High-level production of nervonic acid in the oleaginous yeast *Yarrowia lipolytica* by systematic metabolic engineering

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Abstract

Brain and neurological diseases are influencing more than one billion world's

people. Nervonic acid (cis-15-tetracosenoic acid, C24:1 Δ15) benefits the treatment of

neurological diseases and the health of brain. Currently, the sources of nervonic acid

are limited to the seeds of a couple of plants. In this study, we employed the oleaginous

yeast *Yarrowia lipolytica* to overproduce nervonic acid oil by systematic metabolic

engineering. First, engineering the fatty acid elongation (FAE) pathway by expressing

a heterologous β-ketoacyl-CoA synthase gene *CgKCS* enabled the production of

nervonic acid in *Y. lipolytica.* Second, modulation of endogenous pathways by

expressing a C16:0-acyl-CoA preferred fatty acid elongase gELOVL6 together with a

C18:0-acyl-CoA preferred fatty acid desaturase MaOLE2 increased the content of

nervonic acid in total fatty acids (TFA). Third, iterative expression of *CgKCS,*

gELOVL6 and *MaOLE2* at the genomic loci of *rDNA*, *FAD2*, *TGL4*, *GSY1* and *SNF1*

dramatically improved the production of nervonic acid. Fourth, the biosynthesis of both

nervonic acid and lipids were further enhanced by expression of the MaOLE2-CgKCS

fusion protein and glycerol-3-phosphate acyltransferases (GPAT) and diacylglycerol

acyltransferases (DGAT) from *Malania oleifera* in the endoplasmic reticulum (ER)

membrane. Fifth, an ER structure regulator YlINO2 was identified in *Y. lipolytica* and

the overexpression of YlINO2 led to a 39.3% increase in lipid production. Next, pilot-

scale fermentation in 50-L reactor using the strain YLNA9 exhibited a lipid titer of 96.7

g/L and a nervonic acid titer of 17.3 g/L, the highest reported titer to date for *de novo*

nervonic acid production. We also found that disruption of the AMP-activated S/T

protein kinase *SNF1* increased the ratio of nervonic acid (C24:1) to lignoceric acid

(C24:0) by 61.6% and a ratio of 3.5:1 (nervonic acid to lignoceric acid) was achieved

in the strain YLNA10. Finally, a proof-of-concept purification and separation of

nervonic acid were performed and the purity of it reached 98.7%. This study suggested

that oleaginous yeasts are attractive hosts for the cost-efficient production of nervonic

acid and possibly other very long-chain fatty acids (VLCFAs).

Keywords: Fatty acid; nervonic acid; lipid; oleaginous yeast; metabolic engineering

1. Introduction

Brain and neurological diseases affect nearly one in six of the world's population according to the American Brain Foundation (www.americanbrainfoundation.org/). Nervonic acid (cis-15-tetracosenoic acid, C24:1 Δ15), an omega-9 very long-chain monounsaturated fatty acid (VLCMFA), is rich in the white matter and myelin sheath of human brain. More and more studies show that nervonic acid benefits neurological health (Wadhwani et al., 2011; Li et al., 2019) and has therapeutic potential for adrenoleukodystrophy and multiple sclerosis (Lewkowicz et al., 2019; Terluk et al., 2022). Moreover, nervonic acid levels in specific tissues are associated with Alzheimer's disease (Astarita et al., 2011), Parkinson's disease (Hu et al., 2021), cognition (Song et al., 2022), mood symptoms (Kageyama et al., 2018; Kageyama et al., 2021), cardiovascular death (Delgado et al., 2017) and even obesity (Keppley et al., 2020).

The source of nervonic acid has attracted increasing interests due to its tremendous potentials for nutraceutical and pharmaceutical applications. Nervonic acid accounts for more than 40% of the total fatty acids (TFA) in seeds of the rare plant *Malania oleifera* and the herbaceous plants *Tropaeolum speciosum* and *Cardamine graeca* (Chivandi et al., 2008; Tang et al., 2013; Li et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2021). The oil extracted from *Acer truncatum* seeds containing about 5% of nervonic acid is sold as a nutraceutical in China (Qiao et al., 2018). Although a couple of plants have seeds rich in nervonic acid, supply of nervonic acid by these plants is expensive due to limitations of scale-up cultivation, climate-dependence, and harvesting cost (Fan et al., 2018a).

Nervonic acid has also been identified in a few microalgae and filamentous fungi. The

oleaginous microalgae *Mychonastes afer* HSO-3-1 and the filamentous fungal

Mortierella capitata can synthesize nervonic acid accounting for 3.8% and 6.9% of

TFA, respectively (Umemoto et al., 2014; Yuan et al., 2011). However, the

photoautotrophic microalgae *M. afer* produces low biomass and *M. capitate* is a rare

fungus lacking genetic tools, which prevent them being used as cell factories for

production of nervonic acid (Xu et al., 2018; Li et al., 2020).

In recent years, the oleaginous yeast *Yarrowia lipolytica* has been used as a

valuable host for the production of both lipid and nonlipid chemical products by

metabolic engineering (Xu et al., 2016; Qiao et al., 2017; Holkenbrink et al., 2020; Luo

et al., 2020; Muhammad et al., 2020). This yeast is generally regarded as safe (GRAS),

grows fast, and has advantages in supply of acetyl-CoA and NADPH for anabolism

(Abdel-Mawgoud et al., 2018; Miller and Alper, 2019). The metabolic characteristic of

Y. lipolytica makes it suitable for production of fatty acids, such as polyunsaturated

eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA) (Xue et al., 2013), gamma-linolenic acid (GLA) (Sun et

al., 2017) and docosahexaenoic acid (DHA) (Gemperlein et al., 2019). Laudably,

DuPont successfully synthesized EPA (C22:6, ω-3) from C18:1-acyl-CoA by

elongation and desaturation in *Y. lipolytica*, and they commercialized EPA-rich oil for

food and EPA-rich *Y. lipolytica* biomass for feed applications (Xue et al., 2013; Xie et

al., 2015). In the context, *Y. lipolytica* is expected to be an appropriate host for

production of nervonic acid.

The fatty acid profiles in triglycerides produced by *Y. lipolytica* mainly consist of

palmitic acid (C16:0), palmitoleic acid (C16:1, ω-7), and oleic acid (C18:1, ω-9) (Tai

and Stephanopoulos, 2013). Several aspects should be optimized for high-production

of nervonic acid by *Y. lipolytica*. First, β-ketoacyl-CoA synthases (KCS) are among the

key fatty acid elongation enzymes for synthesis of VLCMFA from C18:1-acyl-CoA.

The substrate preference and specificity of KCS may differ in various hosts. For

example, the KCS ACJ61777.1 (GenBank No. EU871787) identified in the biennial

grass *Lunaria annua* used C22:1-acyl-CoA as substrate to synthesize nervonic acid

when expressed in the Ethiopia mustard *Brassica carinata* (Guo et al., 2009), while it

elongated C18:1-acyl-CoA to produce mainly eicosenoic acid (C20:1, ω-9) and erucic

acid (C22:1, ω-9) when expressed in the yeast *Rhodosporidium toruloides* (Fillet et al.,

2017). Second, most fatty acids exist in lipid forms in oleaginous microbes and

therefore the selectivity of esterifying enzymes toward acyl-CoAs affects the fatty acid

profiles in lipids. Third, subcellular engineering of the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) can

improve the production of VLCMFA because esterification and elongation of long-

chain fatty acids occur in ER (Chen et al., 2016; Kim et al., 2019).

In this study, we employed the oleaginous yeast *Y. lipolytica* as a host to de novo

synthesizing nervonic acid. The metabolic pathways for overproducing nervonic acid

were designed and depicted in Fig. 1. High-level production of nervonic acid was

achieved by multiplex engineering strategies. This study showed the potential of

oleaginous yeasts used for cost-efficient production of nervonic acid and possibly other

VLCFAs.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Strains and plasmids

The *Y. lipolytica* strains po1g (Yeastern Biotech, Taibei, Taiwan, China) and po1g-G3 (Li et al., 2020) were used as the hosts. Yeast strains constructed in this study were listed in Table S1. Plasmids (Table S2) were constructed using Gibson assembly method and verified by DNA sequencing. Primers used were listed in Table S3. DNA sequences of heterologous genes were codon-optimized and synthesized by Beijing Genomics Institute (BGI), China.

