The ABCG1 transporter is required for terpene biosynthesis in the lumen of
***Marchantia polymorpha* oil bodies.**

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<u>ABSTRACT</u>

Marchantia polymorpha oil bodies (OBs) are specialised cell structures housing a
diverse array of C15-terpenes, called sesquiterpenes. These compounds are known
for their roles as herbivore repellents, yet the enzymes responsible for the biosynthesis
of their precursors (C5 isoprenoid units) remain poorly characterized. Discrepancies
remain between enzyme localizations suggested by computational predictors and
those observed in earlier experimental studies, complicating our understanding of
terpene biosynthesis. We investigated the localization of isoprenoid biosynthetic
enzymes using translational and transcriptional reporters, coupled with confocal
microscopy. Most enzymes localized as predicted (*e.g.*, cytosol, chloroplast and the
endoplasmic reticulum), and OB cells were identified as the primary sites of terpene
biosynthesis.
To explore OBs as potential storage sites for terpenes, we attempted to produce
exogenous but easily identifiable compounds in *Marchantia*, such as the diterpene
taxadiene and the triterpene β-amyrin. Targeting to OB cells resulted in measurable
amounts of these compounds, but their yields remained unaffected by the over-
expression of key precursor genes, underscoring challenges in redirecting metabolic
flux.
We hypothesized that precursor flux in *Marchantia* primarily supports the synthesis of
endogenous sesquiterpenes, which are then transported into the OB lumen. To
investigate this process, we focused on ABCG1, an ABC transporter previously
reported to localize at the OB membrane. CRISPR-mediated disruption of ABCG1
resulted in a dramatic reduction in sesquiterpene levels, supporting its role in
metabolite accumulation within OBs.
Interestingly, a translational reporter of *FTPSL2*, a known endogenous sesquiterpene
synthase in *Marchantia*, localized within the OB lumen, suggesting that ABCG1 may
instead transport the sesquiterpene precursor farnesyl pyrophosphate (FPP). These

findings identified the first potential FPP transporter, an important advancement in our
understanding of terpene biosynthesis and storage in *Marchantia polymorpha*.
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38 **<u>INTRODUCTION.</u>**
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In recent years, *Marchantia polymorpha* has emerged as a valuable model plant[1] for
studying terpene biosynthesis and accumulation within specialized storage structures
known as oil bodies (OBs)[2]. The oil bodies in *Marchantia* are membrane-bound
compartments that primarily house terpenes[3] and bisbibenzyls[4], a class of
phenylpropanoid derivatives; the mixture confers anti-feedant properties against
herbivores[5]. Terpenes are a diverse class of natural products derived from the
condensation of isoprene (C_5H_8) units[6], found across many organisms but
predominantly in the plant kingdom. Beyond deterring herbivores as observed in
Marchantia, they serve other vital roles in plants, such as preventing fungal infections
or attracting pollinators. Additionally, their broad range of bioactive properties makes
them valuable in medicine, agriculture, food and other industrial applications.
The sequestration of bisbibenzyls and terpenes into OBs is critical for protecting
Marchantia from the potential toxicity of these metabolites when released into other
tissues. The unique compartmentalization offered by OBs presents a promising
avenue for metabolic engineering, as it provides a natural reservoir for accumulating
metabolites that might otherwise be harmful to the plant.
Recent developmental studies have provided significant insights into the mechanisms
governing OB cell fate determination and formation, highlighting key transcription
factors (TFs) involved in these processes. Specific TFs, such as ERF13[7], C1HDZ[5],
TGA[8] and MYB2[9,10] have been identified as crucial regulators of OB cell differentiation
and maturation[11]. These discoveries have expanded our understanding of how OB
cells develop and contribute to the plant's metabolic capacity.
Manipulating these TFs has further revealed the delicate balance between OB cell
proliferation and plant fitness. For instance, CRISPR-mediated mutation of *TGA*[8] or
gain-of-function mutants of *ERF13* led to a dramatic increase in OB cell numbers per
plant[7]. However, these alterations were accompanied by reduced growth rates or
morphological defects, suggesting that OB cell number is tightly regulated in
Marchantia to avoid compromising overall plant health and fitness.

Early studies on *Marchantia's* terpene biosynthetic pathway, which were based on
immunolocalization of isoprenoid enzymes, hypothesized that key enzymatic steps
might occur at the oil body (OB) membrane or within the OB lumen[3]. Today, with the
availability of whole-genome sequencing and detailed gene annotations informed by
sequence homology with other species, our understanding of the early steps of
isoprenoid biosynthesis has significantly improved[12,13] (Table 1 and S1). The
mevalonate (MVA) and methylerythritol phosphate (MEP)[14–16] pathways are the two
primary metabolic routes responsible for producing the precursors — isopentenyl
pyrophosphate (IPP) and dimethylallyl pyrophosphate (DMAPP) — to various classes
of terpenes (Table 1). The MVA pathway, comprising seven enzymatic steps[17] and
typically operating in the cytosol[18], endoplasmic reticulum[19] (ER) and peroxysome[20],
generally supplies precursors for sesquiterpenes and triterpenes[21,22], while the MEP
pathway, with eight enzymatic steps and primarily localized in plastids[23], commonly
provides precursors for monoterpenes and diterpenes[21,22] (Table 1 and S1). In
Marchantia, sesquiterpenes are the dominant terpene class found in OBs[2], produced
by several microbial- and fungal-type terpene synthases[24]. Additionally, *Marchantia*
produces the monoterpene limonene, likely synthesized through the cis-prenyl
precursor neryl pyrophosphate (NPP) rather than the trans form geranyl
pyrophosphate (GPP), as suggested by Kumar and co-workers[25]. However, it remains
unclear whether limonene is specifically stored within OBs.
Examination of genome data[12,13] along with computational predictive tools for enzyme
localization such as DeepLoc 2.1[26], enabled us to identify putative precursor genes
involved in prenyl phosphate synthesis for terpene production (Table 1). However,
discrepancies remain between earlier theories suggesting that terpene biosynthetic
enzymes are localized to OB membranes and more recent predictions that place MVA
enzymes in the cytosol, ER and peroxisome, while MEP enzymes in chloroplasts
(Table 1). These discrepancies prompted us to re-examine the localization of key
enzymes using modern techniques such as confocal microscopy combined with
translational reporters[7]. This approach allowed us to identify the specific cells
expressing these genes and determine the subcellular localization of their
corresponding proteins.
Building on our findings regarding terpene precursor gene expression and localization,
we then explored the potential for metabolic engineering in *Marchantia polymorpha*'s
OBs. Specifically, we aimed to produce two valuable terpenes within OBs: the

diterpene taxadiene[27], a precursor to the valuable anti-cancer compound Taxol®[28,29],

and the triterpene β-amyrin[30], a precursor to compounds such as glycyrrhizin[31], a

sweet-tasting constituent of liquorice. These compounds were selected due to their

distinct chemical signatures, which facilitate easy detection in chromatographic

analyses given the minimal background of these terpene sub-classes in *Marchantia*.

To further evaluate the metabolic capacity of *Marchantia* and investigate the transport

of sesquiterpenes, we also examined the production of the sesquiterpene amorpha-

4,11-diene[32] alongside ABCG1, which we initially hypothesized to transport

sesquiterpenes into OBs. Understanding the precise function of this ABC transporter

is particularly significant, as prior studies have demonstrated its high and exclusive

expression in OB cells[33] and its clear localization to the OB membrane using a

translational reporter[7]. This study sheds light on the role of ABCG1 in the terpene

accumulation in OBs, addressing a critical gap in our understanding of terpene

metabolism in *Marchantia polymorpha*.

MAIN

1. Translational and transcriptional reporters of terpenoids pathway genes and

promoters.

