

Multiplex CRISPR/Cas9 editing of the long-chain acyl-CoA synthetase family in the diatom Phaeodactylum tricornutum reveals that mitochondrial ptACSL3 is involved in the synthesis of storage lipids

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- 1 Multiplex CRISPR/Cas9 editing of the long-chain acyl-CoA
- 2 synthetase family in the diatom *Phaeodactylum tricornutum* reveals
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- 4 lipids

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37 **Summary**

- Long-chain acyl-CoA synthetases (LACSs) play diverse and fundamentally important roles in
- 39 lipid metabolism. While their functions have been well-established in bacteria, yeast and plants,
- 40 the mechanisms by which LACS isozymes regulate lipid metabolism in unicellular oil-producing
- 41 microalgae, including the diatom *Phaeodactylum tricornutum*, remain largely unknown.
- 42 In P. tricornutum, a family of five genes (ptACSL1~5) encodes LACS activities. We
- 43 generated single *lacs* knockout/knockdown mutants using multiplexed CRISPR/Cas9 method, and
- determined their substrate specificities towards different fatty acids (FAs) and subcellular
- 45 localizations.
- ptACSL3 is localized in the mitochondria and its disruption led to compromised growth and
- 47 reduced triacylglycerol (TAG) content when cells were bubbled with air. The ptACSL3 mutants
- showed altered FA profiles in two galactoglycerolipids and phosphatidylcholine (PC) with
- 49 significantly reduced distribution of 16:0 and 16:1. ptACSL5 is localized in the peroxisome and its
- 50 knockdown resulted in reduced growth rate and altered molecular species of PC and TAG,
- 51 indicating a role in controlling the composition of acyl-CoAs for lipid synthesis.
- 52 Our work demonstrates the potential of generating gene knockout mutants with the mutation
- 53 of large fragment deletion using multiplexed CRISPR/Cas9 and provides insight into the functions
- of LACS isozymes in lipid metabolism in the oleaginous microalgae.
- Key words: Fatty acid, Long-chain acyl-CoA synthetase, Multiplexed CRISPR/Cas9,
- 57 Phaeodactylum tricornutum, Triacylglycerol.

Introduction

Fatty acids (FAs), a highly diverse class of molecules, have variable chain length and number
of double bonds and are building blocks for all membrane lipids and storage lipids in the cells.
They are essential molecules in almost all organisms. Different from that in animals and fungi,
which produce FAs primarily in the cytosol for lipid biosynthesis, in plants de novo synthesis of
FAs takes place in the plastid via a repeated cycle of reactions with fatty acyl intermediates
covalently attached to acyl carrier protein (ACP), providing 16:0-, 18:0- and 18:1-ACP as the final
products (Ohlrogge and Browse, 1995). These fatty acyl-ACP thioesters can serve as substrates to
plastid-localized acyltransferases and feed directly into the "prokaryotic" lipid synthesis pathway
to produce phosphatidylglycerol (PG) and other thylakoid lipids such as
sulfoquinovosyldiacylglycerol (SQDG), monogalactosyldiacylglycerol (MGDG), and
digalactosyldiacylglycerol (DGDG) in the plastid (Heinz and Roughan 1983; Jessen et al. 2015).
Alternatively, the current model proposes that a part of acyl-ACPs are hydrolyzed in the plastid
stroma by the action of acyl-ACP thioesterase to release free FAs that are targeted for export from
the plastid. Once activated into fatty acyl-CoAs, these acyl groups can enter the eukaryotic
pathway in the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) for incorporation into extraplastid membrane lipids
and storage lipids. In addition, plastid-derived FAs are also substrates for eukaryotic pathway to
synthesize important lipid precursors, like phosphatidic acid (PA) and diacylglycerol (DAG),
which are imported back to the plastid for thylakoid lipid biosynthesis. This two-pathway
hypothesis for thylakoid lipid biosynthesis was originally postulated by Roughan and Slack
(Roughan et al., 1980; Roughan and Slack, 1982), supported by specific acyl compositions of lipid
molecular species derived from the plastid and ER pathways (Heinz and Roughan 1983), and later
corroborated by genetic and biochemical analysis of several mutants in the model plant
Arabidopsis thaliana (Kunst et al. 1988; Wallis and Browse 2002; Xu et al. 2008). In contrast to
plants that contain the primary plastids with a two-membrane envelope, evidence is lacking to
support such a similar pathway for phospholipid trafficking from the ER to chloroplasts to form
galactolipids in photosynthetically active stramenopiles with a secondary plastid surrounded by
four limiting membranes, such as the eustigmatophyte <i>Nannochloropsis</i> sp. and the diatom <i>P</i> .
tricornutum. In these photosynthetic eukaryotes, MGDG and DGDG are characterized by a high
content of 20:5, which is synthesized in the ER from the initial substrate of plastid-exported 16:0.

90 pathway" (Petroutsos et al. 2014; Dolch et al. 2017). In plants, before becoming accessible to the "eukaryotic" lipid synthesis pathway, free FAs 91 92 need to be activated by esterification with CoA to form acyl-CoA thioesters as they are chemically inert. The activation of free FAs to form fatty acyl-CoAs is catalyzed by long-chain acyl-CoA 93 94 synthetases (LACSs, EC 6.2.1.3). This reaction occurs in two steps. First, the free FA reacts with 95 ATP to generate an intermediate fatty acyl-AMP (acyl adenylate) with the release of 96 pyrophosphate. In the second step, the enzyme bound acyl-AMP reacts with CoA to form acyl-97 CoA, with the release of AMP (Groot et al., 1976). In photosynthetic stramenopiles, LACS 98 activity is likely to be not only required for activation of free FAs (16:0 and 16:1) exported from 99 the plastid, but also involved in the downstream 16:0-to-20:5 route in which it provides activated 100 FAs for FA elongases and acyltransferases. 101 LACS activities have been localized in various subcellular compartments including the 102 chloroplast, cytoplasm, ER, peroxisome, mitochondria and oil bodies. The physiological function 103 of LACS in cellular homeostasis, particularly in lipid metabolism, has been studied in detail in 104 bacteria (Black and DiRusso 1994; Black et al. 1997), yeast (Færgeman et al. 2001; Zou et al. 2003) and plants (Lü et al. 2009; Weng et al. 2010; Jessen et al. 2011, 2015; Zhao et al. 2010, 105 2019). Like higher plants, plastids of photosynthetic microalgae are also the principle site for de 106 107 novo FA synthesis while further desaturation and chain elongation occur in the ER and fatty acyl catabolism takes place in the mitochondria and/or peroxisome via β -oxidation. We previously 108 109 reported the identification of five LACS genes in the diatom *Phaeodactylum tricornutum* that can 110 synthesize and accumulate large amounts of TAGs at stationary phase of growth and under stress 111 conditions, particularly nitrogen starvation (Guo et al. 2014). Although the LACS isozymes have 112 been identified in *Phaeodactylum*, the functional role of individual LACS in lipid metabolism, 113 especially their contribution to storage lipid biosynthesis, remains largely unknown. In the past ten 114 years, development of genome-editing techniques, such as the mutagenesis with transcription 115 activator-like effector nucleases (TALENs) and the CRISPR/Cas9 method (Weyman et al. 2015; 116 Daboussi et al. 2014; Serif et al. 2018; Moosburner et al. 2020), has allowed us to generate targeted and stable modification of the diatom genome to address the functions of key genes. 117 118 Considering acyl-CoA thioesters as key building blocks required for acyl-CoA-dependent TAG

After synthesis in the ER, 20:5 needs to be imported into the plastid through the unknown "omega

biosynthesis, we here used multiplexed CRISPR/Cas9 method to generate *lacs* single mutants and to assess the contribution of each ptLACS isozyme to lipid biosynthesis. In addition, we determined their subcellular localizations, protein expression patterns and enzyme activities. Our results advance the understanding on the functions of LACS isozymes in lipid metabolism in oil-accumulating unicellular microalgae.

