CoAs can also be directly incorporated into phosphatidylcholine (PC) through an acyl editing cycle [7, 8, 12–15]. Lyso-PC acyltransferase (LPCAT) is involved in the forward acylation of sn-2 lyso-PC using acyl-CoA and the reverse reactions of de-acylation sn-2 PC to yield acyl-CoA [7, 15-18]. The de-acylation of *sn*-2 PC can also occur with phospholipase A (PLA₂)-type activity to yield a free FA, which is then activated to acyl-CoA [19]. Because the FA on the sn-2 PC is the substrate for FA-modifying enzymes, such as desaturases and hydroxylases, rapid de-acylation and re-acylation of PC cause the acyl-CoA pool to be enriched with modified FAs (mFAs), which can subsequently be used for TAG synthesis. Besides the Kennedy pathway, multiple routes utilizing PC lead to TAG formation. PC can be converted to DAG (PC-derived DAG, or DAG(2)) through the removal of the head group from the PC by PC:DAG cholinephosphotransferase (PDCT) [20-22]; therefore, acyl-CoAs on the PC are directed to DAG for TAG synthesis. PC-derived DAG can be produced by the reverse action of CDP-choline: DAG cholinephosphotransferase (CPT) [23], a lipase-based mechanism using phospholipase C (PLC), or phospholipase D plus PAP [24]. Because FAs in sn-2-PC can be modified, the conversion of PC into DAG also provides a means to increase the amount of mFAs in sn-2-TAG. Moreover, FA on the sn-2 PC can be transferred to the sn-3 position of DAG by phospholipid:DAG acyltransferase (PDAT) [25–27]. Recent metabolic research using Arabidopsis indicates that there is a third DAG pool, bulk-PC-derived DAG (or DAG(3)), a slowly turned over pool likely equilibrated

by PDCT-mediated PC-DAG interconversion [28–30] (Fig. 1). AtDGAT1 produces TAG from a rapidly produced PC-derived DAG(2) pool, whereas AtPDAT1 and plant DGAT2 utilize bulk-PC-derived DAG(3) pool [28] (Fig. 1). Furthermore, there is growing evidence of existing membrane-associated complexes (or metabolons) made up of enzymes for some or all the reaction steps in a given pathway [28, 31]). The overall control of TAG biosynthesis has also been addressed for the importance of cellular, organellar, and sub-organellar localization of enzymes, structural proteins, and substrate pools [11, 32].

Unlike Arabidopsis and most commercial oilseeds, castor has evolved to co-ordinately synthesize and incorporate HFA (18:10H) into the seed at 90% of TAG [33]. To explore the potential of HFA synthesis in a non-HFA producer, Arabidopsis has been used as a model for studying castor genes and pathways for HFA accumulation in seed [34] (Table 1). The first castor gene isolated and demonstrated to be responsible for 18:10H synthesis is oleate \triangle 12-hydroxylase (RcFAH12) gene, which converts oleic acid (18:1) to 18:10H at sn-2-PC [35]. Seed-specific expression of RcFAH12 in Arabidopsis reveals four non-native HFA in TAG, 18:10H, 18:20H, 20:10H and 20:2OH at 7.8%, 6.6%, 2.5% and 0.4%, respectively (total HFA at 17.3%) [36]. The results suggest that Arabidopsis endogenous AtFAE1 is capable of elongating 18:1OH or 18:20H to 20:10H or 20:20H, respectively, or AtFAD3 is responsible for desaturating 18:10H or 20:10H to 18:20H or 20:20H, respectively [36]. To simplify the FA profile and provide more 18:1 substrate for RcFAH12, RcFAH12 is expressed in the Arabidopsis fatty acid elongase1 (fae1) mutant, deficient in elongation of 18:1 to 20:1 in seeds [37], and a resulted stable transgenic line is named as CL37 that accumulates 18:10H and 18:20H at 13.6% and 3.5%, respectively, with an average of total HFA at 17% [38]. Similarly, expression of a FAH12 in various Arabidopsis mutant backgrounds results in the accumulation of total HFA at approximately 17% in seed oil [39, 40] (Table 1). Undesirably, overexpression of a FAH12 gene in Arabidopsis, including CL37 decreases seed oil content and seed weight [39, 41-44] (Table 1). The limited accumulation of HFA in Arabidopsis and negative impact on seed total oil content and weight are explained by constrains or bottlenecks of 18:1OH flux into TAGs [20, 21, 26], β-oxidation of unutilized 18:10H [45], and/or feedback inhibition of FA synthesis [7, 46]. In CL37, inefficient utilization of 18:10H induces posttranslational inhibition of plastid localized acetyl-CoA carboxylase activity, resulting in a decrease of de novo FA synthesis which ultimately leads to the decreased seed oil content [7, 46]. CL37 has been used to test additional castor genes for their ability to boost HFA content in Page 3 of 20

seed oil. By co-expression of various acyltransferases in CL37, total HFA levels increase to 25-34% in seed TAG [21, 26, 27, 41, 42, 47, 48] (Table 1). Overexpression of additional castor genes in CL37 including castor DGAT2 (RcDGAT2) [41], RcPDAT1A [26] or RcPDAT1-2 [27], and RcPDCT [21], not only increase HFA to 25-27% but also recover seed oil content and weight (Table 1). Overexpression of RcLPAT2 [42, 48], as well as RcLPAT3B and RcLPATB [48], also increased HFA levels in CL37. In contrast, the expression of a castor phospholipase A2-alpha in the CL37 line decreases HFA levels [19] (Table 1). Another hypothesis of limiting HFA accumulation in transgenic Arabidopsis is that competition occurs between endogenous and transgenic isozymes for common FAs versus HFAs [49]. Indeed, when RcFAH12 and RcDGAT2 are co-expressed in a null Arabidopsis dgat1-2 mutant, the HFA level is further increased to 31% in seed oil [49]. Expression of all three castor acyltransferases, RcGPAT9, RcLPAT2 and RcPDAT1A, in CL37 enhances HFA up to 34% [47]. In addition, overexpression of Arabidopsis WRINKLED1 (AtWRI1) [44], a transcription factor for fatty acid biosynthesis, or SEIPIN1 (AtSEI1) [43, 50], a lipid droplet (LD) associated protein localize at the ER-LD junctions during de novo LD formation, also enhance HFA and oil contents in seeds (Table 1).