To determine the subcellular localization of key enzymes involved in *Marchantia*'s

terpene biosynthesis, we generated constructs of translational reporters, in which

each gene's native promoter drove its respective coding sequence fused to the

fluorescent tag *mVenus*[34]. In cases where translational reporters were unavailable due

to technical challenges, transcriptional reporters were used instead to determine cell-

type expression. These consisted of *Marchantia*'s native promoter driving mVenus with

a nuclear localisation signal[35] (mVenus-N7), enabling us to investigate the spatial and

temporal expression of key genes. Promoter lengths were selected based on Assay

for Transposase-Accessible Chromatin with Sequencing (ATAC-seq)[36] data from

version 6.1 of the Tak accession in the *Marchantia.info* database[13,24] (Table S2). ATAC-

seq identifies regions of open chromatin, which are more accessible to transcription

factors and associated with active gene regulation. This approach allowed us to select

promoter regions likely to drive gene expression in their native cellular contexts. To

delineate cell boundaries, each construct also included a fluorescent membrane

marker, *mScarlet*[37], driven by the strong, constitutive *ubiquitin-conjugating enzyme E2*

gene promoter and 5'UTR from *Marchantia polymorpha* (*Prom5UBE2*)[38], fused to the

Arabidopsis LTI6b[39] membrane protein.

For the identification of different subcellular compartments, such as

chloroplasts/plastids, ER, cytosol, Golgi, and mitochondria, we interpreted our findings

by comparing the localization patterns observed in our images with described

reporters in *Marchantia*[38,40], though distinguishing between ER and cytosol remains

challenging under the resolution constraints of our experimental setup.

For this study, we selected key genes from the MVA and MEP pathways for their roles

as rate-limiting enzymes, their redundancy, or their involvement in the final steps of

the pathway. Additionally, we included genes responsible for the formation of linear

scaffold precursors for sesquiterpenes, diterpenes, and triterpenes to capture a more

comprehensive view of terpene biosynthesis.

We first analysed the two annotated *1-deoxy-D-xylulose-5-phosphate synthases*

(*MpDXS1 and MpDXS2*) (Table 1), which encode the first committed and rate-limiting

enzymes of the MEP pathway[41]. For *MpDXS1*, tagged with mVenus and driven by its

native promoter and 5'UTR (*Prom5MpDXS1:MpDXS1-mVenus*), mVenus fluorescence

was observed in all cell types throughout the plant, with a stronger signal in OB cells

(Figure 1A). The protein localized to plastids, displaying a punctate pattern in non-OB

cells rather than a homogeneous distribution (Figure 1A). By contrast,

Prom5DXS2:DXS2-mVenus showed a restricted localization pattern, with fluorescence

observed in oil body plastids only from Day 0 gemmae to 14-days-old plants (Figure

1B and S1D).

We examined the final step of the MEP pathway by generating a translational reporter

for *(E)-4-hydroxy-3-methylbut-2-en-1-yl diphosphate reductase* (*MpHDR*)[42,43] (Table

1). We also generated a translational reporter for *(E)-4-hydroxy-3-methylbut-2-enyl*

diphosphate synthase (*MpHDS*)[42,44] (Table 1). *MpHDS* is adjacent to *MpHDR* and

oriented in the opposite direction on the same chromosome, suggesting they share a

bidirectional promoter (Figure S2A). Previous studies have highlighted the potential

toxic nature of the product of HDS[45,46], which is detoxified in the subsequent enzymatic

step by HDR[45,46], making it particularly interesting to study both enzymes together. To

our knowledge, this is the first report suggesting that *HDS* and *HDR* genes may be

regulated by a shared promoter. Initial experiments revealed that the 2 kb region

upstream of *MpHDR* was insufficient to drive expression, whereas the 1.9 kb region

upstream of *MpHDS* was adequate (Figures S2B). Expression of a construct driving

MpHDS-eGFP and *MpHDR-mVenus* bidirectionally (Figure S2C) demonstrated that,

like other MEP enzymes, both proteins localized to plastids (Figure 1C and 1D). Their

expression was stronger, if not exclusive, to OB cells in Day 0 gemmae (Figure 1C

and 1D), before becoming more widespread across tissues at later developmental

stages (Figure S1A and S1B). Similarly, GERANYLGERANYL PYROPHOSPHATE

SYNTHASE (MpGGPPS) (Table 1), enzyme synthesizing geranylgeranyl

pyrophosphate (GGPP), the scaffold for diterpenes[47,48], localized to plastids in every

cell types, but with a more intense signal in OB cells (Figure 1E).

For the MVA pathway and sesquiterpene synthesis, we examined the rate-limiting

enzyme 3-HYDROXY-3-METHYLGLUTARYL-COA REDUCTASE (MpHMGR)[49]

(Table 1). Expression of *Prom5MpHMGR:MpHMGR-mVenus* revealed a restricted

localisation to oil body cells in gemmae (Figure 1G) and 14-day-old plants (Figure

S1D). The enzyme appeared to display a dual localization pattern: a punctate

distribution around the OB, indicative of Golgi, and a web-like pattern surrounding the

nucleus consistent with ER (Figure 1G). As a key enzyme downstream the MVA

pathway, we analysed farnesyl pyrophosphate synthase (MpFPS) (Table 1), which

forms farnesyl pyrophosphate (FPP)[50], the linear precursor of all sesquiterpenes.

MpFPS also exhibited specific expression to OB cells, even after 14 days (Figure 1F

and S1E). Contrary to its predicted mitochondrial localisation by DeepLoc 2.1[26] (Table

1), the enzyme appeared predominantly cytosolic, as indicated by its uniform signal

surrounding the OB and delineating the plastids (Figure 1F).

We further investigated the expression pattern[51] of *1-deoxy-D-xylulose 5-phosphate*

reductoisomerases[52,53] (*MpDXR1* and *MpDXR2*) (Table 1) using transcriptional

reporters. *Prom5MpDXR1:mVenus-N7* showed ubiquitous expression (Figure 2A),

whereas *Prom5DXR2:mVenus-N7* showed specificity to OB cells in Day 0 gemma

(Figure 2B). Similarly, the expression pattern of the promoter for MEVALONATE

DIPHOSPHATE DECARBOXYLASE (MpMVD)[54] (Table 1), the enzyme responsible

for the last committed step of the MVA pathway, also exhibited specificity to OB cells,

even in 14-day-old thalli (Figure 2C).

Finally, given the apparent exclusivity of some MVA biosynthetic steps and MpFPS to

OB cells — key intermediates in phytosterol biosynthesis, essential structural

components of plant membranes[55] — we examined the transcriptional reporter of the

squalene synthase[56] (*MpSQS3*) promoter. The enzyme fuses two FPP molecules to

form squalene, the precursor of triterpenes and phytosterols. Among the three
squalene synthase-like genes annotated in the *Marchantia* genome (*MpSQS1-3*)
(Table 1 and S1), we selected *MpSQS3* based on its higher protein sequence
homology (60%) with *Arabidopsis thaliana* SQUALENE SYNTHASE. In contrast,
MpSQS1 showed greater similarity (73%) to *Arabidopsis* PHYTOENE SYNTHASE,
suggesting a role in carotenoid biosynthesis, while MpSQS2 shared 52% homology
with an uncharacterized terpenoid synthase. Plants expressing the
Prom5SQS3:mVenus-N7 constructs show a mVenus signal in meristematic regions in
Day 0 gemmae, followed by ubiquitous expression in later developmental stages
(Figure 2D). These findings indicate that sterol biosynthesis is not confined to OB cells
but occurs broadly throughout the plant.
Overall, our findings provide a comprehensive map of the subcellular localization and
expression patterns of key terpene biosynthetic enzymes, offering insights into the
spatial organization of biosynthetic intermediates and terpene scaffolds in *Marchantia*
polymorpha.
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2. Exogenous production of taxadiene and β-amyrin in *Marchantia polymorpha*
whole plants *vs*. oil body cells.
Given the predominant observed expression of terpene precursor enzymes in OB
cells, we aimed to harness the metabolic potential of these specialised structures. As
proof of concept, we attempted to produce the diterpene taxadiene[27], and the
triterpene β-amyrin[30].
We generated constructs to express *Taxus baccata taxadiene synthase* (*TXS*)[57] or
Talinum paniculatum β-amyrin synthase[58] (*β-AS*), driven by either the constitutive
Prom5UBE2 or the oil body-specific Mp*R2R3-MYB2* promoter (*Prom5MYB2*)[35], enabling
expression throughout the entire plant or specifically within OB cells, respectively. TXS
catalyzes the cyclization of the linear diterpene precursor GGPP into taxadiene, while
β-AS converts the linear triterpene precursor 2,3-oxidosqualene into β-amyrin.
In plants expressing *Prom5UBE2:TXS*, we detected a prominent new peak in hexane
extracts (Figure 3A), corresponding to taxadiene based on its mass spectrum (MS),
as described in prior publications[59,60]. While no commercial taxadiene standards were
available, we identified the compound by its characteristic ion at m/z 122 and the
molecular ion [M+] at m/z 272 (Figure S3A). Quantification of taxadiene in four
independent transformants expressing either *Prom5UBE2:TXS* or *Prom5MYB2:TXS*