Materials and methods

Strains and growth conditions

P. tricornutum strain Pt1 WT and derived mutants were grown in artificial seawater (ASW) media with F/2 nutrients (Guillard 1975) at 22°C under white fluorescent lights (50 μmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹) with a 12h:12 h light-dark cycle, and additional supplementation of 100 mg L⁻¹ Zeocin was included for mutants. For time-course growth experiments in static culture, 200-mL algal cultures of were grown in batch mode for 12 d with an initial addition of inoculum to give a starting cell density of around 5×10⁶ cells mL⁻¹. For growth experiments with aeration, duplicate 300-mL cultures were bubbled for 9 d with air supply sterilized by filtration through 0.22 μm Millipore filters. Samples were taken daily for cell counting and measurement of Nile Red fluorescence and nitrate concentration. For the immunoblot experiment, algal cells were grown in N-replete F/2 medium to the exponential phase and then transferred to N-free medium for additional 72 h, or to N-replete medium bubbled with air, 1%, 4% and 10% CO₂ enriched air for additional 6 h.

Plasmid construction

Plasmids for generation of *Phaeodactylum ptACSL* mutants using CRISPR/Cas9 method were constructed as described by Moosburner et al. (2020). To construct eGFP fusion plasmids, full-length ptACSL sequences were cloned into the multiple cloning sites (MCSs) of the expression vector pPha-CG/ pPha-NG. For self-assembling split GFP constructs, we used the pPha-Dual vector that harbors two MCSs for gene cloning. Details are described in supporting information Methods S1. All the plasmids and primer sequences used in this study were listed in Table S1 and S2.

Generation of ptACSL1-5 knock out/down lines

For editing of each *ptACSL* gene, six sgRNAs were designed in the coding region, namely gRNA1 to gRNA6. Every three sites were designed to be assembled in a single vector carrying Cas9 and

149	zeocin resistance cassette via Golden Gate cloning. Transformation of <i>Phaeodactylum</i> via
150	bacterial-mediated conjugation and screening were carried out as described previously
151	(Moosburner et al. 2020). For genotypic characterization, algal cell lysates served as the PCR
152	templates and primers listed in Table S2 were used to amplify the various loci of interest. Cas9-
153	induced mutation for each ptACSL gene was analyzed by direct sequencing of PCR products
154	containing the targeted sites. The Inference of CRISPR Edits tool (ICE, Synthego,
155	https://ice.synthego.com) was used to genotype Phaeodactylum mutant lines. It offers the indel
156	(insertion or deletion) type and the overall indel percentage (editing efficiency) by decoding of all
157	the sequencing chromatograms with monoallelic mutation, homozygous and heterozygous
158	biallelic mutations, which result in superimposed sequencing chromatograms.
159	In vitro LACS enzyme assay
160	Recombinant <i>Phaeodactylum</i> ptACSL proteins were produced from <i>E. coli</i> BL21 (DE3) pLysS and
161	purified with Ni-NTA affinity column (Novagen). LACS enzyme activity was measured
162	spectrophotometrically using an enzyme-coupled assay (Horswill and Escalante-Semerena 2002;
163	Methods S1). Determination of kinetic constants of recombinant ptACSLs was described in Method
164	S1.
165	Transformation of Phaeodactylum tricornutum
166	All the plasmids of GFP fusions were transformed into Phaeodactylum by microparticle
167	bombardment using Bio-Rad Biolistic PDS-1000/He Particle Delivery System (Bio-Rad
168	Laboratories, Hercules, CA) as previously described (Zaslavskaia et al. 2000). Bacterial-mediated
169	conjugation was used to introduce Cas9-ShBle:sgRNA episome into Phaeodactylum as described
170	by Karas et al. (2015). Resistant colonies were selected on F/2 media supplemented with 100 μg
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172	mL ⁻¹ zeocin.
1,2	mL-1 zeocin. Immunoblotting
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	Immunoblotting
173	Immunoblotting Antibodies for ptACSL1 and ptACSL4 were generated as described previously (Chen et al. 2018).
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173 174 175 176	Immunoblotting Antibodies for ptACSL1 and ptACSL4 were generated as described previously (Chen et al. 2018). The polyclonal antibodies that specifically recognize ptACSL2, ptACSL3 and ptACSL5 were raised by immunizing rabbits with purified full-length recombinant proteins. The expression of ptACSL1-5 was examined by immunoblotting as described in Methods S1.

Abida et al. (2015). The *sn*-position of FAs on individual glycerolipids and quantification of each molecular species were analyzed by preferential loss using MS and MS2 analysis and liquid chromatography-MS/MS, respectively, as previously described (Jouhet et al. 2017). For detailed analysis of the change of TAG molecular species, TAGs were isolated by TLC from total lipids of WT and the *ptACSL3* mutants grown at static (day 11) and air-bubbled (day 7) conditions, and LC-MS method was used to quantify each molecular species of TAGs as described by Xie et al. (2020) (Methods S1).

RNA-seq analysis

WT and the *ptACSL3* mutants were grown in static culture for 6 d and then transferred to the cultures bubbled with filtered air for additional 4 d. Cells were harvested at 2 d, 3 d, and 4 d for RNA-seq and samples under static culture for 6 d were used as control (0 d). Three biological replicates of WT and the *ptACSL3* mutant and of each condition were processed for total RNA isolation using TRIzol reagent (Invitrogen, USA), and RNA sequencing were performed by the Illumina NovaSeq 6000 platform. RNA-seq reads were aligned to the Ensemble reference genome and gene model annotation files. The DESeq2 R package (1.20.0) was used to detect differential expressed genes (DEGs) between the WT and mutants. The DEGs were subjected to gene ontology (GO) enrichment analysis with a clusterProfiler R package (Methods S1).