All plasmids constructed in this study were assembled *via* Gibson assembly. The plasmid backbones and DNA fragments were amplified using the KAPA HiFi HotStart PCR kit (Kapa Biosystems, Boston, USA) and the primers described in Table S3. The assembly was performed at 50 °C for 1 h. The assembled mixture was used to transform the *Escherichia coli* Trans1-T1 component cells (TransGen Biotech, Beijing, China) for plasmid amplification. Positive clones were verified by colony PCR and DNA sequencing.

The *Y. lipolytica* native promoter TEFin (Tai and Stephanopoulos, 2013) was used in controlling the expression of the *CgKCS* gene. The organelle target signals KDEL for ER, SKL for peroxisome, and the CoxIV signal for mitochondria were fused with *CgKCS* (Avalos et al., 2013; Xu et al., 2016). To raise the copy numbers of *CgKCS*, three *CgKCS*-expressing cassettes were assembled together, resulting in a plasmid pYL-3sKCS (Table S2). The expression of *gELOVL6* and *MaOLE2* was driven by the inducible promoter yat1 under oleaginous conditions (Xue et al., 2013). To overexpress

CgKCS, *gELOVL6* and *MaOLE2*, the expression cassettes of the three genes were

ligated together with backbone fragments, generating the plasmids pYL-3grDNA and

pYL-3gD17 (Table S2).

Expression of genes by homologous recombination were performed at the specific

gene loci *FAD2* (fatty acid desaturase 2), *TGL4* (lipase 4), *rDNA*, *GSY1* (glycogen

synthase), *SNF1* (AMP-activated S/T protein kinase), *D17* and *PEX10* (peroxisomal

membrane protein) according to previous studies (Xue et al., 2013; Schwartz et al.,

2017; Lazar et al., 2018). The plasmids pYL-rDNA-CgKCS, pYL-GSY1-CgKCS and

pYL-SNF1-CgKCS were separately used to express one copy of CgKCS at the *rDNA*,

GSY1 and *SNF1* locus. The plasmids pYL-2gFAD2 and pYL-2gTGL4 were adopted to

express two copies of *CgKCS* at the *FAD2* locus and the *TGL4* locus, respectively. The

fusion protein of CgKCS and MaOLE2 in the plasmid pYL-D17-gMaolE2 was

expressed at the *D17* locus. To express the GPATs and DGAT2s from *M. oleifera*, the

plasmids pYL-PEX10-Mo-35, pYL-PEX10-Mo-49, pYL-PEX10-Mo-88 and pYL-

PEX10-Mo-90 were constructed and the gene expression cassettes were inserted at the

PEX10 locus. To express the putative regulators INO2 and INO4 of lipid synthesis, the

plasmids pYL-PEX10-YlINO2 and pYL-PEX10-YlINO4 were constructed and the

PEX10 locus was employed to accommodate the gene expression cassettes.

2.2. Culture media and conditions

YPD medium, containing 20 g/L glucose, 20 g/L peptone, and 10 g/L yeast extract,

was used in regular cultivation of *Y. lipolytica* with rotary shaking at 250 rpm and 28

ºC. YNB medium used for selection of genetic transformants was made with 20 g/L

glucose, 1.7 g/L yeast nitrogen (without amino acids and ammonium sulfate) (Sangon

Biotech, Shanghai, China), 5 g/L ammonium sulfate, and 0.69 g/L CSM-Ura or CSM-

Leu (MP Biomedicals, Solon, OH).

Shake flask cultures were carried out using the fermentative medium composed of

150 g/L glucose, 6 g/L yeast nitrogen, and 12 g/L ammonium sulfate. A single colony

was inoculated into 5 ml YNB medium and cultivated at 28 ºC with shaking at 250 rpm

for 24 h. Afterwards, 500 µL of the seed culture was inoculated into 5 ml fresh YNB

medium and cultivated at 28 ºC with shaking at 250 rpm for 24 h. Then, precultures

were inoculated into 30 ml of fermentative medium in 250 ml shake flasks to an optical

density (OD_{600}) of 0.08 and incubated at 250 rpm and 28 ºC for 144 h.

Bioreactor fermentation was carried out in a 50-L bioreactor (HND Bio-

engineering Equipment, Jiangsu, China). The fermentative medium contained 150 g/L

glucose, 6 g/L yeast extract, 12 g/L ammonium sulfate, 1.5 g/L $MgSO_4·7H_2O$, 6 g/L

KH_2PO_4, 3 g/L $Na_2HPO_4·12H_2O$, 3 mg/L $CaCl_2·2H_2O$, 1 mL/L trace metals stock (1000

×), and 1 mL/L vitamins stock (1000 ×). One liter of trace metals stock contained 1 mg

boric acid, 0.2 mg KI, 0.67 mg $FeCl_3·6H_2O$, 0.125 mg $CuSO_4·5H_2O$, 0.89 mg

$MnSO_4·H_2O$, 0.48 mg $Na_2MoO_4·2H_2O$, 1.42 mg $ZnSO_4·7H_2O$, 20 mg $FeSO_4·7H_2O$,

and 0.73 mg $CoCl_2·6H_2O$. One liter of vitamins stock contained 0.05 mg biotin, 0.8 mg

calcium pantothenate, 0.004 mg folic acid, 4 mg inositol, 0.8 mg niacin, 0.4 mg *p*-

aminobenzoic acid, 0.8 mg pyridoxine HCl, 0.4 mg riboflavin, 1.5 mg thiamine HCl.

The vitamins stock was sterilized by 0.22 µm hydrophilic filters. The strains used in

fermentation were pre-cultivated in the medium containing 20 g/L glucose, 1.7 g/L

yeast nitrogen (without amino acids and ammonium sulfate), 5 g/L ammonium sulfate,

and 0.69 g/L CSM-Ura. Next, 2.3 L of the precultures were inoculated into the

fermentative medium and cultivated at 28 ℃. Oxygen was supplied in the form of

filtered air via sparging rate of 20–80 L/min of air using agitation in 50–500 rpm range

to maintain a dissolved oxygen level at 40% in 24 h and below 5% after 24 h. The pH

of the cultures was constantly controlled at 5.5 using 12 M NaOH. During the process

of fermentation, glucose concentration was detected by an SBA-40D Biosensor

(Shandong Academy of Sciences, China) every 12 h.

2.3. Extraction and quantification of lipid and protein

Total lipids were extracted using a previous procedure with minor modification

(Xiao et al., 2015). Briefly, yeast cultures were collected by centrifugation and 0.3 g

wet cells of each sample was used for lipid extraction. The wet cells were resuspended

in 3 ml of 4 mol/L hydrochloric acid in glass tubes and shaken slightly for 1.5 h.

Subsequently, the cells were boiled for 8 min and then were frozen at –20 ℃ for half

an hour. Next, 6 ml of chloroform: methanol (1:1) was added to the tubes and

centrifuged at 2,000 g for 10 min. The supernatant was transferred into a clean tube and

3 ml of 0.15% NaCl was added and then centrifuged. Finally, the supernatant was

collected and dried using the blowing concentrator with nitrogen gas.

To detect the lipid content and composition by gas chromatography (GC), the

extracted lipid was esterified by methanol to fatty acid methyl esters (FAMEs). The

lipid was first incubated with 3.9 mL of methanol: sulfuric acid (98:2) at 85 ℃ for 3 h.

Next, 1.5 mL of saturated NaCl was added and FAMEs were extracted through the

addition of 1.5 mL hexane. The FAMEs were analyzed by an Agilent 7890B-GC

equipped with a flame ionization detector and a capillary column HP-5 (30 m, 0.32

mm). 1 µL of sample was injected at 250 °C using helium as the carrier gas at a flow

rate of 1 mL/min. The GC oven temperature was held at 140 °C for 1 min, and then

ramped to 180 °C for 10 min at a speed of 10 °C/min, 210 °C for 4 min at a speed of

5 °C/min, and 250 °C for 4 min at a speed of 5 °C/min. FAMEs were identified and

quantified using commercial FAME standards purchased from Sigma-Aldrich

(Shanghai, China). The content of proteins was determined by the Kjeldahl method

using the Kjeldahl instrument K9840 (Hanon Shandong Scientific Instruments Co., Ltd.,

Jinan, China).