revealed significantly higher levels of taxadiene in whole plants compared to those
with expression restricted to OB cells (Figure 3D). Specifically, $_{Prom5}UBE2{:}TXS$ lines
produced approximately 21 µg of taxadiene per g of fresh weight (FW), whereas
$_{Prom5}MYB2{:}TXS$ lines produced only 0.7 µg/g FW, dodecane equivalent. The correct
targeting of TXS protein in OB cells was confirmed using a $_{Prom5}MYB2{:}TXS\text{-}mVenus$
fusion construct, which showed plastid localization (Figure 3C).
Similarly, plants expressing $_{Prom5}UBE2{:}\beta\text{-}AS$ produced a new compound, identified as
β-amyrin through its MS profile and comparison with an authentic standard (Figure 3B
and S3B). The $_{Prom5}UBE2{:}\beta\text{-}AS$ lines produced an average of 56 µg of β-amyrin per g
of fresh weight (coprostanol equivalent), whereas lines expressing the enzyme
specifically in OB cells yielded an average of 1.4 µg/g FW (Figure 3D). In MYB2-driven
β-AS-mVenus lines, the protein localized specifically in the OB cells and the cytosol
(Figure 3C).
To investigate whether precursor flux limitations can constrain the production of
taxadiene and β-amyrin in oil bodies, we co-expressed *TXS* and *β-AS* with key rate-
limiting enzymes of the MEP and MVA pathways (*i.e DXS* and *HMGR*, respectively),
as our work demonstrated that many of these enzymes appeared to be highly or
specifically expressed to OB cells.
For taxadiene production via the MEP pathway, we co-expressed *MpDXS1* or
MpDXS2 with *TXS*. Additionally, to mitigate potential homology-dependent gene
silencing associated with overexpressing native *Marchantia* genes[61], we expressed
the homologous *PpDXS1* and *PpDXS2* genes from *Physcomitrium patens,* which have
recently been re-annotated as *PpDXS1A* and *PpDXS1D*[62]. To further enhance
precursor flux, we introduced *MpHDR* and *MpGGPPS*, two key enzymes previously
shown to increase GGPP flux for diterpene production in *Nicotiana benthamiana*[63,64].
For β-amyrin production through the MVA pathway[65], we overexpressed the *HMGR*
genes from *Marchantia* (*MpHMGR*) and *Physcomitrium* (*PpHMGR*), alongside
truncated versions designed to remove their negative feedback regulatory domain[66,67],
thereby increasing the pool of terpene precursors and allowing unrestrained
production of β-amyrin. These truncated variants (*Mp-tHMGR* and *Pp-tHMGR*) lack
the first 148 and 146 amino acids, respectively. All genes were expressed under the
MYB2 promoter to specifically target OB cells.
Quantitative analysis of four independent transformants showed no significant
increase in taxadiene or β-amyrin levels upon overexpression of these precursor

genes (Figure 3E). We confirmed the correct targeting to OB cells and subcellular localization of *Marchantia DXS*, *HDR*, *GGPPS*, *HMGR*, and *tHMGR* by fusing these genes with mVenus under the control of the MYB2 promoter (Figure S4). DXSs, HDR, and GGPPS enzymes specifically localized to plastids (Figure S4A, S4B, S4C and S4D). However, despite co-localization with TXS, this did not result in increased taxadiene levels. Over-expression of the precursor genes in the OB cells didn't increase either the level of main endogenous sesquiterpenes (Dataset 1 and Dataset 2), which were tentatively identified using Kovats retention indices[68] (Figure S5 and Table S3). While tHMGR-mVenus appeared to localize in the ER and Golgi apparatus of OB cells (Figure S4E), the native version driven by the MYB2 promoter remained undetectable. To address this, we re-cloned *MpHMGR* under the 2x35S promoter and successfully detected the protein, which accumulated exclusively to the ER of OB cells (Figure S4F). Interestingly, when tHMGR was expressed under the 2x35S promoter, the fusion protein showed expression across all cells (Figure S4G), suggesting that this regulatory domain may play a role in restricting localization to OB cells.

Overall, these results demonstrate that overexpression of selected rate-limiting enzymes was insufficient to significantly enhance terpene yields in *Marchantia* OB cells, suggesting that additional regulatory mechanisms may play critical roles in terpene biosynthesis and accumulation in these specialized cells.

3. Accumulation of terpenes in oil bodies may require a specific transporter.

Despite the high specificity and/or strong expression of terpene biosynthetic pathway genes in OB cells, the over-expression of key enzymes did not lead to increased levels of exogenous terpenes. Moreover, these compounds may not naturally accumulate in OBs: taxadiene may primarily localize to plastids, while β-amyrin could accumulate in the cytosol. We hypothesized that precursor flux in *Marchantia* predominantly supplies sesquiterpenes biosynthesis and that a specific transporter may be required for their accumulation inside OBs. Previous studies demonstrated high and exclusive expression of the *ABCG1* gene in oil body cells[33], with its protein localized to the OB membrane when expressed under its native promoter, and to the plasma membrane of other cells when driven by a non-OB-specific promoter[7].

To investigate whether ABCG1 could facilitate the accumulation of any sesquiterpenes in *Marchantia*'s OBs, we expressed *Artemisia annua amorphadiene synthase* (*AMS*), a sesquiterpene synthase that converts FPP into amorpha-4,11-diene[32]. Cyclisation of

FPP into this sesquiterpene likely occurs via the bisabolyl cation[69], similar to the

endogenous β-chamigrene[70], therefore we expected this structural similarity to enable

amorpha-4,11-diene transport into OBs. We targeted *AMS* expression to either the

whole plant (*Prom5UBE2*) or specifically in OB cells (*Prom5MYB2*). Additionally, we co-

expressed *AMS* and *ABCG1* in OB cells, alongside *HMGR*, *DXS2*, and *FPS* to

increase precursor availability and channel metabolic flux specifically toward

sesquiterpenes, with FPS recognized as a rate-limiting enzyme in their biosynthesis[71].

Amorpha-4,11-diene was detected only in transgenic lines expressing the construct

Prom5UBE2:AMS (Figure S6), with an average yield of 0.75 µg/g FW in six out of eight

independent transformants (Figure 4A, Dataset 3). No amorpha-4,11-diene was

detected when expression was targeted to OB cells, either with or without precursor

genes and *ABCG1*, possibly due to insufficient yield and/or co-elution with the β-

chamigrene peak (Figure S6). Localization studies of *AMS-mVenus* and *MpFPS-*

mVenus driven by the MYB2 promoter showed that both proteins localized to the

cytosol of OB cells (Figure 4B).

We measured endogenous sesquiterpene levels in eight independent transformants

for each gene combination. Lines expressing *Prom5MYB2:AMS* alone produced

relatively low yields, but co-expression of precursor genes significantly increased

sesquiterpene levels (Figure 4C, Dataset 3). Among combinations without *ABCG1*,

FPS + HMGR boosted sesquiterpene levels the most, with a 2.8-fold average increase

for the major sesquiterpenes compared to a 1.8-fold increase with *FPS* and *DXS2*.

The over-expression of *ABCG1* alongside all precursor genes led to the most

significant increases in endogenous sesquiterpene levels, with a 3-fold increase in cis-

thujopsene, a 3.2-fold increase in β-chamigrene and γ-cuprene, and a 3.6-fold

increase in thujopsan-2α-ol (Figure 4C, Dataset 3). The observed increase in

endogenous sesquiterpene levels when *HMGR* was expressed under the MYB2

promoter also suggests that HMGR protein is likely localized to OB cells, despite its

apparent absence in localization studies using the mVenus tag.