As described above, no more than four castor genes have been simultaneously co-expressed in *Arabidopsis*. To further enhance HFA production, we co-expressed five castor genes, *RcFAH12 RcDGAT2*, *RcPDAT1-2*, *RcP-DCT*, and *RcLPCAT*, in *Arabidopsis*, which resulted in *pCam5* lines. Through CRISPR/Cas9 genome editing, we deleted *AtFAE1* in *pCam5*, generating *pCam5-atfae1* lines. We found that *pCam5-atfae1* lines increased not only HFA content in seeds but also seed size and weight dramatically. Therefore, *pCam5-atfae1* lines contain the highest amount of HFA per *Arabidopsis* seed ever reported. The mechanisms underlying the enhancement of HFA production and seed development were discussed.

Results

Analysis of transgenic *Arabidopsis pCam5* expressing five genes from castor

To maximize HFA production in transgenic plants, we included the most critical gene, *RcFAH12*, which is directly responsible for converting 18:1 to 18:10H in developing seeds [35]. We also included *RcDGAT2*, *RcP-DAT1-2* and *RcPDCT*, because these genes have been demonstrated to facilitate the channeling of 18:10H to TAG in transgenic *Arabidopsis* through various pathways [21, 26, 27, 41] (Fig. 1). Besides, we decided to include *RcLPCAT*, as biochemical evidence indicates that it is

Table 1 Chronology c	of research to date	for the promotion of H	IFA production in t	ransgenic plant se	eds		
Genes	Gene source	Promoter	Host plant	HFA %	Oil content	100-seed weight	References
FAH12	Castor	35S	Tobacco	0.1	QN	DN	van de Loo et al. [35]
FAH12	Castor	Napin	Arabidopsis	17.3	ND	Q	Broun and Somerville [36]
FAH12	Castor	PfFAH12	Arabidopsis fad2/ fae1	19.2	DN	ND	Smith et al. [40]
			fad3	18.7			
			fad3/fae1	7			
FAH12	Castor	Phaseolin	Arabidopsis fae1	17	ND	ND	Lu et al. [38]
LlinFAH12	Lesquerella, castor	PfFAH12	Arabidopsis WT	11.8	775 ± 34 μg/100 seeds (null seg- regant) 489 \pm 39 μg/100 seeds ^c	ND	Dauk et al. [39]
			fad2/fae1	17.4	ND		
LFAH12			Arabidopsis WT	11.5	Decrease		
			fad2/fae1	15.6	ND		
FAH12+DGAT2	Castor	Phaseolin	CL37	25-27	6.30 ± 0.30 µg/seed ^b ; 6.70 ± 0.72 µg/seed ^c	2.03 ± 0.01 mg ^b ; 2.19±0.27 mg ^c	Burgal et al. [41]
FAH12+PDAT1A	Castor	Phaseolin	CL37	25-27	5.1µg/seed ^b ; 5.44µg/seed ^c	ND	van Erp et al. [49]
FAH12+PDAT1-2	Castor	FAE1	CL37	25-27	207 ± 5.6µg/mgDW ^b ; 228 ± 4.56µg/ mgDW ^c	1.34 ± 0.061 mg ^b ; 1.47 ± 0.084 mg ^c	Kim et al. [27]
FAH12+PDCT	Castor	Phaseolin	CL37	25-27	4.4µg/seed ^b ; 5.4µg/seed ^c	ND	Hu et al. [2 1]
FAH12+PLA2a	Castor	Phaseolin	CL37	Decrease	6.79µg/seedª, 5.05µg/seed ^b , 5.63µg/seed ^c	ND	Bayon et al. [19]
PDAT1A	Castor/arabidopsis	Oleosin	atdgat1/CL7/RcD- GAT2	31.4	No significant change compared to <i>dgat1/</i> CL7/RcDGAT2 plant	ND	van Erp et al. [49]
FAH12+WRI1	Castor/arabidopsis	Phaseolin	CL37	20	6.43 ± 0.18µg/seed ^a , 3.62 ± 0.04µg/seed ^b ; 5.61 ± 0.05µg/seed ^c	No significant change com- pared to <i>fae1</i>	Adhikari and Bates [44]
SEI 1	Arabidopsis	β-Conglycinin	CL37	18.3	161.2 ± 5.4µg/mg ^b , 266.6 ± 31.1 µg/mg ^c	22.1 \pm 0.9 μg^{a} ; 15.4 \pm 0.7 μg^{b} ; 19.1 \pm 0.3 μg^{c} (Single seed weight)	Lunn et al. [43]
GPAT9+ LPAT2	Castor	β-Conglycinin	CL37/RcPDAT1A	34	352 \pm 11µg/mgDW ^a ; 197 \pm 9.8µg/mgDW ^b ; 351 \pm 20µg/mgDW ^c	ND	Lunn et al. [47]
GPAT9+LPAT2+DGAT2	Castor	RcGPAT9-gly- cinin-1, RcLPAT2-β- conglycinin, RcDGAT2-2S albumin	CL37	Increase	24.2 ± 1.2% ^b , 34.2 ± 1.8% (LPAT2); 29.6 ± 2.1% ^c (GPAT9 + LPAT2 + DGAT2) (FAME of dry weight)	Q	Shockey et al. [41]
RcLPAT1, RcLPAT2, RcLPAT3A, RcLPAT3B, RcLPAT4, RcLPAT5, RcLPATB	Castor	Phaseolin	CL37	RcLPAT2—17.8 Rc LPAT3B—20.1 RcL PATB—19.1	QN	ND	Kim et al. [48]

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Genes	Gene source	Promoter	Host plant	HFA %	Oil content	100-seed weight	References
DCam5 (RCFAH12, RcD- GAT2, RcPDAT1-2, RcPDCT, RcLPCAT)	Castor	RcFAH12, RcDGAT2– Phaseolin RcPDAT1-2, RcPDCT-FAE1 RcLPCAT– Napin	Arabidopsis WT	26	216.48 µg/mgDW ^b ; 3.68 µg/seed ^b ; 227.1 µg/mgDW ^c , 3.9 µg/seed ^c ; 254.72 ug/ mgDW ^d ; 5.5 µg/seed ^d	1.7 mg ^b ,1.72 mg ^c , 2.16 mg ^d	This work
bCam5-AtFAE1	CRISPR	Egg-cell specific pro- moter	pCam5	31	214.22 µg/mgDW ^c , 6.54 µg/seed ^c ;	3.06 mg ^c	

ND not determined, *DW* dry weight ^a fae1 ^b CL37

^c Transgenic ^d WT (COL-0)



involved in a rapid acyl-editing between HFA–CoA and HFA–PC [7, 15–18] (Fig. 1).