Results

Substrate specificities of ptACSL1-5 determined by in vitro enzyme assay

The purified recombinant ptACSL proteins served as enzyme sources in LACS activity assays, using different free FAs as a substrate. The tested substrates are endogenous FAs and some are present in a high proportion in acyl lipids of *Phaeodactylum*. We used an enzyme-coupled method for measurement of LACS activity (Horswill and Escalante-Semerena 2002). Substrate specificities and catalytic efficiencies of ptACSL1–5-catalyzed reactions were determined by varying concentrations of free FAs with fixed saturating concentrations of ATP and CoA. The plots of initial velocities versus free FA concentrations were fitted to the Michaelis-Menten equation to determine the $K_{\rm m}$, $k_{\rm cat}$, and $k_{\rm cat}/K_{\rm m}$ values. As shown in Table 1, $K_{\rm m}$ values for all five ptACSLs were in the range of 27–451 μ M, and all five ptACSL enzymes exhibited LACS activity for oleic acid (18:1n-9) with $k_{\rm cat}/K_{\rm m}$ values ranging from 1851 to 5912 M⁻¹ s⁻¹. When supplied with different FA substrates, ptACSL1 proved to be the most active and have the highest catalytic efficiency ($k_{\rm cat}/K_{\rm m}$, the constant that better measures the specificity for the substrate), with EPA, with a value exceeding by 2 orders

of magnitude that measured in presence of 16:0. Similarly, ptACSL4 also displayed a preference for EPA, with a k_{cat}/K_m value 5- and 184-fold higher than those obtained with the two other FAs tested. Additionally, of the five LACS enzymes, ptACSL5 is only LACS showing no any activity for EPA. The K_m values determined for ptACSL5, which reflect the binding affinity of an enzyme for a substrate, indicate that ptACSL5 had the greatest affinity for 18:0 with K_m value of 45 μ M. These data show that recombinant ptACSL proteins exhibit a difference in specificities towards free FAs, and ptACSL1 and ptACSL4 have the highest catalytic efficiency for EPA, the most abundant very long-chain polyunsaturated FA (VLC-PUFA) detected in *Phaeodactylum*.

Subcellular localization of LACS isozymes in Phaeodactylum

ptACSL1 was previously reported to be localized in the plastid (Chen et al. 2018). To study its precise membrane location, we used the GFP self-assembling system (Cabantous et al., 2005) to determine the localization and orientation of ptACSL1. In this GFP reporter system, the last beta strand of GFP (GFP_S11) was attached to the C-terminus of ptACSL1 and the beta strands 1-10 (GFP_S1-10) were C-terminally fused either to a cER (chloroplast endoplasmic reticulum) marker to be expressed in the ER lumen or expressed as a cytosolically localized large GFP_S1-10 fragment. These constructs were transformed into *Phaeodactylum*, and a cER-characteristic GFP fluorescence could be observed only when a fusion protein consisting of full-length sequence of ptACSL1 and GFP_S11 was simultaneously expressed with the large GFP_S1-10 fragment. In contrast, expression of the same ptACSL1 fusion protein with a cER-targeted PDI-GFP_S1-10 (PDI) fusion construct resulted in the absence of detectable fluorescence signal (Fig.1). This indicates a localization of ptACSL1 in the cER or cER membrane (outermost membrane of the complex plastid) with a C-terminal orientation towards the cytoplasm. The hydrophobicity plot predicted a short transmembrane region at the N-terminus of ptACSL1, it is thus possibly localized in the cER membrane with the C-terminus facing the cytoplasm.

The attachment of ptACSL2 to GFP (ptACSL2:eGFP) caused GFP fluorescence to be located in the cytoplasm. In the transformants harboring ptACSL4:GFP fusion construct, GFP signal was also mainly dispersed throughout the cytoplasm. Fusion of ptACSL3 with GFP led to the mitochondria-characteristic fluorescence, indicating its location in the mitochondria that are in close proximity to the complex plastid. A peroxisomal targeting signal (PTS) type 1 (SKL), which is necessary for targeting and import of cytosolically expressed proteins into peroxisomes, was found to be located at the extreme C-terminus of the ptACSL5 isoform. For *in vivo* localization study we

fused eGFP upstream of full-length sequence of ptACSL5 to ensure the PTS remained accessible, and this eGFP:ptACSL5 fusion construct resulted in a punctate GFP fluorescence pattern (Fig.1), confirming its peroxisomal localization in transfected *Phaeodactylum* cells.

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Immunoblot analyses of ptACSL accumulation in response to nitrogen deprivation and elevated CO₂

Nitrogen-starved *Phaeodactylum* cells are capable of accumulating large amounts of TAGs, the major storage compounds for FAs. Lipid accumulation also increased in *Phaeodactylum* cells grown in seawater in response to elevated atmospheric CO₂ concentration (Jensen et al. 2019). We thus studied the expression of LACSs in response to nitrogen deprivation and increased CO₂ supply. Using ptACSL-specific antibody (Fig.S1), we detected the protein levels by Western blot in Phaeodactylum cells grown in F/2 media with nitrogen deprivation and supplied with different concentrations of CO₂. As shown in Fig.2a, the expression of ptACSL1-4 proteins was regulated by nitrogen deprivation while ptACSL5 showed a constant expression, suggesting differential expressions of these LACS isozymes upon nitrogen deprivation at protein levels . The expression of ptACSL1 and ptACSL3 was induced by nitrogen deprivation and their abundances peaked at 72 h. By contrast, the level of ptACSL2 was very high under nitrogen-replete condition but it declined during the time course of nitrogen deprivation. When cells were grown at atmospheric CO2 and at high CO₂ (1%, 4% and 10%), the expression of ptACSL1, 2 and 4 was slightly suppressed at high CO₂ compared to that at atmospheric CO₂. Notably, the expression of ptACSL3 was upregulated at elevated CO₂ and reached the highest level at 4% CO₂ concentration followed by a decline at 10% CO₂ concentration (Fig.2b).

Multiplex CRISPR/Cas9 system induced mutation of single ptACSL gene

We used multiplex CRISPR/Cas9 genome editing system to generate single knockout (KO) mutants for each *ptACSL* gene (Moosburner et al. 2020). For creating the single gene mutants for all five ptACSL genes, we prepared ten Cas9-sgRNA episome-based constructs, each carrying three sgRNA expression cassettes to target three different sites within a single *ptACSL* gene (Fig.3a). The final vectors expressing Cas9 and the sgRNA assay were transformed into *Phaeodactylum*, and PCR followed by Sanger sequencing was conducted to detect targeted mutations. Detailed analysis of total 246 sequenced sites from all five ptACSL genes showed that most colonies have a mixed