To further validate the transport role of ABCG1, we generated CRISPR lines to disrupt

its function. We obtained six independent transformants with early stop codons in the

ABCG1 DNA sequence (Figure 5A). Terpene analysis revealed a dramatic reduction

or complete absence of sesquiterpenes in *abcg1* mutants compared to Cas9-only

controls (Figures 5B and 5C). Notably, this reduction was specific to sesquiterpenes,

as the levels of phytosterols remained unaffected (Figure 5B and 5C). Given the

apparent differences in peak abundance observed in the overlaid chromatograms

(Figure 5B), we quantified additional compounds alongside neophytadiene and phytol,

such as (*Z*)-1,3-phytadiene and (*E*)-1,3-phytadiene, phytol derivatives identified in

prior studies[72,73] (Figure 5B). Quantification revealed no significant changes in these

compounds when comparing the five Cas9 controls and six *abcg1* mutant lines (Figure

S7). These findings suggest that ABCG1 plays a critical role in the accumulation of

endogenous sesquiterpenes while having no effect on other terpene sub-classes or

on the accumulation of exogenous sesquiterpenes.

4. Translational reporter analysis of *Marchantia* endogenous sesquiterpene synthase suggests transport of FPP into OBs.

As part of the broader screening of translational reporters described above, we initially

investigated one fungal-type terpene synthase-like protein (MpFTPSLs) from a group

of seven homologs located on the same chromosome and believed to produce the

majority of endogenous sesquiterpenes in *Marchantia*[25,74]. Among these, we studied

MpFTPSL2 (*Mp6g04320*), as this sesquiterpene synthase was previously

characterized by Kumar and co-workers[25].

Interestingly, the mVenus signal began to appear in 14-day-old plants expressing

Prom5FTPSL2:FTPSL2-mVenus, with no detectable signals observed at earlier

developmental stages, such as gemmae or young gemmalings. The signal was

localized to OB cells in only one of the four thallus lobes in two independent lines, and

specifically within the OB itself (Figure 6A). This raised the possibility that FTPSL2

enzymatic activity depends on FPP transport into the OB. These serendipitous

observations were consistent across multiple OB cells in both independent lines,

supporting the specific targeting of FTPSL2 and its potential functional role.

Intriguingly, DeepLoc 2.1[26] predicted the enzyme to be cytosolic but to also contain a

nuclear localisation signal, suggesting that FTPSL2 may localize to a compartment

not accounted for by this computational tool.

To further investigate the contributions of the promoter and CDS in governing the

observed localization, and to assess whether the *FTPSL2* promoter could offer a more

effective strategy for metabolic experiments, we generated lines expressing the

FTPSL2 CDS under the OB-specific *Prom5MYB2* promoter and lines expressing the

AMS CDS with *Prom5FTPSL2*. Interestingly, *Prom5MYB2:FTPSL2* directed the protein to

the cytosol of OB cells, rather than the OB lumen (Figure 6B), while AMS-mVenus
expressed under the *FTPSL2* promoter didn't provide any detectable signal from
gemma to 14-day-old plants (Figure 6C). These results suggest that both the promoter
and CDS play critical roles in determining the localization of terpene synthases,
supporting the validity of our initial strategy while offering insights for further
optimization.
Finally, considering the strong impact of *ABCG1* disruption on sesquiterpene
accumulation and the fact that FPP is a substrate for OB lumen-localized
sesquiterpene synthases, these findings suggest that ABCG1 may function as an FPP
transporter, facilitating its entry into OBs.
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Translational and transcriptional reporters studies to re-assess sub-localization
of isoprenoid biosynthetic enzymes and cell type expression specificity.
For each translational or expression pattern reporter, we selected promoter lengths
based on a single ATAC-seq[36] peak, ensuring coverage of the putative core promoter
and upstream regulatory regions. In some cases, promoters (including the 5'UTR)
were shorter than the typically advised 2.5 kb length[35,38], balancing the need for
regulatory coverage with constraints related to sequence synthesis. For instance, a
promoter as short as 970 bp like $_{Prom5}GGPPS$ was sufficient to drive strong and
ubiquitous signal in chloroplasts/plastids. However, in other instances such as
$_{Prom5}DXR2$, promoter functionality required extending the length from 1.7 kb to 2.7 kb
to achieve detectable expression.
Interestingly, $_{Prom5}FTPSL2$ required the inclusion of three ATAC-seq peaks to become
functional, although the precise conditions influencing the activity of the 2.2 kb
promoter warrant further investigation. Notably, another study using a 4.1 kb
$_{Prom5}FTPSL2$ was able to detect a dTomato signal targeted to the nucleus and showed
specificity to the OB cells[74]. While it is tempting to hypothesize that altering promoter
lengths could include or exclude positive or negative regulatory elements affecting
cell-type specificity, further systematic studies are needed to draw concrete
conclusions about the relationship between promoter structure and regulatory
outcomes.

Despite potential variability in cell-type detection due to differences in promoter length,
our findings robustly confirmed the subcellular localization of enzymes involved in the
early steps of terpene biosynthesis. Enzymatic steps of the MEP pathway and
diterpene biosynthesis, including DXS, HDS, HDR, and GGPPS, were localized to
plastids/chloroplasts, consistent with their predicted roles in producing isoprenoid
precursors for plastid-derived terpenes. In contrast, steps of the MVA pathway and
sesquiterpene biosynthesis, represented by HMGR and FPS, were localized to the
ER, Golgi, and cytosol, supporting their involvement in cytosolic terpene precursor
production. With the exception of FPS, all studied enzymes localized as predicted by
DeepLoc2.1[26]. However, our experimental conditions allowed us to localise steady-
state accumulation of proteins and did not account for any dynamic behavior of protein
trafficking[75]. Our findings corroborate earlier studies[3] that reported high or exclusive
expression of isoprenoid biosynthetic enzymes in OB cells. Given that OBs are formed
through redirection of the secretory pathway[7], some enzymes like HMGR – which
localizes to both the ER and Golgi depending on the OB cell or plant being imaged –
may transit to other compartments during OB development, supporting the possibility
of their transient presence around the OB membrane[3].

The subcellular localization of FTPSL2 remains an intriguing aspect of our findings.
Our results demonstrate that promoter choice influences its localization, with
_Prom5_FTPSL2 directing the protein inside the OBs, whereas _Prom5_MYB2 results in
cytosolic localization within the same cell type. A similar phenomenon occured with
the ABCG1 protein, which localized to the OB membrane when regulated by its native
promoter, but redirected to the plasma membrane under the control of a non-OB-
specific promoter[7]. In this case, the change in cell type and the absence of an OB
membrane in non-OB cells may have led ABCG1 to associate with the default
membrane compartment. Given that our mScarlet membrane marker delineates both
the OB and plasma membranes, these structures may share common biophysical or
molecular characteristics. A comparable promoter-dependent influence on localization
has been observed in yeast, where researchers demonstrated that promoter
sequences encode information affecting mRNA localization and translation efficiency,
potentially through co-transcriptional recruitment of RNA-binding proteins,
transcription factors, or cis-regulatory elements[76]. While our study did not directly
investigate mRNA localization, our findings provide further evidence that promoter
sequences play a broader role in determining protein localization within a same cell,

highlighting their previously underappreciated regulatory influence beyond
transcription.

Nevertheless, our results confirm the specialized role of OB cells in terpene
biosynthesis and highlight the importance of carefully selecting promoters to ensure
accurate expression and localization of biosynthetic enzymes.

Pathway specificity in terpene synthesis: MVA and MEP contributions.

Our study suggests that the MVA pathway predominantly provides precursors for
sesquiterpene synthesis in *Marchantia polymorpha*, supported by the apparent
exclusive expression of HMGR and MVD in OB cells and the significant increases in
endogenous sesquiterpene levels observed when *HMGR* and *FPS* were co-
expressed. Notably, FPS – also a potential OB-specific enzyme – emerged as a critical
limiting step in sesquiterpene biosynthesis, consistent with previous findings in
Nicotiana tabacum[77].

The MEP pathway's contribution to sesquiterpene synthesis cannot be ruled out, given
the specific expression of *DXS2* and *DXR2* in OB cells and the fact that a previous
study using GC-MS analysis of physically extracted OB content detected
sesquiterpenes[2] as the only sub-class of terpenes. If OBs also store monoterpenes
like limonene[25] or specific diterpenes, their levels remained undetectable or
unchanged despite the targeted expression of precursor supply genes. Furthermore,
over-expression of key MEP genes and *GGPPS* had no effect on taxadiene yield,
despite co-localization of these enzymes with TXS in plastids. This suggests that a
significant portion of the precursors is redirected toward sesquiterpene synthesis
instead. Supporting this, co-expression of *DXS2* with *FPS*, *HMGR*, and *ABCG1* mildly
increased the sesquiterpene levels compared to the same combination of genes
without *DXS2*, demonstrating a modest effect of *DXS2* on sesquiterpene yield. Dual
contribution from the MVA and MEP pathways in *Marchantia polymorpha* would
parallel findings in *Artemisia annua*, where inhibitor assays demonstrated a mixed
origin of precursors[78].