We constructed these five genes into one transfer DNA (T-DNA) and designated it as *pCam5* (Fig. 2a). Transgenic Arabidopsis carrying pCam5 T-DNA would allow the expression of these five genes simultaneously. Transgenic lines resistant to BASTA herbicide (indicating carrying pCam5 T-DNA) were analyzed for FA composition. As HFA is our targeted metabolite, we selected the lines with the highest amount of HFA in seeds. Four T₁ pCam5 transformants were obtained. T₂ seeds harvested from these four plants were analyzed for FA composition. Compared with WT which does not produce HFA, the transgenics produced three HFAs, 18:1-OH, 18:2-OH, and 20:1-OH, at 3.9-14.7%, 1.3-2.3%, and 0.4–2.2%, respectively (Additional file 1: Table S1). Line 1 (pCam5 1) and line 4 (pCam5 4) contained relatively higher total HFA at 8.3% and 18.3%, respectively (Additional file 1: Table S2). As T₂ seeds are segregating populations, 13 T₃ off-springs from pCam5 1 lines and 20 T₃ off-springs from *pCam5* 4 lines were analyzed for FA compositions to identify homozygous individuals. As shown in Additional file 1: Table S2, total HFA contents in these T_3 seeds ranged from 8.3% (*pCam5* 1–7) to 22.5-23% (pCam5 1-12, pCam5 1-16) among pCam5 1 lines, and from 12.0% (pCam5 4-11) to 22.8% (pCam5 4-5, *pCam5* 4-12) among *pCam5* 4 lines. Noticeably, the total HFA level in these lines can be roughly grouped into low levels (8.3-16.9%) or high levels (22.5-23%) (Additional file 1: Table S2). The results suggested that these five transgenes were either hemizygous or homozygous. The top T₃ seeds from *pCam5* 1–12, *pCam5* 1–16, and *pCam5* 4–5 were grown to obtain T_4 generation seeds, and eight T₄ off-springs from each of these top lines were examined for their FA composition. As anticipated, total HFA contents were comparable among these offsprings, showing 24.4-26.5%, 22.9-26.6%, and 21.4-25.3%, respectively (Additional file 1: Table S3, Fig. 2b).



Fig. 3 Fatty acid composition of *pCam5* transgenic T4 seeds. Comparison of changes according to fatty acid composition of wild-type seeds and *pCam5* transgenic seeds of three independent lines (*pCam5* 1–12-n, *pCam5* 1–16-n, and *pCam5* 4–5-n, Additional file 1: Table S3). Error bars represent SEM of the mean. Statistical analysis is one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparison test (**p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001). ND; not detected



The results indicated that $pCam5 \ 1-12-8$, $pCam5 \ 1-16-7$, $pCam5 \ 1-16-8$ and $pCam5 \ 4-5-2$ were homozygous lines. For each specific FA composition, HFAs accumulated 16.7–20.7% for 18:1OH, 1.4–4.1% for 18:2OH, and 2.3–3.5% for 20:1OH in transgenic lines, $pCam5 \ 1-12$ -n, $pCam5 \ 1-16$ -n, and $pCam5 \ 4-5$ -n, respectively (Fig. 3). Other FA levels were also changed: linoleic (18:2), α -linolenic (18:3), 11-eicosenoic (20:1), erucic

(22:1) acids decreased from 29.7% to 17–20%, 17.8% to 5.4–7.5%, 18.1% to 9.2–13.9%, 1.9% to 0.5–0.8%, respectively (Fig. 3), palmitic (16:0) and stearic (18:0) acids increased from 9.8% to 10.9–17.5% and from 3.3% to 4.5–7.7%, respectively (Fig. 3). 18:1 level was comparable between WT (15.6%) and *pCam5* 4–5–n (15.4%), but the level increased in *pCam5* 1–12–n (17.9%) and *pCam5* 1–16–n (18.2%) (Fig. 3). Continued analysis on T₅ seeds



from *pCam5* 1–12-8-n, *pCam5* 1–16-7-n, *pCam5* 1–16-8-n and *pCam5* 4–5-2-n revealed no significant changes in FA composition compared with their corresponding T_4 seeds (Additional file 1: Table S4, Fig. 2b) indicating that these five transgenes were stably inherited. Compared with the CL37 [38], which accumulated total HFA

at 15.8–16.2% (Additional file 1: Table S4), a homozygote T_5 line (*pCam5* 1–16-7–2) accumulated approximately 9% more HFA showing 25% (Additional file 1: Table S4). To verify the expression of these five transgenes, Reverse transcription PCR (RT–PCR) and quantitative RT–PCR (RT–qPCR) were performed for samples from developing





Analysis of *pCam5-atfae1* lines produced by knock-out *Arabidopsis FAE1* in *pCam5* transgenic background through genome editing

FAs 20:1 and 20:1OH are produced through elongation of 18:1 and 18:1OH, respectively, by *FAE1* [51, 52] (Figs. 1, 4a). Knock-out (KO) FAE1 would block the formation of 20:1 and 20:10H and consequently, increase 18:1 and 18:10H accumulation. As 18:1 is the substrate for FAH12 to produce 18:10H, the increased 18:1 could also contribute to 18:10H accumulation (Fig. 1). To test our hypothesis, we applied CRISPR/Cas9 technology along with egg-specific Cas9 expression system [53] (Fig. 4b) and knocked out AtFAE1 in two independent homozygous lines, pCam5 1-12 and pCam5 1-16 (Additional file 1: Table S4). Thirtyfive transformants showing resistance to hygromycin were selected. PCR was performed on the leaf genomic DNA using a primer containing the predicted mutation region of the FAE1 gene, and lines having a PCR band smaller than that of the wild-type FAE1 gene were selected. These DNA-PCR products were subjected to Sanger sequencing (Fig. 4c). As a result, we found four independent fae1 knock-out lines in which the FAE1 gene was deleted at 82 bp, or added 1 bp in A or T with a deletion of 82 bp, or added at 45 bp, and we designated these four lines as pCam5-atfae1 5, pCam5-atfae1 9, pCam5-atfae1 19, and pCam5-atfae1 28, respectively (Fig. 4d). Compared with the background seeds (pCam5 1-12-8 and pCam5 1-16-8) which produced 18:1 and 20:1 at averages of 19.7–20.2% and 13.4–12.7%, respectively, *pCam5-atfae1* lines (T₂) generation) increased 18:1 to 32.0-35.6% and decreased 20:1 to 0.3–0.5% (Fig. 5a, Additional file 1: Table S5). For HFAs, 18:10H and 18:20H increased slightly from averages of 18.4–20.4% and 3.4–3.8%, respectively, in pCam5 lines to averages of 22.2-23.4% and 4.2-6.0%, respectively, in *pCam5-atfae1* lines (Fig. 5a, Additional file 1: Table S5); 20:1OH dropped from averages of 3.1-3.4% in background pCam5 lines to 0% in pCam5-atfae1 lines (Fig. 5a, Additional file 1: Table S5). We observed a small increase in total HFAs content from an average of 25.3-27.2% in pCam5 background to averages of 27.6-28.9% in T₂ generation of pCam5-atfae1 lines (Fig. 5a, Additional file 1: Table S5). As described in the introduction, the CL37 line [38] is a stable transgenic Arabidopsis expressing RcFAH12 in fae1 mutant background that eliminates almost all 20:1 and 20:10H. We compared FA compositions between CL37 and T_3 pCam5-atfae1 lines. As shown in Fig. 5b and Table S6,