2.4. Structural analysis and point mutation of AtADS2

To evaluate the substrate preference of AtADS2, the 3D structural model of

AtADS2 was constructed by SWISS-MODEL server using mouse SCD (PDB ID: 4ymk)

as the template (Schwede et al., 2003). Pictures of AtADS2 structures were generated

with the program UCSF Chimera (Pettersen et al., 2004). The docking of acyl-CoA into

the binding pocket of AtADS2 was performed with the AutoDock Vina software (Trott

et al., 2010). The 3D structures of acyl-CoA and the minimized energy structures were

constructed by BIOVIA Discovery Studio 4.5. Next, AutoDock Tools 1.5.4 was used to

assign hydrogens, Gasteiger charges and rotatable bonds to acyl-CoA. A docking grid

dimension was set to 64 Å × 70 Å × 64 Å and default values were used for other

parameters. Based on molecular docking and characteristics of the binding pocket of

AtADS2, some polar amino acids at the periphery of the binding pocket were replaced

with non-polar amino acids (Table S5). The *AtADS2* mutant genes were expressed in

the *Y. lipolytica* strain YLVL6 to estimate the substrate preference according to the fatty

acid profiles.

2.5. Determination of the distribution of nervonic acid in TAG

The distribution of nervonic acid in triacylglycerol (TAG) was detected according

to a previous publication (Fan et al., 2018b). Briefly, 10 mg of TAG and 3 ml of

methanol was mixed with 10 mg of 1,3-specific lipase from *Thermomyces lanuginose*

(Lipozyme TL IM; Novozymes, Bagsvaerd, Denmark) and shaken at 30 °C for 8 h. The

hydrolytic products were separated by thin layer chromatography (TLC) on Partisil K6

Silica gel 60 plates (250 μm thickness, 20 × 20 cm; Merck) with developing solvent,

hexane: diethyl ether: acetic acid (70:30:1, v/v). Lipids were visualized under UV light

by brief exposure to iodine vapor. Then, the free fatty acids and 2-monoacylglycerols

(2-MAGs) was converted to the corresponding methyl ester by incubating with 2%

H_2SO_4-methanol solution at 85°C for 3 h. The compositions of the fatty acid methyl

esters were analyzed by GC and GC-MS.

2.6. Illumina genome sequencing and bioinformatic analyses

The genome sequences of representative edited clones were sequenced by Illumina

technique. Standard genome sequencing and standard bioinformatic analyses were

provided by Oebiotech (Shanghai, China). The filtered reads were mapped to the

reference genome *Y. lipolytica* CLIB89 (W29) (GenBank: GCA_001761485.1) using

the BWA 0.7.16a software. The aligned sequence reads were visualized by Integrative

Genomics Viewer (IGV).

2.7. Identification of DGAT2 and GPAT genes from *M. oleifera*

Putative acyltransferase DGAT and GPAT have been annotated in the genome of *M. oleifera* and transcriptomic analysis showed that two *DGAT2* and two *GPAT* genes highly expressed in seeds at fast oil accumulation stage (Yang et al., 2018). However, it is not clear whether these acyltransferases prefer esterifying C24:1-acyl-CoAs to generate nervonic acid lipids. In this study, the *DGAT2* and *GPAT* genes in *M. oleifera* were identified by comparative sequence analysis. The amino acid sequence of DGAT2 (AEE78802.1) and GPAT (AAG23437.1) was used as a BLAST query against the *M. oleifera* genome database to retrieve gene homologs, which were used as candidates for identifying C24:1-acyl-CoAs preferred acyltransferases.

2.8. Identification of regulators of lipid synthesis in *Y. lipolytica*

To identify regulators for lipid synthesis in *Y. lipolytica*, the regulators INO2 (NP_010408.1) and INO4 (NP_014533.1) in the phospholipid biosynthesis of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* were used as BLAST queries against the *Y. lipolytica* W29 genome (GCA_009372015.1) to retrieve the gene homologues. Homology modeling of the retrieved YlINO2 and YlINO4 from *Y. lipolytica* was performed using SWISS-MODEL server (Schwede et al., 2003). The bHLH ScINO2-ScINO4 transcription activation complex bound the promoter region (PDB ID: 7XQ5) and the structures of TFIIIB-TBP/Brf2/DNA and SANT domain of Bdp1 (PDB ID: 5N9G) in Protein Databank (PDB) were used as templates for homology modeling of YlINO4 and YlINO2, respectively. The predicted protein structures were visualized using PyMOL Molecular Graphics System (Version 1.7.0.0). Figure 2F, 6A, 7A, 7B and 8A were

created by Figdraw (www.figdraw.com). Structure-based multiple sequence alignment

of the bHLH transcription factors was carried out on the T-COOFFEE online service

(Notredame et al., 2000).

2.9. Separation and purification of nervonic acid

Crude lipids extracted from cell sediment of the YLNA10 culture from 50 L-

reactor were used to separate nervonic acid. The extracts were hydrolyzed in the

solution of sodium hydroxide (pH 9.0) and ethanol at 80-85ºC with stirring for 3 h.

When no stratification was observed with the naked eye, the saponification solution

was acidified to pH 2.0 by sulfuric acid and heated to volatilize ethanol at 75ºC. Next,

free fatty acids in the saponification solution were extracted by using *n*-hexane for three

times, washed and dehydrated, and then evaporated. The extracts of free fatty acids

were dissolved in *n*-hexane for purification analysis.

Silica gel column chromatography was used in preliminary purification of

nervonic acid. Mobile phases consisting of *n*-hexane and ammonia (0.1%, 0.5%, or

10%) or acetic acid (0.5%, 1%, or 2%) were first evaluated by TLC on silica gel plates.

Next, the extracts of free fatty acids were isolated by silica gel column (26×3.0 cm i.d.)

using hexane containing 1% acetic acid as the elution buffer. The initial 75 ml eluent

was discarded, and following 230 ml eluent was collected and concentrated by rotary

evaporator. The residues were dissolved in 1 ml of methanol for further purification by

preparative chromatography. The effusion mainly containing nervonic acid was

determined and collected according to the HPLC spectrogram of nervonic acid standard.

Next, the collection was dried under a gentle nitrogen flow, dissolved in methanol, and

filtered through 0.22-μm nylon syringe filters for further separation by UHPLC (Ultra

high performance liquid chromatography) (Thermo U3000) equipped with a UV

detector through a C_{18} column Poroshell 120 EC-C18 (4.6 × 150 mm, 4 μm) (Agilent

Technologies, Inc.). Mobile phase consisted of acetonitrile/methanol/0.4% acetic acid/

tetrahydrofuran (80:12:5:3, v/v/v/v). Twenty microliters of samples were automatically

injected. A flow rate of 0.6 mL/min of the mobile phase was used.

The reagents methanol, acetonitrile, n-hexane, and tetrahydrofuran used in this

study are all HPLC grade and purchased from Merck Co. Acetic acid, NaOH, ammonia,

sulfuric acid, and ethanol are purchased from Sinopharm Chemical Ceagent Co., Ltd.

(Shanghai, China). Nervonic acid, methyl cis-15-tetracosenoate, and ethyl 15-

tetracosenoate (>99%) were purchased from Shanghai McLean Biochemical

Technology Co., Ltd., China. Silica gel was provided by Qingdao Ocean Chemical

Plant, China.

2.10. Transmission electron microscopy and fluorescence microscope

Yeast stock cells were inoculated into 5 ml YNB medium and cultivated at 28 ºC

with shaking at 250 rpm for 24 h. Afterwards, 300 μL of the cultures were grown for

24 h in 30 mL of YNB medium at 28 °C and 250 rpm. Collect the cells by centrifugation

and fix them by 2.5% glutaraldehyde at room temperature for 2 h. Then, gently wash

the fixed cells by 0.1 M phosphate buffer solution (PBS) at pH 7.4   for three times.