In contrast, *DXS1* and *DXR1* are ubiquitously expressed and likely play broader roles
in synthesizing essential metabolites, such as phytyl diphosphate for chlorophyll
production. Supporting this, ChIP-seq studies in *Marchantia* have shown that the
chloroplast biogenesis regulator GLK binds to the promoter of *DXR1*[79], further

highlighting its role in primary metabolism rather than specialized metabolite
production.

The specific localisation of HMGR, MVD, and FPS protein fusions in OB cells raises
intriguing questions about how essential metabolites, such as sterols, are produced in
non-OB cells. Despite the ubiquitous expression of squalene synthase *SQS3*, which
catalyzes the formation of squalene as a precursor to sterols, the source of precursors
for sterol synthesis in non-OB tissues remains unclear. Notably, sterol levels in *abcg1*
mutants were unaffected, suggesting that OBs are not the primary site of sterol
synthesis or storage for the rest of the plant. This raises the possibility that other, as-
yet-unannotated MVA enzymes may supply precursors for sterol biosynthesis in non-
OB cells. Alternatively, it is plausible that the genes studied here are expressed
ubiquitously but accumulate at levels too low to be detected in other cell types with
our confocal microscopy studies.

These findings highlight the complexity of precursor flux and compartmentalization in
Marchantia, accentuating the need to further investigate how primary metabolites
synthesis is maintained across tissues.

ABCG1 may be a FPP transporter, the first of its kind.

Our study demonstrated that exogenous terpenes, such as amorpha-4,11-diene,
taxadiene, and β-amyrin, could be produced throughout the whole plant. However,
engineering their production within OB cells was more challenging. We initially
hypothesized that ABCG1 transporter could function as a broad-spectrum terpene
transporter within OBs, a theory supported by the sharp reduction in endogenous
sesquiterpene levels observed in *abcg1* mutants. However, the detection of an
endogenous sesquiterpene synthase (FTPSL2) within the OB lumen suggests a more
specific role for ABCG1: the transport of FPP into OBs. Combined with insights from
our metabolic engineering experiments, this model implies that precursor flux from
both MVA and MEP pathways is predominantly directed toward FPP production, which
is then transported into OBs for processing by endogenous sesquiterpene synthases.
This would explain why co-expression of different *HMGR* versions with *β-AS* did not
increase β-amyrin yield: little FPP remains in the cytosol, limiting its availability for β-
amyrin biosynthesis.

The localization of FTPSL2 inside OBs provides the strongest evidence that FPP must
be transported into this compartment. However, the conditions under which FTPSL2-

mVenus was detected inside OBs remain unclear, as expression was not observed
throughout the plant. One possibility is that this striking observation occurred in
response to unidentified abiotic factors, during which OB cells in a particular region of
the plant entered an "oil body phase", redirecting the secretory pathway toward OBs,
as hypothesized by Kanazawa et al[7]. Additional experiments identifying the signals
that drive terpene synthase localization within OBs would provide a more complete
understanding of terpene biosynthesis in *Marchantia*.

Considering this precursor transport, successful taxadiene accumulation would
require GGPPS to be targeted outside the plastids, a transporter to facilitate GGPP
entry into OBs, and the engineering of TXS to localize within OBs. Similarly, producing
amorpha-4,11-diene or β-amyrin in OBs would necessitate targeting their respective
biosynthetic enzymes – and SQS3 in the case of β-amyrin – to this compartment. It is
likely that the endogenous sesquiterpene synthases in *Marchantia* contain specific
amino acid motifs that direct them to OBs – features absent in exogenous enzymes.
This highlights the need for advanced synthetic biology approaches to engineer
enzymes with the necessary targeting signals for OB localization, particularly if the
target compounds prove deleterious when produced in all tissues.

We propose a preliminary map of terpene biosynthesis in *Marchantia* OB cells (Figure
7). This map includes key steps in primary metabolism, emphasizing the role of certain
terpene precursors in vital plant functions, such as FPP for sterols and GGPP for
chlorophyll and gibberellin derivative GA_{12}[80], although their specific presence in OB
cells has yet to be confirmed (Figure 7).

Overall, our work provides the first evidence for a prenyl diphosphate transporter and
confirms that the OB lumen is a catalytic compartment for the final stages of terpene
synthesis, rather than a storage site for the products. This study lays a foundation for
uncovering similar mechanisms in other plant species, potentially transforming our
understanding of metabolite compartmentalization and enabling new approaches in
plant synthetic biology. Direct biochemical validation of ABCG1-mediated FPP
transport will be an important next step. Future work investigating ABCG1-FPP
interactions will be critical to defining its substrate specificity and transport mechanism.
Moreover, given the apparent plastid-to-cytosol flux of isoprenoid precursors in
Marchantia OB cells, this discovery may pave the way for identifying transporters
responsible for the movement of IPP, DMAPP, or other intermediates across the plastid
membrane.

MATERIAL AND METHODS.

Plant material and growth conditions.

Marchantia polymorpha subspecies *ruderalis* accessions Cam-1 (male) and Cam-2 (female) were used in this study[81]. Plants were cultivated on solid 0.5× Gamborg B-5 basal medium (#G398, PhytoTech Labs, Lenexa, Kansas, USA) adjusted to pH 5.7–5.8 and solidified with 1.2% (w/v) agar micropropagation grade (#A296, PhytoTech Labs). They were maintained under continuous light at 22°C with a light intensity of 150 µmol/m²/s. For general propagation of the lines, plants were grown in 94 × 16 mm Petri dishes (#633181, Greiner Bio-One, Kremsmünster, Austria). For imaging purposes, plants were cultivated on gridded 65 × 14.5 mm Gosselin™ Petri dishes (#BB64-01, Corning, Corning, NY, USA). Several gemmae, originating from four independent transformants, were grown on these plates and imaged at developmental stages corresponding to Day 3, Day 5, Day 7, and Day 14 after germination.

For gemma cup production and the collection of material for terpene analysis, the media were supplemented with 0.5% (w/v) sucrose. Plants destined for terpene extraction and quantification were grown in 100 × 25 mm Petri dishes (#D943, Phytotech Labs) containing 50 mL of medium.

Spore production was carried out in Microbox micropropagation containers (SacO2) under long-day conditions (16 h light/8 h dark) with light supplemented by far-red illumination, following previously established protocol[38].

Plasmid construction for over-expression studies and CRISPR-based mutant generation.

DNA fragments used to generate mVenus and metabolic constructs were synthesized by Genewiz (Azenta, Burlington, Massachusetts, USA) either as linear fragments or in pUAP1 vector[82]. Linear fragments included overhangs compatible with LguI (#ER1931, ThermoFisher Scientific, Waltham, Massachusetts, USA) cloning into L0 acceptor vectors following the Loop protocol[38]. Linear fragments and sequences synthesized in pUAP1 vectors, contained overhangs enabling direct cloning into L1 or pBy01[35] vectors using BsaI-HF ®v2 enzyme (#R3733S, New England Biolabs, Ipswitch, Massachusetts, USA).

MpFPS and *MpHDS* sequences were cloned from the *Marchantia* transcriptome as they didn't require to remove the internal restriction sites of BsaI and LguI, incompatible with the Loop cloning system. Total RNA was first extracted from *Marchantia* tissue using the RNeasy Plant Mini Kit (#74904, Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) and reverse-transcribed into cDNA with Superscript IV (#18090010, Invitrogen, Waltham, Massachusetts, USA) using random hexamer oligos (#N8080127, Invitrogen) following the protocol from the manufacturer. Target sequences were subsequently amplified from the cDNA using VeriFi® Polymerase Mix (#PB10.43-01, PCR Biosystem, London, UK). PCR products were purified using the QIAquick PCR Purification Kit (#28104, Qiagen) before being used in the cloning steps.