CL37 accumulates 18:1OH and 18:2OH at averages of 14.1% ($\pm 0.16\%$ SD) and 2.9% ($\pm 0.12\%$ SD), respectively, while the *pCam5-atfae1* lines accumulated 18:1OH and 18:2OH at averages of 24.1–26.2% and 3.7–3.9%, respectively (Additional file 1: Table S6). *pCam5-atfae1* 5–1 showed a highest level of HFA at 31.9% (Additional file 1: Table S6). Furthermore, the HFA content in T₄ generation of *pCam5-atfae1* lines was examined, and the results showed that 18:1OH and 18:2OH levels were accumulated at similar levels to that of T₃ seeds (Fig. 5c, Additional file 1:



Table S7). For common FAs, CL37 contains little higher contents in 16:0, 18:2, and 18:3 at 18.0%, 23.8% and 7.1%, respectively, than that of *pCam5-atfae1* lines at averages of 12.1-12.4%, 18.5-21.2% and 5.2-5.8%, respectively (Additional file 1: Table S7). CL37 had 18:0 and 18:1 at 6.0% and 27.5%, respectively, comparable to that of *pCam5-atfae1*, showing averages at 6.3-6.4% and 23.9-26.9%, respectively (Additional file 1: Table S7). For non-HFA, the disappearance of 20:1 in *pCam5-atfae1* coincided with the increases of 16:0 from 9.6-9.7% to 12.1-12.4%, 18:1 from 19.7-20.2% to 23.9-26.9%, and 18:2 from 17.1-18.5% to 18.5-21.2% (Additional file 1: Table S7). To verify that transgenic genes were expressed in pCam5-atfae1 5-9 line, RT-PCR and RT-qPCR were performed for samples from developing seeds at various stages. We found that all five genes were expressed during stage one to stage six of *pCam5-atfae1* 5–9 line (Additional file 2: Fig. S1c, d).

Comparison of oil content, seed size, and seed germination among wild type, CL37, *pCam5* 1–16-7–2, and *pCam5-atfae1* 28–3-6

To determine the oil content of the seeds, the total fatty acid methyl ester (FAME) content was measured by gas chromatography (GC) for wild type (WT, 0% HFA), and three transgenics, CL37 (17% HFA), *pCam5* 1–16-7–2 (25.3% HFA), and *pCam5-atfae1* 28–3-6 (30.5% HFA). WT contained a little higher level of FAME per mg dry weight (DW) (254.72 µg/mg) than that of *pCam5* 1–16-7–2 (227.1 µg/mg DW), CL37 (216.48 µg/mg DW), and *pCam5-atfae1* 28–3-6 (214.22 µg/mg DW) (Fig. 6a). However, *pCam5-atfae1* 28–3-6 had significant higher

amount of total FAME content per seed (6.54 µg/seed) than that of CL37 (3.68 μ g/seed), and *pCam5* 1–16-7–2 (3.9 µg/seed) (background control of pCam5-atfae1 28–3-6) (Fig. 6b). WT had 5.5 µg/seed of FAME (Fig. 6b). To examine the effect of genes on HFA content, we calculated the non-HFA-FAME and HFA-FAME. WT contains the most non-HFA-FAME at 254.72 µg/mg DW followed by CL37 (180.36 µg/mg DW), pCam5 1-16-7-2 (167.98 µg/mg DW), and pCam5-atfae1 28-3-6 (146.26 µg/mg DW) (Fig. 6c). In term of non-HFA-FAME content per seed, WT also contains the most at 5.5 µg/seed, however, followed by pCam5-atfae1 28-3-6 (4.48 µg/seed), CL37 (3.06 µg/seed), and pCam5 1-16-7-2 (2.9 µg/seed) (Fig. 6d). Regarding HFA-FAME, *pCam5-atfae1* 28–3-6 contained the most at 67.94 µg/ mg, or 2.06 µg/seed, followed by pCam5 1-16-7-2 (59.1 µg/mg, 1 µg/seed) and CL37 (36.12 µg/mg, 0.6 µg/ seed) (Fig. 6e, f).

The size and weight of WT, CL37, *pCam5* 1–16-7–2 and *pCam5-atfae1* 28–3-6 were measured. The average width of WT was 0.29 mm, slightly wider than CL37 (0.23 mm) and *pCam5* 1–16-7–2 (0.27 mm). However, *pCam5-atfae1* 28–3-6 increased to 0.30 mm (Fig. 7a). Seed length did not differ between WT and *pCam5* 16–7-2, but seed length of *pCam5-atfae1* 28–3-6 was 0.59 mm, significantly larger than that of CL37 (Fig. 7b). The seed size (estimated by multiplying the length and width of the seed) of *pCam5-atfae1* 28–3-6 was significantly bigger than that of WT, CL37 and *pCam5* 1–16-7–2 (Fig. 7c). Seed sizes at descend order are *pCam5-atfae1* 28–3-6 (0.18 mm²)>WT (0.13 mm²)>*pCam5* 16–7-2



(0.12 mm²) > CL37 (0.09 mm²). The 100 seed weight of pCam5-atfae1 28–3-6 was 3.06 mg, significantly heavier than that of WT (2.16 mg/100 seeds), pCam5 1–16-7–2 (1.72 mg/100 seeds), and CL37 (1.7 mg/100 seeds) (Fig. 7c, d, e). Compared with CL37, pCam5-atfae1 28–3-6 increased by 100% in seed size and weighed 80% heavier. When compared with WT, pCam5-atfae1 28–3-6 exceeded by 40% both in seed size and weight.

To test the effect of HFA on seed germination and seedling development, seed germination rate and percentage of healthy seedlings (seedlings with open cotyledons) are counted. The time to reach 50% of the maximum germination (T50) was observed in the following equal or ascend order: WT (36 h) = *fae1* (36 h) = *pCam5* 1–12-8 (36 h) = *pCam5*-*atfae1* 5–10 (36 h) < *pCam5*-*atfae1* 28–3 (48 h) < *pCam5* 1–16-7 (60 h) (Fig. 8a). The time



to reach 50% of the maximum number of healthy seedlings is in the following ascend order: WT (60 h) < *fae1* (72 h) < *pCam5-atfae1* 5–10 (84 h) < *pCam5* 1–12-8 (96 h) = *pCam5-atfae1* 28–3 (96 h) = *pCam5* 1–16-7 (96 h) (Fig. 8b).