Further fix the cells by 1% osmic acid solution for 1 h and then wash them with PBS

for three times. Dehydration of the fixed cells by acetone at the concentrations of 30%,

50%, 70%, 80%, 90%, 95% and 100%. Next, the cells were infiltrated by acetone and

resin at a ratio of 7:3 (v/v) for 5 h, 3:7 (v/v) for 5 h, and then embedded by pure resin

for 12 h. The specimen was stained by 2% uranyl acetate for 15 min and lead citrate for

5 min, and observed using a transmission electron microscope (FEI Tecnai G2 Spirit,

OR, USA). To observe the intracellular lipid droplets, the yeast cells were stained with

Nile red and observed by a fluorescence microscope (OLYMPUS BX35, Tokyo).

2.11 Prediction and visualization of transmembrane segments in CgKCS and

MaOLE2

The transmembrane segments (TMS) of CgKCS and MaOLE2 embedded in ER

were predicted using matching apparent free energy differences (ΔG prediction server

v1.0) via the Sec61 translocon (Hessa et al., 2007). The anticipated TMS with ΔG$\leq$ 1.5

kcal/mol were considered to TMS (Ojemalm et al., 2013). For membrane protein

topology visualization, the PROTTER online servers was used (Omasits et al., 2014).

Structure homology modeling of MaOLE2 was carried out using the SWISS-MODEL

online servers (Schwede et al., 2003). The three-dimensional structure of a mouse

stearoyl-CoA desaturase (PBD ID: 4YMK) in PDB was used as the template for

homology modeling of MaoLE2. Three-dimensional structures modeling of CgKCS

was carried out using I-TASSER unified platform (Yang et al., 2015). The predicted

protein structures were visualized using the program UCSF Chimera (Pettersen et al.,

2004) and PyMOL Molecular Graphics System (Version 1.7.0.0).

3. Results

3.1. Nervonic acid synthesis by fatty acid elongation

The β-ketoacyl-CoA synthase KCS, one of the fatty acid elongase (FAE)

components, is considered the rate-limiting enzyme for VLCFAs synthesis (Huai et al.,

2015). We expressed the codon-optimized *CgKCS* gene from *C. graeca* in the *Y.*

lipolytica strain po1g and achieved production of nervonic acid accounting for 1.4% of

total fatty acids (TFA) in the strain YL-CgKCS (Fig. 2A). The strain po1g cannot

synthesize eicosenoic acid (C20:1) and erucic acid (C22:1), so it is considered that

C18:1-acyl-CoA was used as the substrate of CgKCS in YL-CgKCS (Fig. 2B). The

fatty acid elongases AtFAE1 in *Arabidopsis thaliana* and BtFAE1 in *Brassica*

tournefortii prefer extending oleic acid to eicosenoic acid and erucic acid, respectively

(Singh et al., 2014; Sun et al., 2013; Trenkamp et al., 2004). Protein topology prediction

showed that AtFAE1, BtFAE1 and CgKCS have extremely similar transmembrane

structures (Fig. S1A-S1E). To test whether C20:1-acyl-CoA and C22:1-acyl-CoA can

be used as substrates for KCS to produce nervonic acid, the genes *AtFAE1* and *BtFAE1*

were expressed in *Y. lipolytica*. As expected, expression of *AtFAE1* and *BtFAE1* resulted

in the production of eicosenoic acid (4.4% of the TFA) in YL-AtFAE1 and erucic acid

(5.4% of the TFA) in YL-BtFAE1 (Fig. 2C and 2D). The expression of *BtFAE1* also led

to the production of a small amount of nervonic acid (0.47% of TFA; Fig. 2D).

Multisequence alignment showed that the catalytic residues in CgKCS, AtFAE1 and

BtFAE1 are extremely conservative (Fig. S1F), while structural modeling indicated that

the size of substrate-binding regions were consistent with the preference of them to

different acyl-CoAs (Fig. S2). Nevertheless, the strain YL-3FAEs co-expressing of

AtFAE1, *BtFAE1* and *CgKCS* did not improve the production of nervonic acid (Fig. 2E),

indicating that CgKCS may not be able to effectively use C20:1-acyl-CoA and C22:1-

acyl-CoA as substrates in *Y. lipolytica*.

The biosynthesis of fatty acids is functionally partitioned in multiple cellular

compartments, including the cytosol, mitochondria, ER, peroxisome, and lipid droplets

(Kerner and Hoppel, 2000; Xu et al., 2016; Yang et al., 2019). We next investigated

whether CgKCS expression in specific subcellular organelles could help direct acyl-

CoA toward the formation of nervonic acid (Fig. 2F). Mitochondria was included in the

subcellular localization tests because of mitochondrial FAS found in yeast and the

interaction between mitochondria associated member and ER (Hiltunen et al., 2009;

Malina et al., 2018). Expression of *CgKCS* or *CgKCS* fused with ER, peroxisomal or

mitochondria signals led to similar production of nervonic acid (1.1%-1.3% of the TFA).

Co-expression of *CgKCS* fused with ER and peroxisome signals resulted in an increase

of nervonic acid to 2.9% of the TFA (Fig. 2G). Because expression of CgKCS without

additional target signals allowed production of nervonic acid and CgKCS is a

transmembrane protein (Fig. S1A), we speculated that CgKCS may contain inherent

signals for organelles localization in *Y. lipolytica*. To assess this speculation, we fused

CgKCS to a superfolder GFP gene (*sfGFP*) (Pedelacq et al., 2006). CgKCS-sfGFP

exhibited both punctate and accumulated localization in the early stage of cultivation

and targeted in lipid droplets in the lipid accumulation stage (Fig. 2H). This observation

indicates that CgKCS can target multiple cellular organelles in *Y. lipolytica*, including

ER and lipid droplets. Given the effectiveness of both original CgKCS and CgKCS

fusing with additional target signals, we employed combinatorial patterns to express

these genes to further improve nervonic acid production.

3.2. Evaluation of nervonic acid synthesis by desaturation

Theoretically, nervonic acid could be synthesized from both C18:1-acyl-CoA and

C18:0-acyl-CoA by expression of KCS and desaturases (Fig. 1). However, few fatty

acid desaturases with VLCFA activities have been identified. To the best of our

knowledge, the acyl-coenzyme A desaturase-like protein AtADS2 in *A. thaliana* is the

only reported enzyme able to catalyze C24:0-acyl-CoA to synthesize nervonic acid

(Smith et al., 2013). We expressed the *AtADS2* gene in the strain YL-3FAEs due to the

TFA of this strain containing 7% lignoceric acid (C24:0) (Fig. 2E). Determination of

the fatty acids in the *AtADS2*-overexpresed strains showed that nervonic acid was

nearly undetected while oleic acid improved from 26% to 54% in TFA (Fig. S3A and

S3B), suggesting that AtADS2 desaturated C18:0-acyl-CoA by Δ9-desaturase activity.

This finding is in contrast to expressing *AtADS2* in *S. cerevisiae*, in which AtADS2

presented Δ15-desaturase activity leading to nervonic acid production from C24:0-acyl-

CoA (Smith et al., 2013).

Structural analysis of AtADS2 by SWISS-MODEL server showed that the three-

dimensional structure of AtADS2 is highly similar to that of mouse stearoyl-CoA

desaturase (mSCD, PDB ID:4ymk) (Bai et al., 2005). Like typical SCDs, cross-sections

of the AtADS2 surface have a tunnel-like substrate binding pocket, which determines

the chain length of acyl-CoA substrates (Fig. S3C). Compared with C18:0-acyl-CoA,

C24:0-acyl-CoA has a longer hydrophobic hydrocarbon chain that cannot effectively

combine with the binding pocket. We explored improving the substrate preference of

AtADS2 toward C24:0-acyl-CoA by modifying amino acids around the pocket to

enhance its hydrophobicity (Table S4). Unexpectedly, the content of nervonic acid

decreased in all mutants, while the content of oleic acid increased from 36% to above

47% in TFA along with a slight increase of eicosenoic acid (Fig. S3D). Since AtADS2

and the mutants tested here prefer desaturating C18:0-acyl-CoA to produce oleic acid

in *Y. lipolytica*, the strategy of desaturation of C24:0-acyl-CoA for production of

nervonic acid was given up in this study.