DNA sequences exogenous to *Marchantia* were domesticated when necessary and codon-optimised using the Genewiz codon-optimisation tool prior to ordering. NCBI accession numbers for each exogenous genes are as follows: *TXS* (AY424738), *β-AS* (MG492000), *PpDXS1* (XM_024524883), *PpDXS2* (XM_024533934), *PpHMGR* (XM_024507706) and *AMS* (AY006482). Certain sequences were re-amplified to remove stop codons and introduce the appropriate overhangs for fusion with mVenus or eGFP tags. Primers used in this study were ordered from IDT (Integrated DNA Technology, Coralville, Iowa, USA) (Table S4).

Vectors, promoters, terminators, tags, and pre-assembled cassettes used to generate the constructs were sourced from the OpenPlant toolkit[38] or adapted from Romani et al[35]. Final plasmids (L2, L3, or pBy01) were sequenced at Plasmidsaurus (Eugene, Oregon, USA) to confirm proper assembly and integration of all transcription units. Details of the sequences and vectors syntax are available in Dataset 5.

The guide RNA sequence used to generate *abcg1* mutants was designed using the CasFinder tool[83]. This guide was ordered as primers with appropriate overhangs, and cloned into a single-guide acceptor vector following the protocol of Sauret-Guëto et al[23].

Agrobacterium-mediated transformation of Marchantia spores and selection of independant transformants.

Marchantia spores were sterilized and transformed following previously described protocols, with slight modifications. Briefly, a single archegoniophore, dried and stored in silica beads, was mixed in 1.5 mL of a chlorinated solution consisting of one Milton

sterilizing tablet (troclosene sodium; Boots, UK) dissolved in 10 mL of sterile water.
Spores were released into the solution, filtered through a 40 μm cell strainer (#542040,
Greiner Bio-One) and incubated in the sterilizing solution for 30 minutes. After
sterilization, spores were harvested by centrifugation, resuspended in sterile water,
and spread on Gamborg medium agar plates (without sucrose).

After 5 days of germination, the sporelings were co-cultured with *Agrobacterium*
tumefaciens GV3101 carrying the constructs of interest. Transformation of
Agrobacterium with the constructs was performed using the freeze thaw method[84].
Sporelings and *Agrobacterium* were co-cultured for 2 days in a 4 mL solution of 0.5×
Gamborg B-5 plus supplements like previously described[38], and incubated at 22°C
under continuous shaking and light. Following co-culture, sporellings were collected
on 70 μm cell strainers (#542070, Greiner Bio-One), rinsed thoroughly with sterile
water, and plated on 90 mm Petri dishes containing 0.5× Gamborg B5 medium
supplemented with 100 μg/mL cefotaxime (#BIC0111, Apollo Scientific, Bredbury, UK)
to eliminate *Agrobacterium* and 20 μg/mL hygromycin (#10687010, Invitrogen) to
select for transformants.

After two weeks on the first selective plates, eight transformants were typically
transferred to a second plate containing the same selection agents to confirm
successful transformation and eliminate residual *Agrobacterium*. For lines expressing
fluorescent proteins (mScarlet, mVenus or eGFP), transformants were pre-selected
under a Leica stereo microscope (#MDG41, Leica, Wetzlar, Germany) using suitable
filter sets to confirm the presence of fluorescence signals. For lines expressing
exogenous terpenes, eight plants were randomly chosen, grown for one month on the
second selective plates, and subsequently extracted to confirm the presence of the
terpene of interest. The four best lines producing the desired terpene were then
transferred to sucrose-supplemented plates to quantify endogenous and exogenous
terpene levels.

For lines co-expressing *AMS* and precursor supply genes, a single vector carrying up
to six transcription units could not be constructed due to cloning or vector size
limitations. Attempts to co-transform using two *Agrobacterium* strains carrying distinct
plasmids — one with hygromycin B as the selection agent and the other with
chlorosulfuron — resulted in an insufficient number of transformants. Therefore,
transformants were selected based on hygromycin B resistance for *AMS* (with or
without *ABCG1*) on one vector, and the presence of an mScarlet-Lti6b fluorescent

signal from the second vector carrying *MpFPS*, *MpHMGR*, and/or *MpDXS2*. All eight
independent lines were retained to measure amorphadiene and endogenous terpene
level.

To genotype CRISPR-generated *abcg1* mutants and Cas9-only control lines, genomic
DNA was extracted using the InnuPrep Plant DNA kit (#845-KS-1060050, IST
Innuscreen, Berlin, Germany). For *abcg1* lines, a 500 bp DNA fragment spanning the
gRNA target site was amplified using Q5® High-Fidelity DNA Polymerase (#M0491S,
New England Biolabs). The resulting PCR products were purified and sequenced by
Genewiz to confirm the disruption or not of the *ABCG1* coding sequence. The
presence of the Cas9 cassette in control lines was confirmed by amplification with
specific primers (listed in Table S4) and subsequent sequencing. A total of 16 lines
were genotyped for the abcg1 ones, and eight for the Cas9 controls.

Laser scanning confocal microscopy.

For transgenic lines expressing fluorescent proteins, images were acquired on an
upright Leica SP8X confocal microscope equipped with a 460–670 nm
supercontinuum white light laser, two continuous wavelength laser lines of 405 nm and
442 nm and a five-channel spectral scanhead (four hybrid detectors and one
photomultiplier). Imaging was conducted using either a 25× water immersion (Fluotar
VISIR 25x/0.95 WATER) or a 40× water immersion objective (HC PL APO CS2
40×/1.10 WATER) for magnifying the subcellular localisations of fluorescent proteins.
Excitation laser wavelength and fluorescence emission bandwidth windows were as
follows: 515 nm and 525–550 nm (for mVenus); 570 nm and 591-621 nm (for
mScarlet); 442 nm and 645–664 nm (for chlorophyll autofluorescence). Each channel
was acquired separately using a hybrid detector, with a sequential scan for each
channel performed on the Leica LAS X software. To image sequentially the mVenus,
eGFP and mScarlet fluorescences on the translational reporter lines carrying the
bidirectional construct of *HDS-eGFP* and *HDR-mVenus*, excitation and emission
bandwidth windows were adjusted as follow to prevent signal crosstalk: 487 nm and
497-513 nm (for eGFP); 521 nm and 530-550 nm (for mVenus); 570 nm and 588-598
nm (for mScarlet).

Day 0 gemmae were imaged by mounting them on a glass slide with perfluorodecalin[85]
(#130040250, ThermoFisher) and covering them with a glass coverslip. For plants
aged 3 to 14 days, a 15 x 16 mm gene frame (#AB0577, ThermoFisher) was placed

on the glass slide to prevent compression of the plant material under the coverslip.

Whole gemmae and overviews of the meristematic region in older plants were imaged

using Z-stack scans, which were processed in Fiji[86] to generate maximum intensity

projections of the Z-stacks. High magnification images were acquired as single scans

to better display subcellular features.

Extraction of terpenes and analysis by gas chromatography-mass spectrometry

(GC-MS).

Approximately 200 mg of frozen tissue from 1-month-old *Marchantia polymorpha*

plants was extracted with 1 mL of cold methanol containing 5 mM NaCl to quench

enzymatic activity, following the method of Kumar and co-workers[25]. To enable

quantification, 5 µg of dodecane (#297879, Sigma-Aldrich) was included as an internal

standard. The tissue was disrupted in the solvent using a 3 mm stainless steel ball

(#2205, Durston, High Wycombe, UK) and homogenized with a TissueLyser II

(Qiagen). Samples were subsequently agitated on a Vibrax® shaker (#0002819002,

IKA, Staufen, Germany) at 2000 rpm for two hours, and the resulting extracts were

centrifuged to remove plant debris. The methanolic phase was then extracted once

with hexane to isolate non-polar and medium-polar terpenes from the upper organic

layer.