Comparison of seedling growth and mucilage among WT, *fae1* and *pCam5-atfae1*

To further examine the seedling growth, the leaf size and root length of the seedlings after 10 days of imbibement were measured for WT, *fae1* and *pCam5-atfae1*. As shown in Fig. 9, *fae1* had smaller leaf size and shorter root length than WT (Fig. 9). However, the leaf size of *pCam5-atfae1* is between WT and *fae1*, and the root length of *pCam5-atfae1* is statistically same as the of WT (Fig. 9). These results indicate that *pCam5atfae1* restored the growth inhibition by *fae1* to a level close to WT. It is reported that transgenic *Arabidopsis* expressing a T-6b oncogene from *A. tumefaciens* increased seed size and oil content in mature seeds but decreased seed starch and seed coat mucilage content at the same time [54]. We compared mucilage content among WT, *fae1* and *pCam5-atfae1*. As shown in Fig. 10, the mucilage content in *fae1* was reduced compared to that of WT, but in *pCam5-atfae1*, the mucilage content was restored to WT level (Fig. 10). The results indicated that *pCam5-atfae1* increased size but at the same time also increased seed coat mucilage content.

Discussion

The current commercial source of HFA is castor oil and its production is limited by undesirable agronomic traits [6]. To investigate if high levels of HFA can be produced in a common oilseed crop, we targeted multiple genes through different approaches. We devised a five-gene stacker, *pCam5*, that contained *RcFAH12*, *RcDGAT2*, *RcPDAT1-2*, *RcPDCT* and *RcLPCAT*. These genes encode key enzymes in the synthesis and incorporation of HFA into TAG (Fig. 1). We introduced pCam5 into Arabidopsis which has been used as a model to study non-native HFA accumulation in seed oil. Homozygous transgenic Arabidopsis lines expressing pCam5 produced total HFA at averages of 24-25.3% (Additional file 1: Table S3), which is comparable to previously reported HFA levels at 25-27% through co-expressing of single RcDGAT2 [41], RcPDAT1-2/RcPDAT1A [21, 26, 27], or RcPDCT [21] in CL37. However, CL37 is generated in the *fae1* background, so we assessed the effect of the elongase by knocking out AtFAE1 in pCam5 transgenics through gene editing. The pCam5-atfae1 lines increased total HFA content up to 29.1% (\pm 1.4% SD) (Additional file 1: Table S6; Fig. 5). Compared among CL37, pCam5 and pCam5-atfae1, 20:1OH and 20:1 were found only in pCam5 lines at averaging 3.1-3.4% and 12.7-13.4%, respectively (Additional file 1: Table S7; Fig. 5), indicating that the mutation of fae1 in CL37 or deletion of AtFAE1 in *pCam5-atfae1* prevented the elongation of 18:10H to 20:10H and 18:1 to 20:1, respectively. Considering similar levels of 18:2OH (averages 3.4-4.2%) displayed in *pCam5* and *pCam5-atfae1* (Additional file 1: Table S7), the increased total HFA in pCam5-atfae1 was due to the increased 18:10H content which rose from averages of 18.4-20.4% in pCam5 to averages 24.6-25.8% in pCam5atfae1 (Additional file 1: Table S7). The results indicated that efficient incorporation of 18:10H-CoA into TAG occurred in *pCam5-atfae1* and the increased 18:10H was at the expense of 20:10H. For non-HFA, the blocked production of 20:1 in *pCam5-atfae1* coincided with the increases of 16:0 from 9.6-9.7% to 12.1-12.4%, 18:1 from 19.7-20.2% to 23.9-26.9%, and 18:2 from 17.1-18.5% to 18.5-21.2% (Additional file 1: Table S7). It is expected that knocking out of AtFAE1 shifted 20:1 to 18:1. Since 18:1 was the substrate for FAD2 for synthesizing 18:2, an increase of 18:2 was also expected. However, the mechanisms of the increase of 16:0 were less clear. Based on 16:0 content in WT at 8.1% and in fael at 11.1% (Additional file 1: Table S4), similar levels were observed in *pCam5* at 9.6–9.7% and in *pCam5-atfae1* at 12.1–12.4% (Additional file 1: Table S7). The increase in 16:0 would not be directly associated with the expression of castor genes, it could be due to the changes that occurred in plastid during FA synthesis and/or in exporting of 16:0 to cytosol and ER for TAG assembly. We observed that *pCam5-atfae1* lines dramatically increased seed size and weight. pCam5-atfae1 28-3-6 showed 1.8-fold bigger or heavier than CL37, 1.5-fold bigger and 1.8-fold heavier than pCam5 1-16-1-7, and 1.4-fold bigger or heavier than WT (Fig. 7). Total FAME per seed was measured 1.8-, 1.7- and 1.2-fold higher than that of CL37, pCam5 1-16-1-7 and WT, respectively (Fig. 6b). The dramatic increases in seed size and weight indicated that the five Page 15 of 20

castor genes (*RcFAH12, RcDGAT2, RcPDAT1-2, RcLP-CAT, RcPDCT*) over-expressed and *AtFAE1* silenced in *pCam5-atfae1* lines co-ordinately may enhance the seed development and reserve accumulation, surpassing WT.

Increases of de novo FA biosynthesis and input of FA flux from plastid to ER must occur to support seed growth of pCam5-atfae1. Overexpression of RcFAH12 alone in WT Arabidopsis or various mutant backgrounds including CL37 accumulates limited HFA at approximately 17% in the seed oil and concomitantly reduces seed oil and weight [21, 26, 38-40, 42, 44] (Table 1). Arabidopsis utilizes mainly PC-derived DAG(2) to produce TAG [20, 55] (Fig. 1). The PC-derived DAG(2) is synthesized through de novo $DAG \rightarrow PC \rightarrow PC$ -derived DAG(2) [28] (Fig. 1). When RcFAH12 is expressed in Arabidopsis seeds, the de novo DAG containing 18:10H is not efficiently converted to 18:10H-PC by the Arabidopsis gene (e.g., AtPDCT), thus the converting step is a bottleneck to TAG synthesis. Over-expression of *RcP*-DCT in CL37 increases HFAs from 17% to 25-27% and recovered seed oil content as well [21] (Table 1). Besides, the last step of TAG synthesis catalyzed by DGAT or PDAT is also bottlenecks in CL37, as overexpression of RcDGAT2 or RcPDAT1A increases HFA content and recovers seed oil content [26, 27, 41]. RcPDCT, RcDGAT2 and RcPDAT1A have been demonstrated to facilitate the utilization of 18:10H to TAG through channeling 18:10H-CoA, 18:10H-DAG, and 18:10H-PC to TAG [21, 26, 27, 41]. Metabolic analysis reveals that feedback inhibition of de novo FA synthesis, mainly through posttranslational inhibition of acetyl-CoA carboxylase is triggered by unutilized HFA during TAG assembly, leads to reductions in HFA level and seed oil [46]. In fact, more efficient utilization of HFA for TAG synthesis by coexpression of RcDGAT2 or RcPDAT1A in CL37 alleviates the reduced acetyl-CoA carboxylase (ACCase) activity [46]. Compared with pCam5, pCam5-atfae1 accumulated more 18:1OH which is favorable substrate to castor genes. It is plausible that in *pCam5-atfae1* lines, the multiple bottlenecks were simultaneously overcome because of more efficient channeling of 18:10H into TAG by RcP-DCT, RcDGAT2, and RcPDAT1-2, which enhanced de novo FA synthesis and led to the increased TAG assembly and seed development.

Genetic modifications in *pCam5-atfae1* may provide additional metabolic enzyme complexes (metabolons) favorable in channeling C_{18} FA into TAG. In WT *Arabidopsis*, AtDGAT1 is the major enzyme that can rapidly utilize the PC-derived DAG(2) for TAG synthesis [28] (Fig. 1). Based on protein–protein interactions, AtDGAT1 interacts with AtPDCT and AtLPCAT2 [28], which forms a metabolon. The forward reaction of LPCAT transfers the acyl chain from

CoA to LPC [15, 56], and the reverse LPCAT reaction can directly produce acyl-CoA [18] to be utilized for TAG biosynthesis (Fig. 1). PDCT carries out head group exchange between PC and DAG and is the key enzyme responsible to generated PC-derived DAG(2). In pCam5-atfae1, RcLPCAT and RcPDCT could also interact with AtDGAT1 forming additional metabolons. Besides, the absence of AtFAE1 would eliminate the competition with LPCATs for substrate C₁₈ FA-CoA, allowing more C_{18} FA to be transferred to PC by LPCATs. Furthermore, RcLPCAT or RcPDCT has been shown strong activity in utilizing C_{18} FA [18, 22]. These features may collectively enable AtDGAT1 to assemble more PC-derived DAG(2) into TAG, resulting in increased seed oil biosynthesis. The PC-derived DAG(2) can turn to a larger and more slowly turned over bulk PC-derived DAG(3) pool, which is kept in equilibrium with PC by PDCT [28]. In the null mutant dgat1-1, AtPDAT1 becomes a major enzyme transferring FA from PC to form PC-derived DAG(3) [28] for TAG assembly [17, 57]. When RcDGAT2 is overexpressed in dgat1-1, RcDGAT2 competes with AtP-DAT1 for PC-derived DAG(3) [28]. Since RcDGAT2 interacts with AtPDCT, AtPDAT1, and AtLPCAT2 [28], it was likely additional metabolons were formed in *pCam5-AtFAE1* by interactions among enzymes from castor (RcDGAT2, RcPDAT1-2, RcPDCT, RcLP-CAT) and Arabidopsis (AtPDAT1, AtPDCT, AtLP-CAT2). These metabolons may efficiently utilize PC-derived DAG(3) for enhanced TAG accumulation in pCam5-atfae1. Although the exact mechanisms need to be investigated, pCam5 and pCam5-atfae1 provide important materials for metabolic studies to understand the metabolic complexes, substrate preference and pools, and pathways for TAG synthesis in seed oils.

We compared seed germination and seedling establishment among WT, fae1, pCam5, and pCam5-atfae1 (Fig. 8). Although seed germination and seedling establishment of *pCam5* and *pCam5-atfae1* lines were slower than that of WT and fae1, they all had a 92-100% germination rate in 4 days (Fig. 8), a reasonable time required for Arabidopsis seed germination [58]. After 6 days of seed imbibition, seedling establishment in pCam5 and pCam5-atfae1 reached 77-83% and 81-91%, respectively, slightly lower than that of WT or *fae1* at 97% (Fig. 8). The results indicate that seeds from *pCam5* and *pCam5-atfae1* are viable. We also compared seedling growth (Fig. 9) and seed coat mucilage content (Fig. 10) among WT, fae1 and pCam5-atfae1. Our results indicated that *pCam5-atfae1* recovered the adverse effect of fae1 on seedling growth and seed coat mucilage content. Therefore, pCam5-atfae1 increased seed size and oil content but displayed normal seedling growth and mucilage content. We are currently investigating if other carbohydrates such as sugar or starch are also proportionally increased in *pCam5-atfae1* seeds.

A pCam5-atfae1 line increased seed biomass and seed size by 40% compared to WT (Fig. 7). Before this research, the highest amount of HFA per seed is 1.81 µg HFA/seed [41] (Table 1), a *pCam5-atfae1* line produced 1.99 μ g HFA/seed, the highest amount of HFA in a seed ever achieved. Ectopic expression of an Agrobacterium tumefaciens T-DNA oncogene, T-6b, also increases Arabidopsis seed biomass, oil content and seed size by 10% [54]. This is due to, in part, the expression of *T-6b* resulting in increased expression of WRI1 and DGAT1 and ultimately increasing the seed TAG [54]. Until now, only Camelina has been transformed with castor FAH12, the resulted plants produce 15% HFA [59]. By co-expression of RcFAH12 and a lesquerella KCS18 (or *PfKCS3* and *PfFAE1*) [52], the resulted transgenics produce up to about 20.9% of HFA [60]. The similarity between Arabidopsis and Camelina as hosts to express castor gene for HFA production would allow to apply knowledge from Arabidopsis to other crops, including Camelina, rapeseed, and soybeans. Besides, the design of *pCam5* allows one transformation process to express five different key genes essential for HFA synthesis, which avoids two or more separated procedures and thus shorten the time to generate HFA-producing plants. Our strategies demonstrated in this study can help design future HFA-producing crops through genetic engineering.

Methods

Plant materials, Arabidopsis transformation and growth

Arabidopsis thaliana wild type, Columbia-0 (Col-0), was used for the transformation of recombinant vectors. CL37 transgenic plant producing 17% HFA was used as the control [38]. Wild type and transgenic plants were germinated in MS medium containing 1% sucrose, the seedlings were transferred to soil or were directly germinated, and then grown in soil. Arabidopsis was grown on a control growth chamber under the conditions of 22 °C, 16 h light/8 h dark photoperiod. The light intensity was 100 μ mol m⁻² s⁻¹. Agrobacterium strain, GV3101, was used to transform pCam5 (pCambia-set1-set2-set3-set4set5) vector into Arabidopsis Col-0 by floral dipping. The harvested seeds were selected on MS medium supplemented with 1% (w/v) sucrose, 10 mg/L DL-phosphinothricin (PPT), 100 mg/L of carbenicillin and 0.8% (w/v) plant agar. Selected T1 individuals showing resistance to PPT were transferred to soil for further experiments. T2 seeds and their decedents T3 and T4 were continued for PPT selection. As T2 seeds are segregating population, homozygous lines were identified by selecting T3 seeds with resistant to PPT and higher concentration of HFA than their segregants. Stable homozygous lines were further confirmed at T4 generation.

Plant expression vector construction for co-expression of five genes

A vector containing five castor genes was constructed as the following method. Five castor genes involved in HFA synthesis and accumulated in TAG were contained in a vector; each gene has each promoter and terminator. Each of the cDNA RcFAH12, RcPDAT1-2, RcDGAT2, RcPDCT and RcLPCAT were synthesized from mRNA isolated from castor developing seeds and cloned into pENTR/D-TOPO vector (Invitrogen, USA) to obtain pENTR-RcFAH12, pENTR-RcPDAT1-2, pENTR-RcDGAT2, pENTR-RcLPCAT and pENTR-RcPDCT, respectively. To minimize the gene silencing, three kinds of seed-specific promoters including phaseolin promoter from soybean, Arabidopsis FAE1 promoter from Arabidopsis and Brassica Napin promoter from Brassica napus were used [61-63]. These promoters were amplified by PCR with the promoter cloned using vectors pGEM-phaseolin, pMDC32-AtFAE1, and pMDC-Napin as templates, respectively. Nos and Pin II were used as two types of terminators. These sequences were obtained by PCR amplification of the PinII terminator from the pBI221 vector and Nos terminator from the pPZP-3'PINII-Bar vector. Primers were designed to ligate the promoter, gene, and terminator at once (Additional file 1: Table S8). Each of the PCR products was inserted into the pUC19 vector by the infusion cloning method. Five subcloning vectors were completed after sequencing. Each gene expression set (promoter-geneterminator) in five subcloning vectors was PCR-amplified using primers with unique restriction enzymes and cloned into the restriction site of the multi cloning site of the pCambia3300 plant expression vector stepwise. First, the Phas-FAH12-Nos set was inserted into EcoRI site of pCambia3300 and cloned to complete pCambia3300-Set1. Second, pCambia3300-set1-set2 was constructed by inserting the AtFAE1-RcPDAT1-2-PinII set into the SmaI site of pCambia3300-set1. Next, the Napin-RcLPCAT-Nos set was inserted into XbaI site to construct pCambia3300-set1-set2-set3. In addition, the pCambia3300-set4 was prepared by inserting the Phase-RcDGAT2-PinII set into the EcoRI/BamHI site in pCambia3300, and the AtFAE1-RcPDCT-Nos set was further inserted into the BamHI/HindIII site to prepare pCambia3300-set4-set5. To insert 5 gene expression sets into one vector, we cut the ApaI/HindIII in pCambia3300-set4 with ApaI/EcoRI in the vector of pCambia3300-set1-set2-set3 using ApaI site on one side and blunt-end ligation to construct pCambia3300– set2–set3–set4. In this vector, Phas-FAH12–Nos set1 was inserted into the *Eco*RI site again to construct pCambia2200–set1–set4–set2–set3. Finally, we constructed the pCambia3300–set1–set4–set2–set3–set5 (*pCam5*) by inserting the AtFAE1–RcPDCT–Nos set into the *Asc*I site of pCambia3300–set1–set4–set2–set3.

CRISPR/Cas9 vector cloning for Arabidopsis FAE1 knockout

To knockout the *Arabidopsis fatty acid elongase 1 (FAE1)* gene, two guide RNAs (5'-GCTGCAAAAGTCTTC CGCGG-3' and 5'-AAGTTAACCCTAGAGAGATC-3') were designed using the CRISPR–RGEN tool available online (http://www.rgenome.net). The *Bsa*I enzyme site was attached to the front of each primer and PCR was performed using the pCBC–DT1T2 vector as a template. The PCR product was purified by a PCR Purification kit (QIAGEN, Germany). This product was put into pHEE401E-egg vector and treated with *Bsa*I enzyme to proceed with the golden gate reaction [53]. After cloning, Sanger sequencing was performed to confirm whether the guide RNA sequence was in the vector. This vector was transformed into *pCam5* lines producing 25% HFA in seed oil.

Fatty acid analysis

The fatty acid composition and total oil content of Arabi*dopsis* seeds was analyzed using gas chromatography (GC). First, 500 μ l toluene and 500 μ l of 5% H₂SO₄ dissolved in methanol were added and methylation was performed in 85 °C water bath. Pentadecanoic acid (15:0) was used as the internal standard. After methylation at 85 °C for 2 h, the sample was cooled and 1 ml of 0.9% NaCl was added. Then 1 ml of n-hexane was added and violently mixed. The sample tube was centrifuged at 3000 rpm for 2 min. The supernatant was transferred to a new 6ml round tube. The step from adding 1 ml of n-hexane to transferring supernatant was repeated three times. After total of 3 ml supernatant was purged with nitrogen gas, the 200 µl of n-hexane was added thereto. The FAMEs dissolved were analyzed by GC-2010 plus (Shimadzu, Japan) with flame ionization detector and DB-23 column (30 m \times 0.25 mm, 0.25 μ m film, Agilent, USA). The range of oven temperature is from 190 °C to 230 °C at 3 °C/min.

Measure of seed length, width, size, and weight

Arabidopsis seed weight was measured using an electronic scale (OHAUS, USA) capable of measuring up to the fourth decimal point. The seed weight (n=100) was measured, followed by 3 repetitions, and then the mean values of the three lines were measured. To check the seed size, the length and width of 30 seeds were

measured using an optical microscope (NIKON, Japan) in triplicate. Seed sizes were calculated by multiplying the width by length using the software, Image J (http://imagej.nih.gov/ij/).

Measure of seed germination rate, cotyledon opening, seedling growth and mucilage

To measure the germination rate and seedling growth, the seed was sterilized in 70% ethanol for 1 min and 0.5% (w/v) NaOCl for 5 min and then washed in distilled water three times. The seeds were subjected to stratification at 4 °C for 3 days. Next, three repetitions of 30 seeds for germination test or 100 seeds for seedling growth observation were made on half strength of MS media containing 1% (w/v) sucrose and 0.8% (w/v) plant agar, and cultured in a culture chamber of 23 °C at 16 h light/8 h dark condition. The germination rate was measured at intervals of 12 h and confirmed up to 144 h. Germination rates were counted when a radicle emerged from the seed. Seedlings with two fully opened cotyledons at a 180-degree angle were considered healthy seedlings. The seedling growth was checked by measuring the leaf width in triplicate using the Image J program (n=3). The three repetitions of 50 seeds were stained with 0.01% ruthenium red to check the mucilage of the seed coat. All experiment steps for mucilage analysis were followed by a previously published paper [64]. To quantify the mucilage area, mucilage area was calculated except for seed area by HKBasic program using Eclipse Ci-L microscope (NIKON, Japan) and divided by seed area (n = 10).

Reverse transcriptase PCR and Quantitative RT-PCR

Total RNA was isolated from the developing siliques having different stages from 1 to 18 days after flowering. RNA extraction has followed the method mentioned in Onate-Sanchez et al. [65]. RNA concentration and quality were determined by measuring the A260/A280 ratio using a DS-11 spectrophotometer (Denovix, USA). RNA samples were treated with DNase I (Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA). 1 µg of cDNA was synthesized using a PrimeScript 1st strand cDNA synthesis kit (Takara, Japan) following the recommendation of the manufacturer. Total RNA was extracted in triplicate and RT-qPCR was performed in triplicate on each sample in StepOnePlus Real-Time PCR System (Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA) using SYBR green master mix (TOYOBO, Japan). The expression level was determined using the $\Delta\Delta CT$ method. The ΔCT value was obtained by subtracting the CT value of the target gene and the CT value of the endogenous control. In addition, we obtained ΔCT by subtracting the CT value of the treated group and the CT value of the control group. The relative expression levels were obtained by subtracting the two ΔCT values, which was a $\Delta \Delta CT$. After that, the value of $2^{(-\Delta\Delta C_T)}$ was obtained for a comparison of relative expression. eIF4a was used as a control gene to normalize relative expression level. For the expression of quantitative RT–PCR, the expression of each gene of DAF1 was set to 1. The primers of RT–PCR and RT– qPCR are described in Additional file 1: Table S9. The stages were divided into 6 stages for 18 days after flowering, indicating the seed development stage. For example, stage 1 indicates 1–3 days after flowering.

Abbreviations

TAG: Triacylglycerol; acyl-CoA: Acyl-coenzyme A; FA: Fatty acid; HFA: Hydroxy fatty acid; DAG: Diacylglycerol; PC: Phosphatidylcholine; FAH12: Oleate Δ 12-hydroxylase; GPAT: Glycerol-3-phosphate acyltransferase; LPAT: Lysophos-phatidic acid acyltransferase; DGAT: 1,2-s*n*-Diacylglycerol acyltransferase; PDAT: Phospholipid:DAG acyltransferase; LPCAT: Lyso-PC acyltransferase; PDCT: PC:DAG cholinephosphotransferase; FAE1: Fatty acid elongase 1; FAME: Fatty acid methyl ester; WT: Wild type; DW: Dry weight; ER: Endoplasmic reticulum; RT–PCR: Reverse transcription PCR; RT–qPCR: Quantitative reverse transcription PCR.

Supplementary Information

The online version contains supplementary material available at https://doi.org/10.1186/s13068-022-02167-1.

Additional file 1: Table S1. Fatty acid composition of T2 seeds from pCam5T1 plants. Table S2. Fatty acid composition of T3 seeds from pCam5 1 and pCam5 4 independent T2 plants (n = T3 line number) Table S3. Fatty acid composition of T4 seeds from pCam5 1–12, pCam5 1–16 and pCam5 4–5 independent T3 plants (n = T4 line number). Table S4. Fatty acid composition of T5 seeds from pCam5 1-12-8, pCam5 -16-7, pCam5 1–16-8 and pCam5 4–5-2 independent T4 plants (n = T5 line number). Table S5. Fatty acid composition of T2 seeds pCam5-atfae1 1-12 and pCam5-atfae1 1-16 independent T3 plants (n =T2 pCam5atfae1 line number). Table S6. Fatty acid composition of T3 seeds from pCam5-atfae1 5, pCam5-atfae1 9 and pCam5-atfae1 28 independent T2 plants (n=T3 pCam5-atfae1 line number). Table S7. Fatty acid composition of T4 seeds from pCam5-atfae1 5-9, pCam5-atfae1 28-3 independent T3 plants (n = T4 pCam5-atfae1 line number). Table S8. Promoter-geneterminator was linked by infusion method and primer list used for pUC19 subcloning. Table S9. Primers were used in this study.

Additional file 2: Fig. S1. Expression pattern of five transgenes (*RcFAH12*, *RcPDAT1-2*, *RcPDCT*, *RcLPCAT and RcDGAT2*) in the developing seed in *pCam5* 1–16-8 (a, b) and *pCam5-atfae1* 5–9 line (c, d). *AtACT2* and *elF4a* were used as controls for RT–PCR and RT–qPCR, respectively. *RcFAH12*, *RcPDAT1-2*, *RcPDCT*, *RcLPCAT* and *RcDGAT2* expression analyses were performed using their specific primers (Table S9). The stages were divided into 6 stages for 18 days after flowering (DAF). Stage 1: 1 ~ 3 DAF, stage 2: 4 ~ 6DAF, stage 3: 7 ~ 9 DAF, stage 4: 10 ~ 12 DAF, stage 5: 13 ~ 15 DAF, stage 6: 16 ~ 18 DAF.

Author contributions

HUK designed the research; MEP and HUK did experiments; MEP, KRL, and HUK analyzed the data and MEP, GQC and HUK wrote a manuscript. All the authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Funding

This work was supported by grants from the Mid-Career Researcher Program of the National Research Foundation of Korea (NRF-2020R1A2C2008175), Basic Science Research Program through the National Research Foundation of Korea (NRF) funded by the Ministry of Education (2021R1A6A3A13038532), the New Breeding Technologies Development Program (Project No. PJ016533), and the Next Generation BioGreen21 program (Project No. PJ015714), Rural Development Administration, Republic of Korea.

Availability of data and materials

All data generated or analyzed during this study are included in this published article and its Additional files.

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate Not applicable.

Consent for publication

Not applicable.

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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Received: 31 December 2021 Accepted: 9 June 2022 Published online: 18 June 2022

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