3.3. Modulation of endogenous pathways improved nervonic acid production

Palmitoleic acid is a *ω*-7 fatty acid that cannot be used as the substrate for

producing the *ω*-9 nervonic acid (Fig. 1). With the overexpression of *CgKCS*,

palmitoleic acid increased significantly, from 13.5% to 27.3% of TFA (Fig. 2A and 2B).

We assumed that expression of C16/C18 FAEs that prefer to convert C16:0-acyl-CoA

to C18:0-acyl-CoA together with Δ9 desaturases with high substrate preference for

C18:0-acyl-CoA should decrease the synthesis of palmitoleic acid and increase the

C18:1-acyl-CoA precursor for nervonic acid production (Fig. 1).

We next evaluated the substrate preference of heterologous FAEs for C16:0-acyl-

CoA and fatty acid desaturases for C18:0-acyl-CoA *in vivo* (Table S5). The goat

ELOVL6 (gELOVL6) (Shi et al., 2017), rat ELO2 (rELO2) (Yazawa et al., 2011), and

CpLCE1 from *Cryptosporidium parvum* (Frltzler et al., 2007), were chosen according

to previous reports about the high elongation preference of them toward C16:0-acyl-

CoA. The tested fatty acid desaturases included OLE2 from *Mortierella alpine*

(MaOLE2) (Wan et al., 2013), FAT6 from *Caenorhabditis elegans* (CeFAT6) (Watts

and Browse, 2000), and D9DMB from *Cunninghamella echinulata* (Wongwathanarat

et al., 1999). All the genes were optimized according to the codon usage bias of *Y.*

lipolytica.

Expression of *CeFAT6* and *rELO2* in *Y. lipolytica* po1g increased the content of

linoleic acid from 21.6% in TFA to 36.4% and 41.7%, respectively. In contrast,

expression of *MaOLE2* or *gELOVL6* in po1g led to an effective increase of oleic acid

from 36.3% in TFA to more than 50% along with a decrease of palmitoleic acid from

12.1% in TFA to below 8.4% (Fig. 3A and 3B). Because CgKCS prefers using C18:0-

acyl-CoA as the substrate for nervonic acid synthesis, *MaOLE2* and *gELOVL6* were

employed in constructing nervonic acid overproducing strains. Expression of *gELOVL6*

in the *CgKCS*-overexpressing strain YL-3CgK decreased the contents of palmitoleic

acid and palmitic acid in TFA by 7.5% and 57.2% in the strain YL-3CgKE, respectively.

Meanwhile, nervonic acid increased from 3.3% to 13.2% of the TFA in YL-3CgKE (Fig.

3C). Furthermore, expressing an additional copy of each of *gELOVL6* and *MaOLE2* in

YL-3CgKE reduced palmitoleic acid by 40.5% and increased nervonic acid to 15.9%

of TFA in YL-3CgKEM, (Fig. 3C). A maximum nervonic acid titer of 0.34 g/L was

achieved in flask cultures. These results confirmed the effectiveness of expression of

gELOVL6 and *MaOLE2* to decrease palmitoleic acid and improve the precursor for

nervonic acid production in *Y. lipolytica*. The distribution of nervonic acid in TAG was

then detected by hydrolysis using a 1,3-specific lipase as well as TLC and GC-MS

analysis. The results indicated that nervonic acid produced by the engineered *Y.*

lipolytica localized at *sn*-1and *sn*-3 positions in TAG (Fig. 3D).

3.4. Construction of nervonic acid overproduction strains by homologous recombination in lipid-overproduction strains

Although the nervonic acid content in TFA reached 15.9% in the strain YL-3CgKEM, the lipid titer was only 2.1 g/L in flask cultures. To improve the titer of both nervonic acid and lipids, we iteratively overexpressed *CgKCS*, *gELOVL6* and *MaOLE2* in the lipid-overproduction strain po1g-G3 (Li et al., 2020) by both random integration and homologous recombination (Fig. 4A). Six copies of *CgKCS* were expressed by random genome insertion to generate the strain YLVL6, which produced 0.69 g/L of nervonic acid (6.5% of TFA) in flask (Fig. 4B and 4C). However, further expression of additional copies of *CgKCS* by random genetic integration without clearly improving nervonic acid production in YLVL9 (Fig. S4A and S4B). Genome resequencing revealed that the additional *CgKCS* expression cassettes eliminated the expression of previous *CgKCS* by recombination with their TEF1 promoters (Fig. S4C). Thus, we next adopted homologous recombination to overexpress heterologous genes at given loci. Simultaneous expression of *CgKCS*, *gELOVL6* and *MaOLE2* at the ribosomal DNA loci of YLVL6 generated the strain YLVL7, in which the content and titer of nervonic acid reached 10.0% of the TFA and 1.46 g/L in flask cultures, respectively (Fig. 4B and 4C). Additional expression of *CgKCS*, *gELOVL6* and *MaOLE2* at the *D17* locus (Schwartz et al., 2017) increased nervonic acid to 11.8% of the TFA and 1.71 g/L in the strain YLVL8 (Fig. 4B and 4C). Next, double *CgKCS* expression cassettes were co-expressed at the fatty acid desaturase-2 (FAD2) gene locus in YLVL8, producing the strain YLVL10. Disruption of *FAD2* led to a decrease of lipid production, from 14.5 g/L

in YLNA8 to 11.6 g/L in YLVL10, with a slight increase of the nervonic acid titer, from

1.71 g/L to 1.76 g/L as nervonic acid content increased to 15.2% from 11.8% of the

TFA (Fig. 4B to 4D). The strain YLVL10 produced VLCFAs at 3.74 g/L as high as 25-

folds of that in the initial strain po1g-G3 in flasks. The content of VLCFAs in YLVL10

was 32.3% of the TFA. The ratio of nervonic acid and lignoceric acid to the total

VLCFAs reached 47.1% and 38.2%, respectively.

Meanwhile, we constructed a series of YLNA strains (YLNA1 to 7), in which all

overexpressed genes were integrated into the genome of po1g-G3 by homologous

recombination (Fig. 5A). In the strain YLNA7, seven copies of *CgKCS* were expressed

at the genomic loci of *rDNA*, *FAD2*, *TGL4*, *GSY1* and *SNF1*. A nervonic acid titer of

2.60 g/L were achieved in YLNA7 (Fig. 5A to C), which was apparently higher than

the 1.76 g/L achieved in YLVL10. Interestingly, the ratio of nervonic acid to lignoceric

acid (C24:0) increased from 1.38 in YLNA6 to 2.23 in YLNA7 by disruption of the

AMP-activated S/T protein kinase *SNF1* (Fig. 5C and 5D), which facilitates the

purification of nervonic acid. The ratio of nervonic acid to lignoceric acid in YLNA7

was also significantly higher than that in YLVL10 (2.23 vs 1.23).

Since the fatty acid desaturase MaOLE2 prefers to desaturate C18:0-acyl-CoA to

generate C18:1-acyl-CoA as the substrate of CgKCS for nervonic acid biosynthesis, it

is hypothesized that the proximity of MaOLE2 and CgKCS in ER benefits the

production of nervonic acid (Fig. 6A). Protein transmembrane prediction showed that

MaOLE2 has five transmembrane helices (TM1–TM5) arranged in a trumpet-like shape

(Fig. 6B and 6D). The dimetal (Zn^{2+}) catalytic activity sites locate in two helical turns

toward the cytoplasm (Fig. 6B). CgKCS has two transmembrane segments (TM1 and

TM2) at the N-terminal (Fig. 6C and 6E). When the transmembrane regions were

removed, the truncated CgKCS maintained only a weak longation ability (Fig. S5).

Based on the structure information, a flexibility glycine linker (GGGGGGGGGG) was

used to fuse the C-terminal of MaOLE2 with the N-terminal of CgKCS. The fusion

protein was expressed at the *D17* locus in YLNA7, producing the strain YLNA8. The

nervonic acid content in YLNA8 (17.3%) was slightly higher than YLNA7 (16.5%)

(Fig. 5C and 5D). The ratio of nervonic acid to lignoceric acid in YLNA8 also increased

from 2.23 to 2.27.

3.5. Expansion of ER enhancing lipid and nervonic acid production

The INO2/INO4 transcription factor complex has been demonstrated to activate

phospholipid biosynthesis and ER structural alteration in *S. cerevisiae* (Fig. 7A and 7B)

(Schwank et al., 1997). Over-expression of *INO2* and *INO4* improved the production

of terpenoids, 3-hydroxypropionic acid, ethanol and lycopene by expanding the ER size

or enhancing cellular stress response in *S. cerevisiae* (Chen et al., 2016, 2017; Kim et

al., 2019; Fang et al., 2020). However, the homologues of INO2/INO4 have not been

identified in *Y. lipolytica*.

To recognize the ER regulatory factors in *Y. lipolytica*, a putative inositol-3-

phosphate synthase YlINO1 (NC 006068.1) was first identified by two-sequence

alignment. The YlINO1 was confirmed by prediction of the interaction between

ScINO2/INO4 and the YlINO1 promoter by using the software JASPAR2020 (Fig.

S6A), indicating *Y. lipolytica* having INO2/INO4 complex. YlINO1 and ScINO1 (NC

001142.9) showed a sequence identity of 67.2% (Fig. S6B). Subsequently, putative ER

regulators YlINO2 (GenBank No. AOW01275.1) and YlINO4 (GenBank No.

AOW06291.1) were identified by homology analysis in the genome of *Y. lipolytica*. In

the GenBank database, YlINO2 was annotated as a hypothetical protein with no specific

function, whereas YlINO4 was annotated as a ScINO4-like protein. YlINO4 shared a

sequence identity of 37.3% with ScINO4 and they had similar three-dimensional

structure (Fig. S7A-S7C). The sequence similarity between templet (Bdp1) and YlINO2

is only 15.2% (Fig. 7C). Structure-based multi-sequence alignment showed that the

putative YlINO2/INO4 and the Sc INO2/INO4 shared the same essential amino acids

for DNA recognition (Fig. 7D, Fig. S7D and S7E), indicating that YlINO2/YlINO4 is

ER transcription factors.

Next, the putative YlINO2 and YlINO4 were separately expressed at the *PEX10*

locus in YLNA8. Overexpression of YlINO4 did not result in clear changes in the

production of lipid and nervonic acid (Fig. 7E). Overexpression of YlINO2 resulted in

a 39.3% increase in lipid production from 15.2 g/L in YLNA8 to 21.1 g/L in YLNA9,

as well as a significant increase in biomass from 28.0 g/L to 36.6 g/L (Fig. 7E). The rate

of sugar consumption speeded up quickly from 48 h that resulted in rapid increases in

the biomass and lipid titer in YLNA9 expressing YlINO2 (Fig. 7F). A lipid content of

59.5% in the DCW and a nervonic acid content of 16.5% in TFA were achieved in

YLNA9 (Fig. 7G and 7H). The titer of nervonic acid increased 18.2% from 2.96 g/L to

3.5 g/L in YLNA9 (Fig. 7E). The nervonic acid was confirmed by GC-MS (Fig. S8).

The ER membrane expansion was observed in the YlINO2 overexpressed strains

YLNA9 by transmission electron microscopy (Fig. S9), further indicated that YlINO2

is an ER structure regulator.

3.6. Engineering the esterification of C24:1-acyl-CoAs

The biosynthesis of TAG from fatty acyl-CoA and glycerol-3-phosphate requires

glycerol-3-phosphate acyltransferases (GPAT), lysophospholipid acyltransferases

(LPAT), phosphatidic acid phosphatase (PAP), and diacylglycerol acyltransferases

(DGAT) (Fig. 8A). Most fatty acids exist in the lipid forms of TAG. Once C16-acyl-

CoAs and C18-acyl-CoAs are esterified to form lipids, they cannot be elongated to

C24:1-acyl-CoAs for the synthesis of nervonic acid. So, esterified enzymes with

substrate preference for C24:1-acyl-CoAs rather than C16-acyl-CoAs or C18-acyl-

CoAs are expected to improve the production of nervonic acid. In view of the seeds of

M. oleifera rich in nervonic acid (Chivandi et al., 2008), *DGAT* and *GPAT* genes in this

plant were systematically evaluated to identify C24:1-acyl-CoAs preferred ones.

Eight putative GPATs and ten putative DGAT2s sequences were extracted from

the *M. oleifera* genome by homologous sequence analysis (Fig. 8B and 8C). Further

functional prediction using UniPort in NCBI indicated that two GPATs (GenBank No.

oleifera 006088 and 006090) and two DGAT2s (GenBank No. oleifera 010035 and

015949) possibly prefer to esterify C24:1-acyl-CoAs. Both GPAT sequences 006088

and 006090 showed a sequence identity of above 55% compared with the GPAT

AAG23437.1 in *A. thaliana*. The sequence identity of DGAT2 010035 and 015949 to

the DGAT2 AEE78802.1 in *A. thaliana* was 25.4% and 37.8%, respectively. Separated

expression of the four putative acyltransferases at the *PEX10* locus in YLNA8 increased

the lipid titer by 22.1% (strain MoGPAT-88), 18.8% (strain MoGPAT-90), 15.6% (strain

MoDGAT2-35) and 17.2% (strain MoDGAT2-49), respectively (Fig. 8D). A highest

nervonic acid titer of 3.36 g/L was achieved in MoGPAT-88 (entitled YLNA10), which

is 28.1% higher than that in the strain YLNA8 (Fig. 8D). The content of nervonic acid

in TFA improved from 17.3% to 18.0% in YLNA10 (Fig. 8D-8F). The ratio of nervonic

acid to lignoceric acid in YLNA10 increased to 3.5 from 2.27 in YLNA8.

3.7. Production of nervonic acid by two-stage fed-batch bioreactor

The fermentative medium and conditions were optimized in flasks and a 3-L reactor.

Central composite design (CCD) and response surface methodology were used to

optimize the concentrations of glucose and nitrogen sources (yeast extract and

ammonium sulfate) in flasks using strain YLVL3 (Table S6 and S7). In two rounds of

optimization experiments, the medium containing 150 g/L glucose, 6 g/L yeast extract,

and 12 g/L ammonium sulfate exhibited optimal lipid production (Fig. S10), with lipid

and nervonic acid titer that were 2.9-fold and 6.7-fold the levels obtained in the control

media, respectively (Fig. S10). The strain YLVL6 was also cultivated by fed-batch

fermentation in the 3-L bioreactor and the feeding medium composition was evaluated

for maximal lipid production. The results showed that feeding glucose and ammonium

sulfate with a C/N molar ratio of 100:1 during fermentation resulted in an 84.6%

increase in lipid titer (41.4 g/L) compared to that achieved by feeding solely glucose

(Fig. S11A). The lipid titer was further improved to 43.7 g/L by controlling the

dissolved oxygen level at 20% up to 24 h and below 5% after 24 h, and the biomass

reached 159.2 g/L at 120 h (Fig. S11B). Under the optimized conditions, a nervonic

acid titer of 4.2 g/L was achieved by 120 h for strain YLVL6 in the 3-L reactor.

On the basis of the optimized fermentation medium and conditions, pilot-scale

fermentation in 50-L reactor was separately performed using the strains YLVL10 and

YLNA9 (Fig. 9A-9C). Lipid and nervonic acid synthesized constantly by YLVL10 in

192 h during the fermentation process (Fig. 9C). A VLCFAs titer of 24.0 g/L was

obtained in YLVL10 at 192 h, which consisted of behenic acid (C22:0) 1.6 g/L, erucic

acid (C22:1) 2.2 g/L, lignoceric acid (C24:0) 10.0 g/L and nervonic acid (C24:1) 10.2

g/L (Fig. 9B). Lipid and nervonic acid synthesized constantly by YLNA9 in 216 h (Fig.

9C). The fastest lipid production in YLNA9 happened between 48 h and 72 h which

was earlier than that of 72 h to 96 h in YLVL10, and the highest yield during this period

in both YLNA9 and YLVL10 reached 0.267 g FAME/g glucose (98% of the maximum

theoretical yield). A largest lipid titer of 96.7 g/L and a lipid content of 52.1% to DCW

were achieved in YLNA9 (Fig. 9C, Fig. S12). The titer of nervonic acid and VLCFAs

in YLNA9 reached 17.3 g/L and 28.2 g/L, respectively (Fig. 9C), as far as we known,

both of which were more than two-folds of the highest levels in previous reports (Fillet

et al., 2017). The productivity of nervonic acid is 0.135 $g \cdot L^{-1} \cdot h^{-1}$.

3.8. Separation and purification of nervonic acid

Both nervonic acid and lignoceric acid have 24 carbons and the positions of them

in GC spectrums are close (Fig. 5B). Separation of nervonic acid from lignoceric acid

and other fatty acid components was explored. The lipids produced by the strain YLNA-

10 in 50-L reactor were extracted and saponified to release free fatty acids. The

standards of methyl cis-15-tetracosenoate and ethyl 15-tetracosenoate were used to

estimate saponification conditions. The recoveries of methyl cis-15-tetracosenoate and

ethyl 15-tetracosenoate reached 93.38 ± 6.20 % and 101.71 ± 10.53%, respectively,

indicating the feasibility of the processes used in this study.

After saponification, silica gel column chromatography was used to separate

nervonic acid in view of the weak polarity of it. Mobile phases consisting of *n*-hexane

and ammonia or acetic acid were first evaluated on TLC. The results showed that using

the solutions containing *n*-hexane and acetic acid or 0.5% ammonia successfully

presented nervonic acid (Fig. S13). Particularly, the mobile phase consisting of *n*-

hexane and 1% acetic acid exhibited best separation efficiency and product purity and

was used in silica gel column chromatography. Furthermore, discarding 75 ml of initial

eluent and collecting 230 ml of subsequent eluent resulted in maximum recovery of

nervonic acid. Next, the products purified by silica gel column chromatography were

further separated by a C_{18} column using UHPLC and the eluent containing nervonic

acid was collected according to the elution time of nervonic acid standard. Nervonic

acid was verified by HPLC-MS/MS and the purity of the nervonic acid solution reached

98.7% (m/m) determined by HPLC (Fig. 10). Thus, these processes successfully

separated nervonic acid from lignoceric acid and other fatty acid components.

4. Discussion

The number of lipid structures collected in the LIPID MAPS® Structure Database

(LMSD) exceeds 47, 000 so far. Many lipids have similar structures except the chain

length of fatty acids because of the non-specificity of elongation and esterification

reactions toward fatty acid units. Therefore, evaluation of fatty acid elongases and

esterifying enzymes is crucial for producing tailored fatty acid species (Xin et al., 2019;

Wang et al., 2021). In this work, we identified C16:0-acyl-CoA preferred elongases and

C18:0-acyl-CoA preferred desaturases that combined to effectively promote the

formation of C18:1-acyl-CoA, a common precursor for production of long-chain

unsaturated fatty acids (LCUFAs) and very long-chain unsaturated fatty acids

(VLCUFAs). To synthesize VLCFAs, KCS is among the key enzymes used for

lengthening fatty acid chains (Huai et al., 2015). Here, we found that CgKCS prefers to

directly convert C18:1-acyl-CoA to C24:1-acyl-CoA by three rounds of two-carbon

addition in the yeast *Y. lipolytica*. Meanwhile, increase of C20:1-acyl-CoA and C22:1-

acyl-CoA by expression of *AtFAE1* and *BtFAE1* did not help CgKCS to produce more

C24:1-acyl-CoA and nervonic acid. In contrast, expression of CgKCS in *R. toruloides*

led to approximately equal amount of erucic acid (C22:1) and nervonic acid (Fillet et

al., 2017). In addition, some KCSs prefers using C22:1-acyl-CoA as substrate to

synthesize nervonic acid in plants (Guo et al., 2009). Accordingly, we concluded that

the products of KCSs depend on both enzyme specificity and the hosts, and therefore,

both aspects should be seriously considered when VLCFAs are produced by metabolic

engineering.

In oleaginous prokaryotes and eukaryotes, most acyl-CoAs are incorporated onto

glycerol-3-phosphate (G3P) to generate TAGs as a form of energy storage. TAG

biosynthesis is an evolutionarily conserved process, while acyltransferases GPAT and

DGAT involved in the synthesis of TAGs do not possess rigid substrate specificity

toward acyl-CoAs (Liu et al., 2012; Korbes et al., 2016). Acyltransferases with similar

amino acid sequences can exhibit completely different acyl-donor specificities (Jeppson

et al., 2020). In the nervonic acid producing plant *M. oleifera*, *GPAT* and *DGAT* genes

have been identified, which exhibited apparently differential transcript levels in seeds

(Yang et al., 2018). In this study, we evaluated the high expressed genes in *M. oleifera*

seeds and demonstrated that expression of the GPAT Maole_006088.T1 encoding gene

in *Y. lipolytica* effectively improved the titer and content of nervonic acid. This result

indicated that regulating esterification specificity is also a strategy to overproduce

tailored fatty acid species, while this strategy has not received enough attention.

Lipids play a vital function in the physiology of cells and lipid metabolism

correlates with various organelles in eukaryotes (Kerner and Hoppel, 2000; Xu et al.,

2016; Yang et al., 2019). The organelle ER is particularly critical in the elongation and

desaturation of fatty acids and lipid formation. Biosynthesis of polyunsaturated fatty

acids (PUFAs), VLCFAs, and total TAGs require enzymes being targeted on ER, while

expression of too many heterologous enzymes on ER may increase the load of it. Here,

we identified a hypothetical protein YlINO2 (AOW01275.1) in *Y. lipolytica*, which is

possibly a counterpart of *S. cerevisiae* INO2. Overexpression of *YlINO2* expanded the

ER area and apparently improved the titer of both TAG and nervonic acid in *Y. lipolytica*,

highlighting the significance of ER engineering for production of lipids and tailored

fatty acids.

Some VLCFAs and VLCFA derived products have been utilized as lubricants,

detergents, cosmetics and pharmaceuticals, such as erucic acid, docosanol, and wax

esters (Gao et al., 2020; Taylor et al., 2010; Yu et al., 2017). Microbial production of VLCFAs from renewable feedstocks presents a promising alternative route to sourcing these materials from plant oils or the petrochemical industry. In this study, we engineered the oleaginous yeast *Y. lipolytica* to produce the VLCUFA nervonic acid and achieved the highest reported titer to date, 17.3 g/L in a 50-L bioreactor, indicating a bright prospect for commercial use. In contrast to unsaturated fatty acids and long-chain saturated fatty acids, very long-chain saturated fatty acids (VLSFAs) have received limited attention. Interestingly, recent studies reported that arachidic acid (20: 0), behenic acid (22: 0), and lignoceric acid (24: 0) need to be distinguished from other saturated fatty acids for their potential health benefits in reducing risks of diabetes, heart disease mortality and aging (Fretts et al., 2020; Jensen et al., 2020; Lemaitre and King, 2022). Here, we engineered *Y. lipolytica* to produce the VLCFAs at 28.2 g/L in a 50-L bioreactor, indicating this oleaginous yeast is a superior host for production of valuable VLCFAs.

Data availability

The authors declare that the data supporting the findings of this study are available within the Article and its Supplementary Information files.

Author contributions

S.W., F.L. and W.F. conceived the project. S.W. and F.L. designed the experiments. H.M., H.F., H.S., P.S. and J.L. constructed the engineered strains. H.S. and J.X.

performed bioreactor fermentation. S.W., H.S. and H.M. analyzed the data. S.W. and

H.S. wrote the manuscript. S.W. and F.L. reviewed and edited the manuscript. All

authors contributed to the manuscript, and read and approved the final version.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare competing financial interests: S.W., F.L., and W.F. have filed

patent applications on this work through Qingdao Institute of Bioenergy and Bioprocess

Technology, CAS and Zhejiang Zhenyuan Pharmaceutical Co., LTD, China. S.W., F.L.,

and W.F. have commercial interests in Zhejiang Zhenyuan Pharmaceutical Co., LTD.

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Fig. 1. Biosynthetic pathways for nervonic acid production in engineered *Y. lipolytica*.

The solid line-box and the dotted line-box denote native pathways and heterologous

pathways, respectively. The grey arrows represent competing pathways of the

biosynthesis of nervonic acid. The dotted arrows show the hypothetical desaturation

steps of fatty acids. FAE, fatty acid elongases.

Fig. 2. Evaluation of fatty acid elongases for production of nervonic acid. (A) Expression of *CgKCS* in *Y. lipolytica* po1g. (B) The control strain po1g. (C) Expression of *AtFAE1* in po1g. (D) Expression of *BtFAE1* in po1g. (E) Co-expression of *AtFAE1*, *BtFAE1* and *CgKCS* in po1g. (F) Diagram of fatty acid metabolism related to multiple organelles and subcellular localization of *CgKCS*. ACL, ATP-citrate lyase; ACC, acetyl-CoA carboxylase; CgKCS, β-ketoacyl-CoA synthase of *C. graeca*; FAS, fatty acid synthase; FFA, free fatty acids; PalCoA, palmitoyl-CoA. (G) The relative amount of nervonic acid content in the TFA produced by the strains expressing CgKCS and CgKCS fused with organelle targeting signals. Cultivations were carried out for 144 h at 250 rpm and 28 °C in flasks. Data are mean ± s.d. from three replicates. (H)

946   Microscopic observation of the strains expressing the fused protein CgKCS-sfGFP for

947   evaluating the location of CgKCS in *Y. lipolytica*. CgKCS-sfGFP exhibited both

948   punctate and accumulated localization at the early stage of cultivation (36 h) and

949   gathered in lipid droplets at lipid accumulation stage (60 h).

Fig. 3. Expression of C16:0-acyl-CoA-specific FAEs and C18:0-acyl-CoA-specific fatty acid desaturases to improve nervonic acid production. (A) Expression of genes encoding C16:0-acyl-CoA-specific FAEs. (B) Expression of genes encoding C18:0-acyl-CoA-specific fatty acid desaturases. (C) Co-expression of *gELOVL6*, *MaOLE2*, and *CgKCS*. (D) Determination of the distribution of nervonic acid in TAG by hydrolysis using a 1,3-specific lipase as well as TLC and GC-MS analysis. Cultivations were carried out for 144 h at 250 rpm and 28 ºC in flasks. Data are mean ± s.d. from three replicates. Statistical analysis was performed by two-way ANOVA and Tukey's multiple comparison test.

Fig. 4. Construction of VLCFAs-producing strains expressing *CgKCS*, *gELOVL6* and

MaOLE2 by random insertion and homologous recombination. (A) Schematic diagram

showing the construction of YLVL strains. The overexpressed genes are indicated by

red symbol. The red numbers in parentheses represented the gene copies more than one

on plasmids. The green italics symbol denotes genes integrated into the genomes by

random integration or homologous recombination. The results of lipid and VLCFAs

biosynthesis in the strains YLVL3, 6, 7, 8 and 10, including the fatty acid profiles (B),

the titer of lipid and nervonic acid (C), the fatty acid composition in YLVL10 detected

by gas chromatography (D), the titer of LCFAs and VLCFAs (E), and the fraction of

LCFAs and VLCFAs (F). The yeasts were cultured for 144 h at 250 rpm and 28 ºC in

flasks. Data are mean ± s.d. from three replicates.

Fig. 5. The construction of nervonic acid overproducing strains by homologous

recombination. (A) Schematic diagram showing the construction of YLNA strains by

expressing the genes *CgKCS*, *MaOLE2*, YlINO2 and MoGPAT-88 at multiple genomic

loci. The overexpressed genes are indicated by blue symbol. The blue numbers in

parentheses represented the gene copies more than one on plasmids. The green italics

symbol denotes genes integrated into the genomes by homologous recombination. (B)

Comparison of the production of nervonic acid and lignoceric acid in YLNA9,

YLNA10 and YLVL10. The results of lipid and VLCFAs biosynthesis in the strains

YLNA1, 3, and 5 to 10, including the fatty acid profiles (C), the titer of lipid and

nervonic acid (D), the fatty acid composition in YLNA10 detected by gas

chromatography (E). The yeasts were cultured for 144 h at 250 rpm and 28 ºC in flasks.

Data are mean ± s.d. from three replicates.

Fig. 6. Overexpression of MaOLE2-CgKCS in ER. (A) Schematic diagram showing the physical locations of MaOLE2 and CgKCS in ER. (B) Three-dimensional architecture of MaOLE2. The red spheres represent the catalytic site of zinc ions. (C) Three-dimensional architecture of CgKCS. (D) Five transmembrane domains in MaOLE2 are organized in a two-dimensional topology. (E) Two transmembrane domains in CgKCS are organized in a two-dimensional topology. (F) Comparison of the fatty acid composition between YLNA7 and YLNA8. (G) Comparison of the production of nervonic acid and lignoceric acid in YLNA7, YLNA8 and YLVL10.

 Fig. 7. Identification of an ER regulator YlINO2 promoting the production of lipid. (A)

 Schematic diagram showing the functions of INO2. (B) The regulatory network of the

INO2/INO4 complex. PA, lipidphosphatidic acid; PI, phosphatidylinositol; PS,

phosphatidylserine; PE, phosphatidylethanolamine; PC, phosphatidylcholine. (C)

Three-dimensional architecture showing the combination of YlINO2 with DNA. (D)

Structure-based multiple sequence alignment of bHLH transcription factors. Sc, *S.*

cerevisiae; Yl, *Y. lipolytica*. The star symbol above the red boxes indicates the

conserved residues. (E) Comparison of DCW, and the titer of lipid and nervonic acid in

the CK strain YLNA8 and the strains YlINO2 (YLNA9) and YlINO4. (F) The cell

growth and glucose consuming in the CK strain YLNA8 and YlINO2 (YLNA9). Data

are mean ± s.d. from three replicates. (G) The content of lipid and protein in CK

(YLNA8) and YlINO2 (YLNA9). (H) Comparison of fatty acid composition in CK

(YLNA8) and YlINO2 (YLNA9).

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Fig. 8. Nervonic acid and lipids improved by overexpressing *GPAT* and *DGAT2* from

M. oleifera. (A) The biosynthesis of TAG in ER catalyzed by GPAT, LPAT, PAP and

DGAT. G3P, glycerol 3-phosphate; GPAT, glycerol-3-phosphate acyltransferase; LPAT,

lysophosphlipid acyltransferase; PAP, phosphatidic acid phosphatase; DGAT,

diacylglycerol acyltransferase. Phylogenetic trees of the acyltransferases GPAT (B) and

DGAT2 (C) from *M. oleifera* constructed by the Neighbor-Joining method using the

software MEGA11. The titer of lipid and nervonic acid in the acyltransferases

overexpressed strains (D). The fatty acid composition in GPAT (E) and DGAT2 (F)

overexpressed strains.

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1019   **Fig. 9.** Fed-batch fermentation in a 50-L reactor. (A) Conditions for controlling the two-

1020   stage fermentation process. (B) Fed-batch fermentation of YLVL10 in a 50-L bioreactor.

1021   (C) Fed-batch fermentation of YLNA9 in a 50-L bioreactor. Fermentation was

1022   conducted at 28 °C, pH 5.5. Substrate feeding to 150 g/L in every 12 h. DCW, dry cell

1023   weight.

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1025   **Fig. 10**. Comparison of nervonic acid products before and after purification determined

1026   by HPLC. The brown liquid showed the initial lipids. The transparent liquid presented

1027   the purified nervonic acid solution.