genotype, which consists of wild-type (WT) sequence, nucleotide deletion and a very low percentage of nucleotide insertion. We compared the editing efficiencies of target mutations induced by different numbers of gRNAs, and found that mutation frequency of nucleotide insertion induced by double gRNAs was two-fold higher than that induced by a single gRNA. In double gRNAsinduced mutations, the frequencies of deletions with 1-10 bp in size was slightly higher than that of single gRNA-induced mutations while the frequencies of deletions with 10-30 bp in size were similar (Fig.3b). Notably, we also detected homozygous biallelic mutations with large fragment deletions (158-230 bp) between two cleavage sites in some colonies. Homozygous biallelic mutations occurred in a varied frequency among different ptACSL genes, with the highest mutagenesis frequency of 30% in ptACSL4 and the lowest frequency of 2.5% in ptACSL1 (Fig.3c). We propagated these *Phaeodactylum* mutant lines in liquid media and then plated dilutions to obtain single colonies. Further sequencing was conducted to detect the targeted mutations, and it showed that the percentage of homozygous biallelic mutations was greatly increased. Finally, we confirmed the absence of wild-type gene using PCR with genomic DNA prepared from these sequenced single colonies. For this purpose, we designed a pair of primers with one being located in the region of fragmental deletion (between two active cleavage sites) while the other outside it and corresponding to the non-editing region (Figs 4a, 4b). For instance, genomic PCR showed that the expected DNA bands could be observed in WT/control colonies, while there was no DNA band in the ptACSL1 or ptACSL3 KO mutants (Figs 4c, 4d). Mutation of long fragment deletions was also verified using reverse transcription PCR (RT-PCR), indicating the complete lack of detectable expression of ptACSL genes (Figs 4e, 4f). Using this method, we obtained the single KO mutants for ptACSL1, ptACSL2, ptACSL3, and ptACSL4, and knockdown mutants for ptACSL5 (Figs 4, S2). Therefore, creating long deletions with multiple gRNAs should be a more efficient approach to achieve targeted mutagenesis, and a rapid and low-cost PCR-based method could be used to screen positive KO colonies, not relying on expensive genotyping methods such as high-throughput next generation sequencing. Finally, we selected three independent mutant lines for each ptACSL single mutants for further phenotyping.

Growth and lipid content of ptACSL knockout mutants

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To evaluate the influence of mutations on cell growth and lipid accumulation, we carried out time-course growth experiments using single mutants for each *ptACSL* gene under both static culture

and air-bubbling conditions. During both 12 days of static cultivation and 9 days of growth with airbubbling, there was no difference in cell density, nitrate concentration in the media, and neutral lipid content revealed by Nile Red fluorescence intensity between WT and either ptACSL1, ptACSL2 or ptACSL4 mutants (Figs 5a, 5b, S3, S4). Interestingly, in static condition, there was a significant increase in neutral lipid content in the *ptACSL3* mutants since day 7, at which nitrate concentration was reduced to as half as the initial concentration (Figs 5b, 5c). The ptACSL3 mutants accumulated more TAGs compared with WT, which was revealed by a thin-layer chromatography (TLC) analysis of lipids from these algal samples (Fig.5d). We further evaluated the growth of the mutants under lower or higher temperature, and found there was no difference in growth between WT and the ptACSL3 mutants at 15°C in static culture (Fig.S5a). By contrast, WT cells grew slowly when the temperature was increased to 28°C while the growth of the ptACSL3 mutants was almost arrested (Fig.S5b). However, when algal cultures were bubbled with air (low CO₂, ~0.04% vol/vol CO₂), cell densities of both ptACSL1 and ptACSL3 mutants were significantly reduced compared with WT (Fig.5e), especially after 6 days of growth. Indeed, while nitrate in the F/2 media in WT was almost exhausted at day 6, nitrate concentration in the ptACSL3 mutants was reduced to the lowest level at day 8 (Fig.5f). Therefore, neutral lipid content was significantly reduced in the ptACSL3 mutants after day 7 in comparison with WT, maybe because nitrogen starvation starts a bit later in ptACSL3 mutants. TLC also showed that the ptACSL3 mutants accumulated less TAGs, especially at day 7 (Figs 5g, 5h). In bubbled air condition, we observed a slower growth of the ptACSL5 knockdown mutants compared with WT from day 4 and nitrate was almost exhausted at day 5 for both WT and the mutants. However, the impairment of ptACSL5 did not result in a change of neutral lipid content, which was revealed by Nile red staining (Fig.S6).

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ptACSL3 mutation affects TAG synthesis and fatty acid profiles of glycoglycerolipids when algal culture is bubbled with air

FAs and lipids from WT and the *ptACSL3* mutants were analyzed at the exponential (6 d) and stationary phases (9 d) of growth. When cells were bubbled with filtered air and harvested at dusk, total FA accumulation in the exponential phase was decreased from 738 nmol mg⁻¹ of dry cell weight (dcw) in WT to 592 nmol mg⁻¹ of dcw in the *ptACSL3* mutants. In the stationary phase, total FA content declined from 1137 nmol mg⁻¹ of dcw in WT to 811 nmol mg⁻¹ of dcw in the *ptACSL3* mutants. KO of *ptACSL3* significantly reduced total FA accumulation relative to WT,

indicating that de novo FA synthesis is inhibited in the ptACSL3 mutants. As the major FAs synthesized in the chloroplast, palmitic acid (16:0) and palmitoleic acid (16:1) showed significantly reduced accumulation. The level of 16:0 was reduced from 132 nmol mg⁻¹ of dcw in WT to an average of 89 nmol mg⁻¹ of dcw in the exponential phase, and from 331 to 189 nmol mg⁻¹ ¹ of dcw in the stationary phase. Similarly, the level of 16:1 was also decreased in the mutants at both growth phases (Fig. 6a). KO of ptACSL3 did not change the accumulation of other FA including the abundant EPA. Analysis of FA profiles revealed a significant decrease in the proportions of 16:0, 16:1 and 18:1 balanced by an increase in 16:2, 16:3 and 20:5 in the ptACSL3 mutants relative to WT at both growth phases (Fig.6b). Glycerolipidomic analysis was performed to determine how the inactivation of ptACSL3 influenced lipid class composition and the distribution of different molecular species within each lipid class. Compared to WT, disruption of the ptACSL3 gene led to a significant reduction of TAG (76%, p<0.0001), DAG (50%, p<0.01) and DGTA (46%, p<0.05) and an increase in every phospholipid, i.e. phosphatidylglycerol (PG), phosphatidylinositol (PI), phosphatidylethanolamine (PE) and phosphatidylcholine (PC) in the exponential phase (Fig.7a). With the depletion of nitrogen, WT accumulated large amounts of TAGs in the stationary phase, accounting for 48% of total glycerolipids. However, the relative content of TAG was reduced to 25% in the ptACSL3 mutant (48% reduction, p<0.001) (Fig.7a). In addition to TAG, the ptACSL3 mutants also showed lower DAG content (51% reduction at the exponential phase, p<0.01; 43% reduction at the stationary phase, p<0.01). The decrease in the proportions of DAG and TAG in the ptACSL3 mutants was compensated by a significant increase in PC (5-fold increase, p<0.0001) and three abundant thylakoid glycolipids (55% increase in SQDG, p<0.05; 47% increase in MGDG, p<0.0001; and 78% increase in DGDG, p<0.001) in the stationary phase (Fig.7a). Further quantification of molecular species showed that at both growth phases, both MGDG and DGDG in the ptACSL3 mutants had a significant decrease in the proportions of molecular species containing 16:0/16:0 and 16:1/16:0. In MGDG of the ptACSL3 mutants, 16:0/16:0 and 16:1/16:0 represent two species in which 16:0 is mainly enriched; 16:1 is distributed in seven molecular species, among which four species (14:0/16:1, 16:1/16:0, 16:1/16:2, and 16:1/18:1) showed significantly decreased levels while others (16:1/16:1, 16:1/16:3, and 20:5/16:1) remained unchanged at the stationary phase (Fig. 7b, Table S1). DGDG contains mainly nine molecular

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species and 16:0 is esterified in three species. Although the level of 20:5/16:0 was slightly
increased in the <i>ptACSL3</i> mutants, 16:0/16:0 and 16:1/16:0 that contained the highest proportion
of 16:0 showed a pronounced decrease (Fig.7c, Table S1). These results suggest that the most
abundant galactoglycerolipids MGDG and DGDG in the ptACSL3 mutants had less 16:0 and 16:1,
which is also supported by the analysis of FA composition of these two galactoglycerolipids (Figs
S7, S8). As molecular species of MGDG and DGDG containing 16:0/16:0 and 16:1/16:0 in their
DAG backbone are thought to be derived from the prokaryotic pathway, the impairment of
ptACSL3 led to a pronounced alteration of FA profiles of chloroplast membrane lipids. In the
plastid, 16:0 and 16:1 are released as acyl-ACPs from the FA synthase, and then transferred to
glycerol backbone of galactoglycerolipids. This process does not require the activated form of
acyl-CoA thioesters. Therefore, the reduction of 16:0 and 16:1 in two galactoglycerolipids in the
ptACSL3 mutants reflects an inhibition of plastidic de novo FA synthesis. In the ptACSL3 mutants,
MGDG contained more 16:2/16:3, 16:3/16:3, 20:5/16:2, 20:5/16:3, and 20:5/16:4, while DGDG
had higher levels of 20:5/16:0, 20:5/16:1, 20:5/16:2, and 20:5/16:3 at the stationary phase (Figs
7b, 7c, Table S1). This change suggests that the chloroplast membrane lipids in the mutants
contained more polyunsaturated FAs when compared with WT. More than ten FAs were found to
be at the sn-2 position of PC, where 16:0 was enriched in two molecular species (PC16:1/16:0 and
20:5/16:0) and 18:1 was found in the other two species (PC16:1/18:1 and 18:2/18:1). The
proportions of all these four molecular PC species and one species having two C18 acyl chains
(18:2/18:2) were significantly/slightly reduced in the <i>ptACSL3</i> mutants at both growth phases
(Fig.7d, Supporting information Dataset S1), which was compensated by an increase in 16:1/16:1
and 20:5-containing molecular species (20:5/16:1, 20:5/18:2, 20:5/18:3 and 20:5/22:6). Taken
together, in air bubbled condition, the impairment of ptACSL3 led to a significant reduction of
TAG accumulation, an increase in phospholipid content and a strong alteration in FA profiles of
MGDG, DGDG and PC with reduced distribution of 16:0, 16:1 and 18:1 in these lipid classes.
To examine whether molecular species of TAG was affected in the ptACSL3 mutants, we
used LC-MS to analyze TAG composition of the WT and mutants grown under static condition
and in the bubbling of air. A heat map showing the variation of percentage abundance of 20 major
TAG species as the effect of <i>ptACSL3</i> disruption under both conditions revealed that the levels of
three most abundant TAG species accounting for over 10% of total TAG species (48:1

(16:0/16:0/16:1), 48:2 (16:0/16:1/16:1) and 48:3 (16:1/16:1/16:1)) were not changed. When algal cultures were bubbled with filtered air, the levels of two molecular TAG species, including 50:1 (16:0/18:1/16:0) and 50:2 (16:1/18:1/16:0), and all 20:5/22:6-containing molecular species were decreased in the *ptACSL3* mutants compared with WT (Fig.8a). The decrease in percentage abundance of 18:1- and 20:5-containing TAG species in the *ptACSL3* mutants was in accordance with the substrate selectivity of ptACSL3 isozyme towards these two FAs from *in vitro* enzyme assay (Table 1). In the static culture, the *ptACSL3* mutants accumulated more TAGs than WT with no reduced growth rate. However, TAG profiling showed that there was also no difference in percentage abundance in three most abundant TAG species (48:1, 48:2 and 48:3) between the *ptACSL3* mutants and WT, and the levels of only three molecular species accounting for less than 3% of total TAG species, TAG 50:3 (16:1/18:1/16:1), 50:4 (16:1/16:1/18:2) and 50:5 (16:1/16:1/18:3) were increased in the *ptACSL3* mutants (Fig.8b).

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Impacts of the ptACSL3 KO on transcriptional change upon the transition of growth state

Because the ptACSL3 mutants showed different change of TAG accumulation under static culture (slow growth state) and in the culture bubbled with filtered air (rapid growth state), we performed mRNA-seq analysis to obtain mechanistic insight into the transcriptome response of Phaeodactylum to the shift of growth state. The global gene expression of Phaeodactylum as a function of time (i.e., over three time points, 2, 3, and 4 d) under the bubbling of air and static condition (0 d) was measured by mRNA-seq. A total of 5,622 genes, accounting for 45% of all the annotated genes in the Phaeodactylum genome (http://protists.ensembl.org/Phaeodactylum tricornutum/Info/Index/), were aligned with at least one read (FPKM [Fragments Per Kilobase of transcript per Million mapped reads] value >10) in each biological sample (Supporting information Dataset S2). Based on the definition of differential gene expression, 746 genes were found to be significantly regulated at more than one time point in either WT or the mutant sample (Dataset S2). Growth state transition led to strong transcriptomic responses, which was revealed by the gradually increased numbers of differentially expressed genes (DEGs) during the growth in air-bubbling cultures. Compared with the static culture (0 d), 1937, 2543, and 3830 genes were significantly regulated (P<0.05) at 2 d, 3 d, and 4 d respectively in WT; while 2986, 3342, and 3913 genes were detected to be differentially expressed at 2 d, 3 d, and 4 d respectively in the ptACSL3 mutants. We used these DEG datasets to perform GO analysis with the

Phaeodactylum genome as the reference, and found that the most obvious difference in the enriched GO terms between WT and the *ptACSL3* mutant was observed at 2 d. In WT, these DEGs were mainly enriched for cell division and structural constituent of ribosome at 2 d; whereas in the *ptACSL3* mutants the most over-represented GO term was "mitochondria" (Figs 9a, 9b).

In the mitochondria of most eukaryotes, both tricarboxylic acid cycle and FA β-oxidation occur, which play a central role in the catabolism of organic fuel molecules such as glucose, FAs and amino acids. Mitochondria contain the full enzymatic machinery to oxidize FAs. After the conversion of FAs into CoA esters by a LACS enzyme, the acyl-CoA esters can enter the β-oxidation spiral starting via the well-established cascade of four steps involving dehydrogenation, hydratation, dehydrogenation again and thiolytic cleavage of the acyl-CoA esters. We further determined if the expression patterns of genes associated with mitochondrial FA β-oxidation were affected in the ptACSL3 mutants. In WT, genes encoding carnitine O-acyltransferase (CAT, Phatr3 J859), enoyl-CoA hydratase/3-hydroxyl-CoA dehydrogenase (HADA, Phatr3 J35240) and β-ketoacyl-CoA thiolase (KCT3, Phatr3 J28068) known as the mitochondrial trifunctional protein β-subunit, were induced after growth state transition. However, the expression of these genes was downregulated or remained unchanged (Fig.9c). Moreover, the expression of genes encoding carnitine Oacyltransferase (CAT2, Phatr3 J48078), acyl-CoA dehydrogenase (MACAD1, J11014) catalyzing the first step in β-oxidation, and 3-hydroxyacyl-CoA dehydrogenase (HAD2, Phatr3 J39681) was slightly downregulated in WT after transfer to the culture bubbled with air, but the degrees of downregulation were higher in the ptACSL3 mutants. These results indicate that disruption of ptACSL3 led to an inhibition of mitochondrial FA β-oxidation upon transition from slow to rapid growth. As mitochondrial β-oxidation generates acetyl-CoAs and reducing power and is essential for FA degradation and maintaining energy homeostasis in the cell, inhibition of mitochondrial β oxidation might have a negative influence on FA synthesis under air-bubbling condition, which caused reduced FA content and TAG synthesis in the ptACSL3 mutants (Fig.5h, Fig.6a).

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Effect of the ptACSL1/ptACSL5 mutation on lipid synthesis

As the expression of ptACSL1 was up-regulated during nitrogen deprivation, we analyzed lipid samples prepared from WT and the *ptACSL1* mutants at the exponential phase (0 h) and deprived of nitrogen for 72 h (72 h). There was no difference in FA composition between WT and the *ptACSL1*

mutant, except a small decrease in 20:5 at exponential phase in the mutant (Fig.S9). This decrease could be explained by a global decrease in 20:5-containing TAG and polar lipid species (Dataset S1). At 72 h of nitrogen starvation, membrane lipids apart from DAG were more affected in the WT than in the *ptACSL1* mutant, suggesting ptACSL1 might be involved in membrane lipid remodeling during nitrogen starvation.

The FA profiles and content of WT and the ptACSL5 mutants were analyzed in the exponential and stationary phase of growth (bubbled with air). It revealed a slight increase in total FA content of the ptACSL5 mutants at the stationary phase (WT, 766±55, and ptACSL5, 867±67 nmol mg⁻¹dcw), which was correlated by a slight increase in the levels of 16:1 and proportions of 16:1 in FA profiles at both phases (Fig.S10). Glycerolipidomic analysis showed that 16:1 was highly enriched in the sn-1 position of PC, and the levels of almost all 16:1-containing molecular species were increased in PC of the ptACSL5 mutants in the exponential phase at the expense of a reduction of 20:5containing species (Dataset S1). In the ptACSL5 mutants, 16:1-containing TAG species derived from prokaryotic pathway were increased, which was balanced by a slight decline of TAG 20:5containing species and TAG 16:0/16:0 species in both phases (Dataset S1). To further test whether peroxisomal ptACSL5 is involved in FA β-oxidation, WT and the ptACSL5 mutants were maintained in N-free medium for 3 d to promote TAG accumulation. After that period, algal cultures were transferred to N-replete medium for additional 4 d to induce the turnover and hydrolysis of storage lipids. The ptACSL5 mutants still showed reduced growth rate compared with WT during both N starvation and resupply, but these algal strains displayed similar Nile red fluorescence (Fig.S11), indicating that storage lipid catabolism after a shift from N-starved to N-replete medium was not impaired in the mutants. Our results support that peroxisomal FA β-oxidation is not correlated to storage lipid remobilization in *Phaeodactylum* but may be involved in the recycling of long-chain to very-long-chain FAs derived from polar lipids (Jallet et al. 2020). To conclude, ptACSL5 might be involved in the balance of 16:0 versus 16:1 in acyl-CoA fluxes for membrane lipids (PC) and TAG synthesis, targeting a part of 16:0 into peroxisomal β-oxidation to prevent it from further elongation to enter the 16:0-to-20:5 synthetic route.

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Discussion

FAs with trace amounts of C18 FA intermediates, representing a particularly interesting model for
studies on VLC-PUFA and lipid biosynthesis. Despite recent advances in understanding the main
routes of lipid metabolism in <i>Phaeodactylum</i> (Smith et al. 2021), little is known about FA
activation, transport between different subcellular compartments, and flux governing the ultimate
deposition of VLC-PUFA into galactoglycerolipids. Consistent with high proportions of palmitic
acid (16:0), palmitoleic acid (16:1n-7) and EPA (20:5) in total FAs, palmitic, palmitoleic and
EPA-CoA were detected as the most abundant species in acyl-CoA profiles of <i>P. tricornutum</i> cells
(Hamilton et al. 2014). These high levels of acyl-CoAs may potentially act as acyl donors or
intermediates for VLC-PUFA synthesis and TAG assembly. P. tricornutum has at least five LACS
isozymes catalyzing the formation of acyl-CoAs from free FAs and CoA. Recently, ptACSL4 was
identified as one of lipid droplet-associated proteins in the proteome analysis (Lupette et al. 2019).
However, in our study the ptACSL4 mutants did not show any lipid-associated phenotype under
the growth conditions. This finding is in contrast to its ortholog of the heterokont <i>Microchloropsis</i>
gaditana. ptACSL4, also called PtACSBG (Phatr3_J45510), was recently identified as the LACS
isoform of the bubblegum subfamily and shares five conserved ACSBG motifs with MgACSBG,
the phylogenetically closely related LACS isoform of the bubblegum type in the eustigmatophytes
M. gaditana (Billey et al. 2021). In this oleaginous microalga, the MgACSBG mutant of point
mutations led to an overall reduction of 16:1 in lipids and C20 acyls in the betaine lipid,
supporting a critical role in the generation of 16:1-CoA and 18:3-CoA within the cell. We did not
evaluate these two molecular species, but the data we obtained with tested acyl-CoA substrates,
showing that ptACSL4 was active exclusively with 18:1-CoA and 20:5-CoA, and inactive when
provided with saturated acyl-CoAs (Table 1), are consistent with a specific function in the
activation of unsaturated molecular species, similar to that reported in M. gaditana.
ptACSL1 is the only LACS isozyme located in the outermost of cER membrane with the C-
terminus facing the cytoplasm (Fig.1), indicating that it may be the most possible isozyme
responsible for activating de novo-synthesized FAs exported from the plastid. During nitrogen
starvation, membrane lipids seem to be protected from degradation or recycling in the ptACSL1
mutants compared to WT. In Arabidopsis, of the nine LACS isoforms only LACS9 was showed to
reside in the plastid envelop and it might be the major LACS isoform involved in the export of
plastidial FAs for TAG formation. Although the lacs9 null mutant had a 90% reduction of

chloroplast LACS activity, the mutant did not exhibit any detectable phenotype. Further studies revealed that ER-localized LACS1 showed overlapping functions with LACS9 in TAG biosynthesis (Zhao et al. 2010). In our study, ptACSL1 displayed LACS activity towards all tested FAs and its disruption had no impact on the amounts of TAG (Fig.5), which is mainly constituted of 16:0 and 16:1, suggesting one or more additional LACS isozymes may be involved in the activation of plastid-exported FAs and contribute to acyl-CoAs for storage TAG synthesis.

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We identified the mitochondrial ptACSL3 as the LACS isozyme contributing to TAG synthesis. The ptACSL3 mutants showed distinct TAG-associated phenotypes when cells were bubbled with air and in static culture (Figs 5d, 5h). When algal cells are exposed to rapid changes in nutrient availability, temperature and light conditions, they must rapidly degrade or remodel storage and membrane lipids to ensure growth and survival. FA degradation thus plays an important role in the response to these changing conditions. Recently, Jallet et al. (2020) confirmed the existence of a functional mitochondrial β-oxidation pathway that plays a principle role in the liberation of energy from TAG-derived FAs in P. tricornutum. This pattern differs in the green alga Chlamydomonas that possesses the major reactions of FA β -oxidation in peroxisomes (Kong et al. 2017). In our study, when algal cultures were bubbled with filtered air, in rapidly growing cells mitochondrial FA β oxidation plays a 'housekeeping' role in removing harmful free FAs which may be derived from the degradation of acyl-lipids. Disruption of ptACSL3 can result in the impairment of FA β -oxidation that breaks the balance of keeping the amounts of cytosolic free FAs coming from phospholipids below the threshold and also led to a pronounced inhibition of plastidial de novo FA synthesis, which produces less FA acyls for TAG and chloroplast lipid synthesis and then reduced TAG content in the ptACSL3 mutants. By contrast, algal cells grown in static culture may not need a highly dynamic and active mitochondrial FA β-oxidation to remove free FAs. Thus, we observed that a similar growth of the ptACSL3 mutants to WT under the static condition (Fig.5a), which may ensure that the mutant could accumulate more TAGs through diverting a part of phospholipid derived FAs from mitochondrial β -oxidation to the TAG synthesis pathway in the absence of ptACSL3.

In *Phaeodactylum*, free FAs may be derived from multiple routes: (1) *de novo* synthesis in the plastid, then hydrolysis by acyl-ACP thioesterase from ACP and finally export outside the plastid; (2) turnover or recycling of membrane lipids (e.g. DGTA and PC) under some conditions such as nitrogen or carbon starvation; (3) TAG remobilization, possibly involving TAG lipases that remove

acyl chains from glycerol backbone of TAG. Of the five LACSs, ptACSL1 is localized in the outermost of cER membrane and displayed the highest catalytic efficiency (k_{cat}/K_m) for 20:5 in our *in vitro* enzyme assay (Table 1). In addition, the *ptACSL1* mutants grown in both the exponential phase (0 h) and N-deprived condition (72 h) showed slight decrease in the levels of 20:5-containing species in the plastid glycolipid of MGDG (Dataset S1), suggesting a possible role in transfer of ER-derived 20:5 to plastid membranes. ptACSL3 and ptACSL5 may play a role in generating acyl-CoAs that are channeled into mitochondria or peroxisome for β -oxidation (Fig.10). How ptACSL2 and ptACSL4 are involved in lipid metabolism in *Phaeodactylum* remains to be further elucidated. Since the *Phaeodactylum* genome encodes multiple LACS isoforms, functional redundancy possibly exists within the *lacs* gene family. To distinguish the contributions of each ptACSL to lipid metabolism, generation of higher-order *lacs* KO mutants using multiplexed CRISPR/Cas9 method will provide more insights into the precise roles of each LACS and uncover the complex network of functions of all LACS isozymes in *Phaeodactylum*.

Figure legends

Figure 1. In vivo localization of *Phaeodactylum* LACS isoforms. Self-assembly GFP system was used for analysis of ptACSL1 plastid localization. The (c)ER-characteristic fluorescence pattern could be observed when ptACSL1 fused to GFP_S11 was simultaneously expressed with a cytosolic GFP_S1-10. Expression of ptACSL1_S11 with the ER marker (PDI) fused to GFP_S1-10 led to no fluorescence. Expression of full-length ptACSL2 and ptACSL3 with C-terminally fused eGFP indicated the localization in plastid. Localization of ptACSL4:eGFP fusion led to indistinct results (plastid, plasma membrane and cytosol). eGFP with N-terminal fusion with ptACSL5 showed the fluorescence signal in the peroxisome. TL, transmitted light; PAF, plastid autofluorescence; eGFP, enhanced green fluorescence protein; PAF/eGFP, overlap of plastid and GFP fluorescence. Scale bar represents 10 μm.

Figure 2. Expression patterns of *Phaeodactylum* LACS family proteins. Lysates of *Phaeodactylum*

Figure 2. Expression patterns of *Phaeodactylum* LACS family proteins. Lysates of *Phaeodactylum* cultures under nitrogen deprivation condition (**A**) and supplied with filtered air (low CO₂, ~0.04% CO₂) for 2 h (a2h) and 6 h (a6h) or high concentrations of CO₂ (1%, 4% and 10%) for 2 h and 6 h (**B**) were analyzed by Western blotting using polyclonal antibodies against ptACSL1-5. Loading of

572 protein samples was equalized using total protein extracts of each sample visualized with coomassie brillant blue (CBB) staining as loading control. 573 574 Figure 3. Multiple targeted mutagenesis of ptACSL1-5 genes by CRISPR/Cas9 in *Phaeodactylum*. (A) Schematic depiction of the multiple CRISPR/Cas9 method for simultaneously targeting multiple 575 sites in the Phaeodactylum genome. Each of the CRISPR-episome plasmids consists of three 576 577 different gRNA expression cassettes driven by the U6 promoter, Cas9 protein, the ShBle resistance 578 gene cassette, and the yeast-derived CEN6-ARSH4-HIS3 element conferring episomal replication in 579 the diatom Phaeodactylum. The gRNAs are transcribed independently and direct Cas9 to multiple targets. (B) Frequencies of different editing events observed in ptACSL1-5 target regions induced 580 by a single gRNA or double gRNAs using the multiple CRISPR/Cas9 system, which were calculated 581 582 from 30 mutated sites (not including those of homozygous fragmental deletions between two targeted sites). (C) Comparison of mutation frequencies of large fragment deletions between two 583 584 targeted sites occurred among five ptACSL genes. 585 Figure 4. Genome editing of ptACSL1 and ptACSL3 using multiple CRISPR/Cas9 system led to the 586 generation of fragmental deletions in Phaeodactylum. Schematic representations show the 587 fragmental deletions between two targeted sites of the ptACSL1 (a) and ptACSL3 (b) mutants. A pair of primers was designed to detect the large fragment deletions induced by multiple 588 CRISPR/Cas9 in the ptACSL1 (c) and ptACSL3 (d) mutants with PCR using genomic DNAs and 589 590 total complementary DNAs (cDNAs) as templates. For DNA sequencing, PCR amplifications were 591 carried out using primer pairs flanking the designed target sites, and the PCR products were 592 sequenced directly using internal specific primers. Representative sequences of fragment deletions 593 in the ptACSL1 (e) and ptACSL3 (f) mutants were aligned with that of wild type. The PAM region 594 is shown in blue color letters, and the number at the end shown in red color letters indicates deleted 595 (-) bases between two Cas9 cuts. 596 Figure 5. Phenotype analyses of the ptACSL1 and ptACSL3 mutants. (a) Growth curves of the 597 ptACSL1 and ptACSL3 mutants incubated in static cultures for 12 days. Cell densities were 598 determined with a Z2 Coulter Counter. Results are the average of three biological replicates 599 (independent lines) with error bars indicating standard deviations (n=3). (b) Nitrate concentrations 600 in culture media for the ptACSL1 and ptACSL3 mutants incubated in static cultures. (c) Nile red 601 fluorescence intensities of the ptACSL1 and ptACSL3 mutant cells incubated in static cultures for

12 days. Statistical analysis using paired-sample Student's t test was performed by GraphPad Prism (v9.0): *, P<0.05; **, P<0.01. (d) A thin-layer chromatogram of total lipids from wild type and the ptACSL3 mutants incubated in static cultures for 9 d, 10 d, 11 d, and 12 d. Each lipid sample was extracted from ~5×10⁷ cells. TAGs were visualized with 0.01% (w/v) primuline reagent. (e) Growth curves of the ptACSL1 and ptACSL3 mutants under air bubbling condition for 9 days. Data are the average of three biological replicates (independent lines) with error bars indicating standard deviations (n=3). (f) Nitrate concentrations in culture media for the ptACSL1 and ptACSL3 mutant cultures bubbled with filtered air. (g) Nile red fluorescence intensities of the ptACSL1 and ptACSL3 mutant cultures bubbled with filtered air for 4-9 days. Statistical analysis using paired-sample Student's t test was performed by GraphPad Prism (v9.0): *, P<0.05; **, P<0.01. (h) A thin-layer chromatogram of total lipids from wild type and the *ptACSL3* mutants under air-bubbling condition. 1, 3, 5, 7, lipid samples from wild type grown for 7d, 8 d, 9 d, and 10 d, respectively; 2, 4, 6, 8, lipid samples from the ptACSL3 mutant grown for 7d, 8 d, 9 d, and 10 d, respectively. Each lipid sample was extracted from ~5×10⁷ cells, and TAGs were visualized with 0.01% (w/v) primuline reagent. Figure 6. Comparative analysis of total fatty acid content (a) and fatty acid composition (b) (Mol of total fatty acids) of wild type and the ptACSL3 mutants grown at exponential and stationary phases. Figure 7. Compared analysis of the various glycerolipids (a) and lipid molecular species (b, MGDG; c, DGDG; d, PC) between wild type and the ptACSL3 mutants grown at the exponential and stationary phases. Values are means of three biological replicates. *Asterisk indicates significant difference between wild type and the mutant as determined by the Student's t-test. *, P<0.05, ***P*<0.01.

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Figure 8. The disruption of *ptACSL3* affects molecular composition of TAG. LC-MS was used to quantify different molecular species of TAG in wild type and the *ptACSL3* mutants in three biological replicates. A heat map shows the percentage abundance of 20 major TAG species in each biological replicate relative to the average percentage abundance of that species in wild type. Algal cultures were bubbled with filtered air and samples were harvested at day 7 (a), or cells were grown under static culture condition and harvested at day 9 (b) for lipid extraction and TAG profiling.

Figure 9. Transcriptional change of the ptACSL3 mutants upon the shift from static culture to

cultures bubbled with filtered air. GO functional enrichment analysis of differentially expressed
genes in wild type (a) and the <i>ptACSL3</i> mutants (b) upon the shift from static culture (0d) to culture
bubbled with air for 2 d. Biological processes are listed on the Y-axis with their enrichment folds
against all Phaeodactylum genes (reference) presented on the X-axis. c, for each differentially
expressed gene, fold changes (FC) are presented as heat maps with shades of red or green colours
according to the scale bar. Fold change was calculated as log ₂ (FPKM (Dx, BA)/FPKM (0d, SC))
(FPKM=absolute abundance of transcripts, Dx=a time point: 2d/3d/4d; BA=in culture bubbled with
air; SC=in static culture). Changes of genes with FDR-corrected P value <0.05 were considered as
statistically significant. Time refers to the duration (in days) since the transfer of algal cells from
static culture to the cultures bubbled with filtered air. Data are the mean of the FC of 2d vs 0d, 3d
vs 0d and 4d vs 0d of wild type and the <i>ptACSL3</i> mutants. Data are presented in Table S2.
Figure 10. Predicted LACS-mediated lipid metabolic pathways in <i>Phaeodactylum</i> . De novo fatty
acid (FA) synthesis takes place in the plastid. 16:0-ACP is released from the fatty acid synthase,
and then enters the prokaryotic pathway to be desaturated by soluble acyl-ACP desaturases to
produce C16 FAs with one or more double bonds which are used for synthesis of MGDG, DGDG,
SQDG and PG as chloroplast membrane lipids. The majority of 16:0 and 16:1 in the plastid is
exported to the cytosol, converted to 16:0-CoA and 16:1-CoA and enters the Kennedy pathway for
TAG biosynthesis. In the cytosol, 16:0-CoA can be elongated to 18:0-CoA and further desaturated
to produce $18:1\Delta 9$ -CoA. This FA enters long-chain polyunsaturated FA synthesis pathway to
produce 20:5 (EPA) and 22:6 via the combined n3 and n6 pathways. EPA can be imported back
into the plastid via the unknown omega-3 pathway for the synthesis of chloroplast membrane
lipids. Some free FAs, mainly 16:0 and 16:1 species, can be released from TAG hydrolysis, then
activated by LACS enzymes and transported into mitochondria or peroxisomes for β -oxidation.
Enzymes are shown in red: PAD, palmitoyl-ACP $\Delta 9$ -desaturase; FAD, fatty acid desaturases;
Des6, plastidic soluble $\Delta 6$ -desaturase; MGD, MGDG synthase; DGD, DGDG synthase; SQD2,
SQDG synthase; GPAT, glycerol-3-phosphate acyltransferase; LPAAT, lysophosphatidic acid
acyltransferase; PAP, phosphatidic acid phosphatase; DGAT, diacylglycerol acyltransferase. G3P,
glycerol-3-phosphate; LPA, lysophosphatidic acid; PA, phosphatidic acid; DAG, diacylglycerols;
TAG, triacylglycerols; MGDG, monogalactosyldiacylglycerol; SQDG,
sulfoquinovosyldiacylolycerol: PC_phosphatidylcholine: DGTA_diacylolyceryl-hydroxymethyl-

662	<i>N,N,N</i> -trimethyl-β-alanine; FFA, free fatty acid; OAA, oxaloacetate; TCA, tricarboxylic acid; ER,
663	endoplasmic reticulum; FASII, fatty acid synthase II.
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675	Authors'contributions
676	XH, WC, A. Amato, DM, HJ and LY performed experiments. JJ, EM, HH and FH analyzed data.
677	MM and A. Allen contributed to the generation of ptACSL mutant lines by multiplexed
678	CRISPR/Cas9 method. YG planned and designed the research and wrote the manuscript. XH and
679	WC contributed equally.
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