Hexane extracts (200 µL) were analyzed on a Trace 1300 gas chromatograph

(ThermoFisher) coupled to an ISQ 700 mass spectrometer (ThermoFisher) with a

Zebron CD-5MS column (30 m × 0.25 mm × 0.25 µm; ThermoFisher). A splitless

injection (1 µL) was conducted at 230°C, and the GC-MS oven parameters were

adapted from Kumar's work[25] as follows: the oven temperature was initially set to 70°C

and held for 3 min, followed by a ramp of 20°C/min to 90°C, a second ramp of 3°C/min

to 180°C, a third ramp of 5°C/min to 240°C, and a final ramp of 20°C/min to 300°C,

with a 6-min hold at this temperature. The MS began data acquisition after a 5.5-

minute solvent delay, with the transfer line and ion source temperatures set at 250°C

and 270°C, respectively. Scanning was conducted in full-scan mode (scan time: 0.17

s) over a mass range of 40–600 atomic mass units. Helium was used as the carrier

gas, with a flow rate of 1.2 mL/min for sesquiterpenes in the taxadiene and β-amyrin

datasets. For amorphadiene detection, the carrier flow rate was reduced to 0.9

mL/min. Chromatograms were processed using Chromeleon™ software

(ThermoFisher), and terpene quantification was performed relative to the internal

standard dodecane. Tentative identification of the major sesquiterpenes was achieved by comparing mass spectra to published data and by calculating retention indices using a single sample run with a C8–C40 alkane standard mixture (#40147-U, Superlco, Bellefonte, Pennsylvania, USA) as described by Adams[68]. Note that the endogenous terpene composition in CAM accessions may slightly differ from that reported for other accessions, such as Tak, in previous studies. The authentic standard of amorpha-4,11-diene was provided by Tomasz Czechowski and Ian Graham (University of York).

To achieve more accurate quantification of β-amyrin and sterols, the extraction protocol and GC-MS method were modified. The same amount of frozen material was extracted with cold methanol supplemented with 10 µg of coprostan-3-ol (#C7578, Sigma-Aldrich) as an internal standard. The samples were extracted twice with hexane to obtain a total hexane volume of 1.5 mL, which was then dried under nitrogen flow in a Genevac™ concentrator EZ-2 (#EZ3P-23050-NN0, Genevac Ltd, Ipswich, UK). Extracts were derivatized with 50 µL 1-trimethylsilyl-imidazole (TMS; #92718, Superlco) and resuspended in 300 µL hexane. For GC-MS analysis, 200 µL of the derivatized samples was transferred into vials for direct injection. The method used for sterol/triterpene analysis was as follows: 130°C hold for 2 min; ramp of 30°C/min until 220°C, then 2°C/min until 300°C, hold for 10 min. Solvent delay of 10 minutes before acquiring the MS data. The authentic standard of β-amyrin was provided by James Reed and Anne Osbourne (John Innes Center, Norwich, UK).

For terpene quantification in *abcg1* CRISPR and Cas9 control lines, extractions were performed on genotyped plants from the second selection stage, as loss of the CRISPR genotype was observed during propagation from gemmae. Given this observation, we considered the possibility of chimerism[87] and extracted as much biomass as was reasonably available from individual plants. This approach aimed to minimize variability, homogenize the material, and ensure accurate results.

Box plots showing individual data points for each quantified terpene were created using PRISM software version 10 (GraphPad, La Jolla, California, USA), and the results of statistical comparisons were integrated into the visualizations. For lines expressing exogenous terpene synthases, statistical analyses were performed using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) to assess differences across gene combinations. Homogeneity of variances was evaluated using the Brown-Forsythe and Bartlett's tests, with Dunnett's multiple comparison test applied post-hoc to

compare each gene combination to the respective control (*Prom5MYB2:β-AS*, *TXS*, or *AMS*). The significance threshold (alpha) was set at 0.05. Four biological replicates expressing the constructs were analyzed to quantify both exogenous (β-amyrin and taxadiene) and endogenous compounds (n=4), while eight biological replicates expressing the constructs were analyzed for amorphadiene lines, focusing on the quantification of endogenous terpenes since amorphadiene was not detected (n=8). For comparisons of terpene levels between *abcg1* mutants (n = 6) and Cas9 controls (n = 5), Welch's t-test was used when variances were unequal, and unpaired t-test was used when variances were equal, as determined by PRISM. Both tests accounted for differences in sample size between the two groups. Asterisks were added to the box plots to indicate statistically significant differences (P<0.05) between *abcg1* mutants and Cas9 control lines, as determined by Welch's or unpaired t-tests.

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	Name	Abbreviation	Putative localisation (DeepLoc 2.1)
MEP	1-Deoxy-D-xylulose-5-phosphate synthase 1	*MpDXS1*	Plastids
	1-Deoxy-D-xylulose-5-phosphate synthase 2	*MpDXS2*	Plastids
	1-Deoxy-D-xylulose 5-phosphate reductoisomerase 1	*MpDXR1*	Plastids
	1-Deoxy-D-xylulose 5-phosphate reductoisomerase 2	*MpDXR2*	Plastids
	4-Diphosphocytidyl-2-*C*-methyl-*D*-erythritol synthase	*MpMCT*	Plastids
	4-Diphosphocytidyl-2-*C*-methyl-*D*-erythritol 2-phosphate kinase	*MpCMK*	Plastids
	2-*C*-methyl-*D*-erythritol 2,4-cyclodiphosphate synthase	*MpMDS*	Plastids
	1-Hydroxy-2-methyl-2-*(E)*-butenyl 4-diphosphate synthase	*MpHDS*	Plastids
	1-Hydroxy-2-methyl-2-*(E)*-butenyl 4-diphosphate reductase	*MpHDR*	Plastids
	Isopentenyl diphosphate isomerase 1	*MpIDI1*	Plastids
	Isoprenyl (geranyl) diphosphate synthase 5	*MpIDS5/MpGPS*	Mitochondria
	Cis-prenyltransferase 5 / Neryl pyrophophate synthase	*MpCPT5*	Plastids
	Isoprenyl (geranylgeranyl) diphosphate synthase 2	*MpIDS2/MpGGPPS*	Plastids
MVA	Acetoacetyl-coA thiolase 2	*MpACT2*	Peroxisome
	3-Hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl-coA synthase	*MpHMGS*	Cytoplasm
	3-Hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl-coA reductase	*MpHMGR*	Endoplasmic reticulum
	Mevalonate-5-kinase	*MpMK*	Cytoplasm
	Phosphomevanolate kinase	*MpPMK*	Cytoplasm
	Mevanolate diphosphate decarboxylase.	*MpMVD*	Cytoplasm
	Isopentenyl diphosphate isomerase 2	*MpIDI2*	Cytoplasm
	Farnesyl pyrophosphate synthase	*MpFPS*	Mitochondria
	Squalene synthase 3	*MpSQS3*	Endoplasmic reticulum
	Squalene/phytoene synthase 1	*MpSQS1*	Plastids
	Squalene/phytoene synthase 2	*MpSQS2*	Mitochondria

Table 1. Overview of MVA, MEP, and terpene scaffold biosynthetic genes in *Marchantia polymorpha*.
This table lists key genes studied or referenced in this work, including those involved in the methylerythritol phosphate (MEP) and mevalonate (MVA) pathways, as well as enzymes responsible for synthesizing terpene scaffolds for different sub-classes: monoterpenes (IDS5/GPS, CPT5), diterpenes (IDS2/GGPPS), sesquiterpenes (FPS), and triterpenes/sterols (SQS3). Abbreviations correspond to gene names, and their putative protein localizations were predicted using DeepLoc 2.1. Detailed annotations and functional descriptions for each gene are provided in Table S1.

Figure 1. Confocal imaging of translational reporters for key *Marchantia polymorpha* isoprenoid biosynthetic genes.
(A) *Prom5DXS1:DXS1-mVenus*, (B) *Prom5DXS2:DXS2-mVenus*, (C) *Prom5Bidirectional HDR:HDS:HDS-eGFP*, (D) *Prom5Bidirectional HDS:HDR:HDR-mVenus*, (E) *Prom5GGPPS:GGPPS-mVenus*, (F) *Prom5FPS:FPS-mVenus*, and (G) *Prom5HMGR:HMGR-mVenus*. Each construct is represented by two images: the full gemmae at day 0 (left panels, scale bar: 50 μm) and a higher magnification view showing subcellular localization (right panels, scale bar: 5 μm). (H) Simplified biosynthetic pathway scheme highlighting enzymatic steps analyzed in this study. The *mVenus* signal (yellow) or eGFP (green) for HDS (C) indicates the subcellular localization of the corresponding enzymes, while *mScarlet* (purple) delineates the cellular boundaries. For the magnified image in (A), chloroplast/plastid autofluorescence (grey) is included to demonstrate sublocalization of DXS1 in the plastids. Panel (G) includes one whole-gemma image and two high magnification images to illustrate the localization of HMGR-mVenus to the ER and Golgi apparatus. White arrow shows the localizations to Golgi.

Figure 2. Confocal imaging of translational reporters for additional isoprenoid biosynthetic genes in *Marchantia polymorpha.*
(A) $_{Prom5}$*DXR1:mVenus-N7*, (B) $_{Prom5}$*DXR2:mVenus-N7*, (C) $_{Prom5}$*MVD:mVenus-N7*, and (D) $_{Prom5}$*SQS3:mVenus-N7*. The mVenus signal (yellow) localized to the nucleus indicates the activation of these promoters in specific cell types, while mScarlet fluorescence (purple) delineates cellular boundaries. Each construct is represented by two panels: day 0 gemmae (left, scale bar: 50 μm) and the meristem area of 14-day-old plants (right, scale bar: 50 μm). White arrows indicate mVenus signals detected in oil body cells.

Figure 3. Production of taxadiene and β-amyrin in *Marchantia polymorpha* and subcellular localization of their synthases.

(A) Total ion chromatograms (TICs) of terpene extracts from wild-type (WT, upper panel) and transgenic plants expressing $_{Prom5}UBE2:TXS$ (*taxadiene synthase*, lower panel), highlighting the taxadiene peak (T). (B) TICs of trimethylsilyl-derivatized terpene extracts, showing WT (upper), a transgenic line expressing $_{Prom5}UBE2:β-AS$ (*β-amyrin synthase,* middle), and an authentic β-amyrin standard (lower). Peaks: IS (internal standard: coprostan-3-ol), s1 (campesterol), s2 (stigmasterol), and β (β-amyrin).

(C) Subcellular localization of TXS and β-AS fused to mVenus under the $_{Prom5}MYB2$ promoter, showing plastid localization for TXS (upper panel) and ER or cytosol localization for β-AS (lower panel). mScarlet fluorescence (purple) delineates cellular boundaries. Scale bar: 5 μm. (D) Quantification of taxadiene (upper graph) and β-amyrin (lower graph) in plants expressing $_{Prom5}UBE2:TXS$ and $_{Prom5}UBE2:β-AS$ respectively (whole plant expression) or $_{Prom5}MYB2:TXS$ and $_{Prom5}MYB2:β-AS$ respectively (oil body cell-specific expression). Data represent four independent lines per condition.

(E) Quantification of taxadiene (left) and β-amyrin (right) in transgenic lines over-expressing precursor genes. For taxadiene, combinations included *MpDXS1, MpDXS2, PpDXS1, PpDXS2, MpHDR,* and *MpGGPPS*. For β-amyrin, *MpHMGR, Mp-tHMGR, PpHMGR,* and *Pp-tHMGR* were tested. Box plots represent data points from independent transformants. One-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparison tests ($p < 0.05$) showed no significant differences across gene combinations.

Figure 4. Expression of amorphadiene synthase (*AMS*) in *Marchantia polymorpha* with or without precursor supply genes and the ABCG1 transporter, and its effect on endogenous sesquiterpene levels.
(A) Quantification of amorpha-4,11-diene levels in plants expressing *Artemisia annua* AMS under the *UBE2* promoter. The compound was detected in six independent transformants (mean ± SD; n = 6). (B) Subcellular localization of FPS and AMS proteins when expressed under the oil-body-specific *MYB2* promoter. mVenus fluorescence (yellow) indicates protein localization, with signals observed in oil body cells, while mScarlet fluorescence (purple) marks cell boundaries. Scale bars: 5 μm. (C) Quantification of endogenous sesquiterpenes, including cis-thujopsene, β-chamigrene, γ-cuprenene, and thujopsan-2α-ol, in lines expressing *AMS* with or without precursor supply genes (*MpFPS*, *MpDXS2*, and/or *MpHMGR*) and with or without *ABCG1*, under $_{Prom5}$*MYB2*. Box plots represent data points from eight independent transformants (n = 8), with significance determined by one-way ANOVA followed by Dunnett's multiple comparison test ($p < 0.05$).

A

WT *ABCG1*	301-	CAGATGAACCCAGAGGAGGATAATGAGAAGTTTCTCGCCAAGCTAA
abcg1_2	301-	CAGATGAACCCAG __GAGGATAATGAGAAGTTTCTCGCCAAGCTAA
abcg1_5	301-	CAGATGAACCCAGTCCCACTATGCAGATACGTGAGTATATGTCGGATATGTACCACTATGCAGAGGAGGATAATGAGAAGTTTCTCGCCAAGCTAA
abcg1_6	301-	CAGATGAACCCAG __GAGGATAATGAGAAGTTTCTCGTAAGAGAACCTGCTTCATTATTTATAATGAGAAGTTTCTCGCCAAGCTAA
abcg1_7	301-	CAGATGAACCTTCTCCATTTCAAGATACCTTTTTCATGTTATTGAATTGGTGAGTTCAATGAATTGGTTAATTTCAGGAGGATAATGAGAAGTTTCTCGCCAAGCTAA
abcg1_10	301-	CAGATGAAC ____AGGAGGATAATGAGAAGTTTCTCGCCAAGCTAA
abcg1_11	301-	CAGATGAACTGGGTTTCTCGCCAAGCTAAGATCCCATGATGAGAAGTTTCTCGCCAAGCTAA

Figure 5. Analysis of endogenous terpene profiles in CRISPR-generated abcg1 mutants compared to Cas9 controls.
(A) DNA sequence alignment of the *abcg1* genomic region in wild-type (WT) and CRISPR-generated *abcg1* mutant lines. Dashes indicate deletions, red sequences represent insertions, and purple nucleotides correspond to premature stop codons introduced by the deletions and/or insertions. (B) TICs of terpene extracts from a Cas9 control (upper chromatogram) and abcg1 mutant line (lower chromatogram). Peaks corresponding to quantified compounds are labeled: sesquiterpenes (1: cis-thujopsene, 2: β-chamigrene, 3: γ-cuprenene, 4a: thujopsan-2α-ol), fatty acids/diterpenoids (5: neophytadiene, 6: phytol, a: (*Z*)-1,3-phytadiene, b: (*E*)-1,3-phytadiene), and phytosterols (7: campesterol, 8: stigmasterol). (C) Quantification of endogenous terpene levels in *abcg1* mutants (n=6) compared to Cas9 controls (n=5). The left graph shows the amounts of the four major sesquiterpenes (1 to 4a) labelled in panel B. The right graph displays the levels of phytosterol (7 and 8) labelled in panel B. Box plots display individual data points, with bars representing the median and interquartile range. Statistical significances are denoted by asterisks (one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparison tests ($p < 0.05$)).

Figure 6. Localization of the endogenous sesquiterpene synthase FTPSL2 and its promoter-driven constructs in *Marchantia polymorpha*.

(A) Confocal imaging of the translational reporter _Prom5_*FTPSL2:FTPSL2-mVenus* in two independent 14-day-old plants (lines 4 and 6). Left panels show the meristematic region (scale bar: 50 μm), with red squares indicating the areas magnified in the right panels (scale bar: 5 μm). An illustration of a 14-day-old *Marchantia* thallus (adapted from Marchantia.info) highlights that the mVenus signal was detected in only one of the four thallus lobes (green checkmark) and absent in the others (red X). (B) Subcellular localization of FTPSL2-mVenus driven by the oil-body-specific MYB2 promoter. The left panel shows a broader region of the meristem (scale bar: 50 μm), while the right panel magnifies an oil body cell (scale bar: 5 μm). (C) Expression of AMS-mVenus driven by the FTPSL2 promoter in 3-day-old (left) and 14-day-old plants (right) revealed no detectable mVenus fluorescence.

Figure 7. Overview of the isoprenoid precursor pathways in *Marchantia polymorpha* oil body cells based on previous works and findings from this study.

Biosynthetic scheme illustrating the mevalonate (MVA) and methylerythritol phosphate (MEP) pathways in *Marchantia polymorpha*. Enzymes shown in bold and underlined were localized using translational reporters confirming their subcellular localization. Enzymes shown in underlined text only were analyzed with promoter expression constructs, indicating activity in oil body cells. Key precursor flows toward sterols, diterpenes, and other metabolites are also indicated. Details of enzymatic steps and annotations can be found in Table 1 and Table S1. Abbreviations: Ac-CoA, acetyl coenzyme A; G3P, glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate.