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Spatial distribution of isoprenoid enzymes and MpABCG1 transporter influence sesquiterpene accumulation in *Marchantia polymorpha* oil bodies.

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ABSTRACT

Marchantia polymorpha oil bodies (OBs) are specialised cell structures housing a diverse array of C₁₅-terpenes, called sesquiterpenes. These compounds act as herbivore repellents, yet the enzymes responsible for the biosynthesis of their precursors remain poorly characterized. 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, plastid and the endoplasmic reticulum), and OB cells were identified as the primary sites of sesquiterpene 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 overexpression of key precursor genes, underscoring challenges in redirecting metabolic flux. To further investigate terpene accumulation in OBs, we focused on MpABCG1, an ABC transporter previously reported to localize at the OB membrane. While MpABCG1 overexpression mildly

increased endogenous sesquiterpene levels, its disruption via CRISPR dramatically reduced sesquiterpene accumulation. These findings establish that MpABCG1 is necessary for sesquiterpene accumulation in OBs and add to current knowledge of terpene synthesis compartmentalisation in *Marchantia polymorpha*.

INTRODUCTION.

In recent years, *Marchantia polymorpha* has emerged as a useful model plant system¹ 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 terpenes³ and bisbibenzyls⁴, a class of phenylpropanoid derivatives; the mixture confers anti-feedant properties to protect against herbivores⁵. Terpenes are a diverse class of natural products derived from the condensation of isoprene (C₅H₈) units⁶, found across all life, with the greatest structural and functional diversity observed 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, a 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 MpERF13⁷, MpC1HDZ⁵, MpTGA⁸ and MpMYB2^{9,10} have been identified as crucial regulators of OB cell differentiation and maturation¹¹. 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 MpTGA⁸ or

gain-of-function mutants of Mp*ERF13* led to a dramatic increase in OB cell numbers per plant⁷. 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, or that these TFs have pleiotropic effects that influence additional developmental processes.

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) membrane³. 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^{12–14} (Table 1 and S1). The mevalonate (MVA) and methylerythritol phosphate (MEP)^{15–17} pathways are the two primary metabolic routes responsible for producing the precursors — isopentenyl pyrophosphate (IPP) and dimethylallyl pyrophosphate (DMAPP) — for various classes of terpenes (Table 1). The MVA pathway, comprising seven enzymatic steps¹⁸ and typically operating in the cytosol¹⁹, endoplasmic reticulum²⁰ (ER) and peroxisome²¹, generally supplies precursors to sesquiterpenes and triterpenes synthesis^{22,23}, while the MEP pathway, with seven/eight enzymatic steps and primarily localized in plastids²⁴, commonly provides precursors for monoterpenes and diterpenes^{22,23} (Table 1 and S1). In *Marchantia*, sesquiterpenes are the dominant terpene class found in OBs², produced by several microbial- and fungal-type terpene synthases²⁵. 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 demonstrated by Kumar et al²⁶. While cell-type-specific metabolic analyses revealed that only sesquiterpenes are stored inside the OB compartment², plants defective in OB cell differentiation show reduced levels of both sesquiterpenes and monoterpenes⁵, making it unclear whether limonene is specifically stored within OBs.

Examination of genome data^{12–14,27} along with computational predictive tools for enzyme localization such as DeepLoc 2.1²⁸, 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 membranes³ and more recent predictions that place MVA enzymes in the cytosol, ER and peroxisome, and MEP enzymes in plastids (Table 1). These discrepancies prompted us to re-examine the localization of key enzymes using modern techniques such as confocal microscopy combined with translational reporters⁷. 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 taxadiene²⁹, a precursor to the valuable anti-cancer compound Taxol®^{30,31}, and the triterpene β -amyrin³², a precursor to compounds such as glycyrrhizin³³, 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 amorpho-4,11-diene³⁴ alongside MpABCG1, an ATP-binding cassette (ABC) transporter highly and exclusively expressed in OB cells³⁵. Prior studies have demonstrated its clear localization to the OB membrane using a translational reporter⁷, suggesting a potential role in metabolite transport. This study provides new insights into the involvement of MpABCG1 in terpene accumulation within OBs and contributes to a broader understanding of the partitioning of terpene metabolism in *Marchantia polymorpha*.

RESULTS

Translational and transcriptional reporters of terpenoid precursor pathway genes.

To determine the expression pattern and 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*³⁶. In cases where translational reporters were unavailable due to technical challenges, transcriptional reporters were used instead to determine cell-type

expression only. These consisted of *Marchantia*'s native promoter driving mVenus with a nuclear localisation signal³⁷ (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)³⁸ data from version 6.1 of the Tak accession in the *Marchantia.info* database^{13,25} (Table S2). ATAC-seq identifies regions of open chromatin, which are more accessible to transcription factors and associated with regulatory domains that influence gene expression. Since relaxed chromatin is frequently found near the start of a gene, it serves as a useful indicator for selecting 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-LTI6b* fusion^{39–41}, driven by the strong, constitutive *ubiquitin-conjugating enzyme E2* gene promoter and 5'UTR from *Marchantia polymorpha* (*ProUBE2*)⁴¹.

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 to those of previously characterised standard reporters in *Marchantia*^{41,42}, though distinguishing between the ER and cytosol remained challenging under the resolution constraints of our experimental setup.

For this study, we selected key genes from the MVA and MEP pathways on the basis of their predicted 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. Among these, five genes were annotated as isoprenyl diphosphate synthases (*IDS*)²⁷ (Table 1), which integrates functional annotation with phylogenetic relationships via its orthophyloviewer tool²⁷. We used these data, alongside sequence comparisons with *Arabidopsis* homologs, to refine tentative annotations for *IDS* genes likely involved in terpene precursor formation for this study. The remaining genes analysed here were already clearly annotated in *Marchantia.info* thanks to the extensive curation by Chen et al.,²⁷ and did not require further reannotation.

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 pathway⁴³. For MpDXS1, tagged with mVenus and driven by its native promoter and 5'UTR (*ProMpDXS1:DXS1-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, *ProMpDXS2:DXS2-mVenus* showed a restricted localization pattern, with fluorescence observed only in oil body plastids from Day 0 gemmae to 14-days-old plants (Figure 1B and S1C).

We examined the final steps of the MEP pathway by generating a translational reporter for (*E*)-4-hydroxy-3-methylbut-2-en-1-yl diphosphate reductase (MpHDR)^{44,45} (Table 1). We also generated a translational reporter for (*E*)-4-hydroxy-3-methylbut-2-enyl diphosphate synthase (MpHDS)^{44,46} (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 potentially toxic nature of the product of HDS^{47,48}, which is detoxified in the subsequent enzymatic step by HDR^{47,48}, making it particularly interesting to study both enzymes together. To our knowledge, this is the first report suggesting that MpHDS and MpHDR genes may be regulated by a shared promoter region. 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).

Finally, we analysed the sub-cellular localisation and cell-type expression of the enzyme forming the linear diterpene precursor geranylgeranyl pyrophosphate (GGPP)^{49,50}. Among the IDS candidates²⁷, MpIDS2 and MpIDS3 share 68% and 62% protein homology, respectively, with GERANYLGERANYL PYROPHOSPHATE SYNTHASE 11 (GGPPS11) from *Arabidopsis thaliana*, the most highly expressed and functionally dominant GGPPS in *Arabidopsis*⁵¹, which operates as a homodimer⁵². However, transcriptomic data revealed that MpIDS3 exhibited consistently low expression across

all tissues and developmental stages^{12–14}. The other IDS candidates, MpIDS4 and MpIDS5, share 71% and 57% protein homology with SOLANESYL PYROPHOSPHATE SYNTHASE and GERANYL PYROPHOSPHATE SYNTHASE, respectively, suggesting potential roles in ubiquinone biosynthesis⁵³ (MpIDS4) and trans-monoterpene precursor formation (MpIDS5). MpIDS2 emerged as the strongest candidate for the primary GGPPS in *Marchantia*, given its higher sequence homology and stronger expression. We therefore re-annotated it as MpGGPPS (Table 1 and S1). The translational fusion to MpGGPPS showed localization to plastids in all cell types, with particularly strong expression 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)⁵⁴ (Table 1). Expression of *Pro*MpHMGR: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 localization (Figure 1G). As a key enzyme downstream the MVA pathway, we analysed FARNESYL PYROPHOSPHATE SYNTHASE (MpFPS) (Table 1), which forms farnesyl pyrophosphate (FPP)⁵⁵, the linear precursor to all sesquiterpenes. Annotated as IDS1²⁷ in the *Marchantia*.info database, MpFPS shares 66% sequence similarity with both FPS homologs from *Arabidopsis thaliana*. Expression analysis revealed that MpFPS is specifically expressed in OB cells, persisting even after 14 days (Figure 1F and S1E). Contrary to the prediction of mitochondrial localization by DeepLoc 2.1²⁸ (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 pattern⁵⁶ of the promoters driving the genes encoding *1-deoxy-D-xylulose 5-phosphate reductoisomerases*^{57,58} (MpDXR1 and MpDXR2) and *mevalonate diphosphate decarboxylase* (MpMVD)⁵⁹ using transcriptional reporters. The corresponding enzymes, MpDXRs and MpMVD, catalyze the second enzymatic step of the MEP pathway and the penultimate enzymatic step of the MVA pathway, respectively (Table 1). *Pro*MpDXR1:*mVenus-N7* showed ubiquitous expression (Figure 2A), whereas *Pro*MpDXR2:*mVenus-N7* showed specificity to OB cells in Day 0

gemma (Figure 2B). Similarly, *Pro*MpMVD:*mVenus-N7* exhibited specificity to OB cells, even in 14-day-old thalli (Figure 2C).

Finally, given that the expression of some MVA biosynthetic genes and MpFPS appears specific to OB cells, we investigated whether this pattern extends to phytosterol biosynthesis. Phytosterols are essential structural components of plant membranes⁶⁰ and are initially formed through the fusion of two FPP molecules to produce squalene, a reaction catalyzed by SQUALENE SYNTHASE⁶¹ (SQS). We therefore examined the transcriptional reporter of the MpSQS promoter. 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 *Pro*MpSQS3:*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 likely to occur broadly throughout the plant, based on the widespread activity of the MpSQS3 promoter. Although localization data reflect relative protein accumulation rather than absolute presence or absence, 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*.

Exogenous production of taxadiene and β -amyrin in *Marchantia polymorpha* whole plants vs. oil body cells.

Given the observed expression of terpene precursor enzymes predominantly in OB cells, we aimed to harness the metabolic potential of these specialised structures. As proof of concept, we attempted to produce the diterpene taxadiene²⁹, and the triterpene β -amyrin³².

We generated constructs to express *Taxus baccata* taxadiene synthase (TXS)⁶² or *Talinum paniculatum* β -amyrin synthase⁶³ (β -AS), driven by either the constitutive

*Pro*UBE2 or the OB cell-specific MpR2R3-MYB2 promoter (*Pro*MYB2)³⁷, 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 *Pro*UBE2: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^{64,65}. 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 *Pro*UBE2:TXS or *Pro*MYB2:TXS revealed significantly higher levels of taxadiene in whole plants compared to those with expression restricted to OB cells (Figure 3D). Specifically, *Pro*UBE2:TXS lines produced approximately 21 μ g of taxadiene per g of fresh weight (FW), whereas *Pro*MYB2:TXS lines produced only 0.7 μ g/g FW (Figure 3D and 3E), dodecane equivalent. The correct targeting of TXS protein in OB cells was confirmed using a *Pro*MYB2:TXS-*mVenus* fusion construct, which showed plastid localization (Figure 3C).

Similarly, plants expressing *Pro*UBE2: β -AS produced a new compound, identified as β -amyrin through its MS profile and comparison with an authentic standard (Figure 3B and S3B). The *Pro*UBE2: β -AS lines produced an average of 58 μ g of β -amyrin per g of fresh weight (coprostanol equivalent), whereas lines expressing the enzyme specifically in OB cells yielded an average of 1.5 μ g/g FW (Figure 3D and 3E). In MYB2-driven β -AS-*mVenus* lines, the protein localized specifically in the cytosol of the OB cells (Figure 3C). These data indicate that precursors are still present in non-OB cells and contribute to higher terpene yields in plants with ubiquitous expression. Interestingly, Suire et al. reported an approximate ratio of one OB cell to 150 non-OB cells in gemmae³. Whether this ratio is maintained in older thalli remains unknown, as this would require measuring cell density in depth. Despite this uncertainty, our quantitative data show that OB-specific expression results in yields only ~30-fold lower for taxadiene and ~40-fold lower for β -amyrin, rather than a 150-fold decrease, which could hypothetically suggest that OB cells may have a higher precursor availability or storage capacity compared to the non-OB cells.

However, possible higher precursor availability in OB cells does not necessarily preclude flux limitations during engineered terpene biosynthesis. To investigate whether precursor supply was constraining the production of taxadiene and β -amyrin in these cells, we co-expressed *TXS* and β -AS with key rate-limiting enzymes of the MEP and MVA pathways (*i.e* *MpDXS* and *MpHMGR*, respectively), as our work demonstrated that many of these enzymes appeared to be highly expressed in OB cells.

For taxadiene production via the MEP pathway, we co-expressed *MpDXS1* or *MpDXS2* with *TXS*. To mitigate potential homology-dependent gene silencing associated with overexpressing native *Marchantia* genes⁶⁶, we also expressed the homologous *PpDXS1* and *PpDXS2* genes from *Physcomitrium patens*, which have recently been re-annotated as *PpDXS1A* and *PpDXS1D*⁶⁷. 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*^{68,69}.

For β -amyrin production through the MVA pathway⁷⁰, we overexpressed the *HMGR* genes from *Marchantia* (*MpHMGR*) and *Physcomitrium* (*PpHMGR*), alongside truncated versions designed to remove their negative feedback regulatory domain^{71,72}, 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, thereby removing both transmembrane domains. This truncation strategy follows the routinely used tHMGR design for triterpene production in *N. benthamiana*⁷³. 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 supply 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). *MpDXSs*, *MpHDR*, and *MpGGPPS* enzymes specifically localized to plastids of the OB cells (Figure S4A, S4B, S4C and S4D). However, their overexpression to increase precursor availability for *TXS* did not result in increased taxadiene levels, nor in the level of main endogenous sesquiterpenes (Supplementary data 1 and 2), which were tentatively identified by mass spectrum library

matching and by comparison of Kovats retention indices⁷⁴ (Figure S5 and Table S3). While Mp-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 in the ER of OB cells (Figure S4F). Interestingly, when the truncated version (Mp-tHMGR) was expressed under the 2x35S promoter, the fusion protein showed expression across all cells (Figure S4G), suggesting that the negative feedback domain removed in this construct 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 yields of exogenous terpenes in *Marchantia* OB cells. This could reflect either that precursor availability was already sufficient to saturate the reactions or that additional regulatory mechanisms may play critical roles in terpene biosynthesis and accumulation in these specialized cells.

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

Although overexpression of presumed rate-limiting enzymes is a standard strategy in terpene engineering, in our hands it did not enhance exogenous terpene yields when targeted to OB cells. Our initial aim was to produce exogenous terpenes and rely either on their putative passive diffusion into the OB lumen or on the earlier hypothesis that biosynthetic enzymes positioned at the OB membrane, which we assumed could allow newly formed terpenes to enter the lumen. However, after determining the sub-cellular localization of the enzymes, we realised that these compounds may not naturally accumulate in OBs: taxadiene may primarily localize to plastids, while β -amyryn could accumulate in the cytosol. Furthermore, previous studies demonstrated high and exclusive expression of an MpABCG1 gene in oil body cells³⁵, 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 promoter⁷. This prompted us to hypothesize that precursor flux in *Marchantia* predominantly supplies sesquiterpene biosynthesis in the oil body cells and that a specific transporter, potentially MpABCG1, may be required, directly or indirectly, for their accumulation inside OBs.

To investigate whether MpABCG1 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-diene³⁴. Cyclisation of FPP into this sesquiterpene likely occurs via the bisabolyl cation⁷⁵, similar to the endogenous β -chamigrene⁷⁶, therefore we expected this structural similarity to enable amorpha-4,11-diene transport into OBs. We targeted *AMS* expression to either the whole plant (*ProUBE2*) or specifically in OB cells (*ProMYB2*). Additionally, we co-expressed *AMS* and MpABCG1 in OB cells, alongside MpHMGR, MpDXS2, and MpFPS, with FPS enzyme often referred to as a rate-limiting enzyme in sesquiterpene biosynthesis⁷⁷, or alternatively as a key step in substrate channeling toward FPP. By introducing MpABCG1 and MpFPS, we aimed to overcome potential transport limitations and to test whether this combination could further increase FPP availability for sesquiterpene production. Amorpha-4,11-diene was detected only in transgenic lines expressing the construct *ProUBE2:AMS* (Figure S6), with an average yield of 0.75 $\mu\text{g/g}$ FW in six out of eight independent transformants (Figure 4A, Supplementary data 3). No amorpha-4,11-diene was detected when expression was targeted to OB cells, either with or without precursor supply genes and MpABCG1 (Figure S6). The absence of detection is consistent with the low yields observed in whole-plant *ProUBE2:AMS* lines, where amorpha-4,11-diene levels were nearly two orders of magnitude lower than taxadiene or β -amyrin in comparable constructs, and may therefore have fallen below the detection threshold in OB-targeted lines. 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).

When measuring endogenous sesquiterpene levels in at least eight independent transformants for each gene combination, we observed that, compared to lines expressing *ProMYB2:AMS* alone, co-expression of precursor genes significantly increased sesquiterpene levels (Figure 4C, Supplementary data 3). Among combinations without MpABCG1, MpFPS + MpHMGR boosted sesquiterpene levels the most, with a 2.8-fold average increase for the major sesquiterpenes compared to a 1.8-fold increase with MpFPS and MpDXS2. The overexpression of MpABCG1 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-2 α -ol (Figure 4C, Supplementary data 3). The observed increase in endogenous sesquiterpene levels when MpHMGR was expressed under the MYB2 promoter also suggests that MpHMGR protein is likely localized to OB cells, despite its undetection in localization studies using the mVenus tag. This discrepancy may reflect interference from the C-terminal mVenus fusion affecting proper folding or stability of MpHMGR, whereas the native untagged version used in metabolic engineering was more efficiently expressed and active.

To further validate the transport role of MpABCG1, we generated CRISPR lines to disrupt its function. We obtained six independent transformants with early stop codons in the MpABCG1 DNA sequence (Figure 5A). Terpene analysis revealed a dramatic reduction or complete absence of sesquiterpenes in Mpabcg1 mutants (Mpabcg1^{ge}) compared to Cas9-only controls (Cas9^{OE}) (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^{78,79} (Figure 5B). Quantification revealed no significant changes in these compounds when comparing the five Cas9^{OE} controls and six Mpabcg1^{ge} lines (Figure S7).

To assess whether the reduced sesquiterpene levels in Mpabcg1^{ge} could be attributed to changes in oil body (OB) characteristics, we performed BODIPY staining on three pieces of newly formed meristematic tissues from primary transformants after the second round of selection. Confocal microscopy revealed no detectable differences between Mpabcg1^{ge} lines and Cas9^{OE} in OB number (Figure S8A) or average fluorescence intensity (Figure S8C, Supplementary data 5). In contrast, OBs in Mpabcg1^{ge} were significantly smaller in size compared to controls (Figure S8B, Supplementary data 5). Since OBs in *M. polymorpha* also contain abundant non-terpenoid metabolites such as bisbibenzyls, the BODIPY signal may primarily reflect lipidic and aromatic components other than terpenes. The reduction in OB size may therefore reflect impaired terpene accumulation, which restricts OB expansion without affecting overall fluorescence intensity.

These findings suggest that MpABCG1 plays a selective role, directly or indirectly, in promoting the accumulation of endogenous sesquiterpenes, with limited evidence of an effect on other terpene subclasses or on overall OB composition.

DISCUSSION

In this study, we used translational and transcriptional reporters to map both the cell-type specificity and subcellular localization of enzymes involved in the early steps of terpene biosynthesis. These findings corroborate earlier transcriptomic analyses in OB-defective plants^{5,7}, as well as co-expression network analysis¹⁴ and single-cell RNA sequencing data³⁵, all of which indicate that these enzymes are OB-cell specific.

Enzymatic steps of the MEP pathway and diterpene biosynthesis, including MpDXS, MpHDS, MpHDR, and MpGGPPS, were localized to chloroplasts/plastids – referred to as chloro-amyloplasts in OB cells by Suire et al³ – 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 MpHMGR and MpFPS, were localized to the ER, Golgi, and cytosol, supporting their involvement in cytosolic terpene precursor production. With the exception of MpFPS, all studied enzymes localized as predicted by DeepLoc2.1²⁸. However, our experimental conditions allowed us to localise steady-state accumulation of proteins and did not account for any dynamic behavior due to protein trafficking⁸⁰. Our findings corroborate earlier studies³ that reported high or exclusive expression of isoprenoid biosynthetic enzymes in OB cells. Given that OBs are formed through redirection of the secretory pathway⁷, some enzymes like MpHMGR – 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 membrane³. For each translational or expression pattern reporter, we selected promoter lengths based on a single ATAC-seq³⁸ 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^{37,41}, balancing the need for regulatory coverage with constraints related to sequence synthesis. For instance, a promoter as short as 970 bp

like *pro*MpGGPPS was sufficient to drive strong and ubiquitous signal in chloro-amyloplasts. However, in other instances such as *pro*MpDXR2, promoter functionality required extending the length from 1.7 kb to 2.7 kb to achieve detectable expression. Altering promoter lengths could include or exclude positive or negative regulatory elements affecting cell-type specificity, therefore further systematic studies would be needed to draw concrete conclusions about the relationship between promoter structure and regulatory outcomes. 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.

With respect to precursor supply, our study suggests that the MVA pathway predominantly provides precursors for sesquiterpene synthesis in *Marchantia polymorpha*, supported by the apparent exclusive expression of MpHMGR and MpMVD in OB cells and the significant increases in endogenous sesquiterpene levels observed when MpHMGR and MpFPS were co-expressed. Notably, MpFPS – also a potential OB-specific enzyme – emerged as a critical limiting step in sesquiterpene biosynthesis, consistent with previous findings in *Nicotiana tabacum*⁸¹. The MEP pathway's contribution to sesquiterpene synthesis cannot be ruled out, given the specific expression of MpDXS2 and MpDXR2 in OB cells and the fact that a previous study using GC-MS analysis of physically extracted OB content detected sesquiterpenes² as the only sub-class of terpenes. If OBs also store monoterpenes like limonene²⁶ or specific diterpenes, their levels remained undetectable or unchanged despite the targeted expression of precursor supply genes. Furthermore, overexpression of key MEP genes and MpGGPPS 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 MpDXS2 with MpFPS, MpHMGR, and MpABCG1 mildly increased the sesquiterpene levels compared to the same combination of genes without MpDXS2, demonstrating a modest effect of MpDXS2 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 precursors⁸². In contrast, MpDXS1 and MpDXR1 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 MpDXR1⁸³, further highlighting its role in primary metabolism rather than specialized metabolite production. This divergence in expression patterns between MpDXS1 and MpDXS2 is consistent with the functional distinction between Class I and Class II DXS isoforms, typically associated with primary and secondary metabolism, respectively⁸⁴. The presence of such functional specialization in an early-diverging land plant is in line with recent findings in *Physcomitrium patens*⁶⁷. The specific localisation of MpHMGR, MpMVD, and MpFPS 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 MpSQS3, 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 Mpabcg1^{9e} were unaffected, suggesting that OBs are not the primary site of sterol synthesis or storage for the rest of the plant. This is further supported by the observation that sterol levels remain unchanged in plants defective in OB cell differentiation⁵. 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.

Finally, our findings point to an important role for the ABC transporter MpABCG1 in determining terpene accumulation within oil body cells. Our study demonstrated that exogenous terpenes, such as amorpha-4,11-diene, taxadiene, and β -amyrin, could be produced throughout the whole plant. However, achieving useful yields within OB cells proved less straightforward, even with the overexpression of key biosynthetic genes. This led us to consider whether transport into OBs might be a limiting factor for the accumulation of exogenous compounds. Supporting this, CRISPR-mediated disruption of MpABCG1 resulted in a sharp reduction in endogenous sesquiterpene levels, demonstrating that MpABCG1 plays a crucial role in terpene accumulation. However,

whether MpABCG1 directly transports sesquiterpenes or acts indirectly to facilitate their accumulation in the OB lumen remains unclear, and its exact function therefore remains an open question. Some ABCG transporters have been experimentally characterized through transport assays to identify their specific substrates⁸⁵. Among those sharing higher protein sequence similarity with MpABCG1 (around 55%), some exhibit broad substrate specificity, such as *Nicotiana tabacum* NtPDR1, which can accommodate chemically diverse terpenes like the sesquiterpenes like sclareol and capsidiol, and the diterpene cembrene⁸⁶. In contrast, others are more selective, such as *Arabidopsis thaliana* ABCG29, which transports only *p*-coumaryl alcohol⁸⁷ or *Oryza sativa* ABCG36, which exports cadmium and cadmium conjugate⁸⁸. This raises the question of whether MpABCG1 could directly transport the 35+ endogenous sesquiterpenes detected by our GC-MS analysis and previous studies² — a number that likely underestimates the total — as these methods primarily detect compounds with limited hydroxylation. An alternative hypothesis is that MpABCG1 may influence the transport of FPP into the OB lumen rather than that of the sesquiterpene end-products. Supporting this, we observed that a translational reporter of the *fungal terpene synthase-like 2* (FTPSL2), an endogenous sesquiterpene synthase characterized by Kumar et al.²⁶, was detected within the OB lumen in two independent lines, but only in one lobe out of four in 14 days-old plants (Figure S9). Because fluorescent protein fusions may occasionally affect trafficking, targeting or organelle morphology^{1,89–91}, these technical factors cannot be fully excluded as contributors to the restricted MpFTPSL2–mVenus signal. Nevertheless, the observed localization provides preliminary support for OB lumen functioning as a biosynthetic compartment³ rather than solely storage, while the limited localization pattern detected underscores the need for further confirmation. To date, no ABC transporter has been reported to transport phosphorylated isoprenoid intermediates. Indeed, previous research demonstrated that the transport of shorter-chain prenyl diphosphates, such as isopentenyl pyrophosphate (IPP), occurs across chloroplast membranes via a proton-symport mechanism rather than an ATP-dependent ABC transporter system⁹². However, the OB membrane cannot be directly compared to the chloroplast double membrane, and FPP, being three times larger than IPP, may have different transport requirements. Interestingly, FPP shares amphiphilic properties and a sesquiterpene backbone with

abscisic acid (ABA), a known substrate of several ABCG transporters⁸⁵. For example, *Triticum aestivum* ABCG36⁹³ and *Arabidopsis* ABCG40⁹⁴, both sharing ~45% protein sequence similarity with MpABCG1, are specific ABA transporters. Moreover, the ability of *Arabidopsis* ABCC5 to transport inositol hexakisphosphate⁹⁵ suggests that phosphate-containing metabolites can indeed be substrates for ABC-type transporters. If this provisional hypothesis proves correct, it would significantly reshape strategies for engineering terpene biosynthesis in OBs. In this scenario, prenyl phosphate precursors would need to be transported into the OB lumen, and terpene synthases precisely targeted to the lumen or OB membrane to enable localized production of desired compounds. In line with this, we present a tentative map of terpene biosynthesis in *Marchantia* OB cells (Figure 6). This map summarizes our findings on the potential accumulation and subcellular localization of key enzymes involved in terpene precursor synthesis, and integrates speculative elements regarding the remaining MVA and MEP pathway steps within OB compartments, as well as the putative role of MpABCG1 (Figure 6). Overall, our work provides a comprehensive view of terpene synthesis in *Marchantia polymorpha* OB cells by corroborating predicted and experimentally observed subcellular localization of key isoprenoid biosynthetic enzymes. While the exact role of MpABCG1 remains to be fully elucidated, our results suggest that this transporter is involved in the accumulation of endogenous sesquiterpenes and highlight its potential relevance in metabolic compartmentalization. Our study also clarifies which engineering strategies may be limited in *Marchantia*, particularly when targeting the production of exogenous terpenes in oil bodies. Beyond *Marchantia*, these insights offer a foundation for developing more targeted approaches to achieve efficient terpene biosynthesis in specialized plant compartments.

METHODS

Plant material and growth conditions.

Marchantia polymorpha subspecies *ruderalis* accessions Cam-1 (male) and Cam-2 (female) were used in this study⁹⁶. 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 $\mu\text{mol}/\text{m}^2/\text{s}$. 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 1L Microbox micropropagation containers (#O119/140+OD119/140, Sac O₂, Deinze, Belgium), initially maintained at 21 °C under continuous illumination (150 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$), and subsequently transferred after approximately one month to long-day conditions (16 h light/8 h dark) with the same light intensity supplemented with far-red radiation (peak emission ~730–740 nm) provided by Philips GreenPower far-red LEDs, following a previously established protocol⁴¹.

Protein sequence analysis.

Protein sequences of the selected MpIDS and MpSQS candidates from *Marchantia polymorpha* were analyzed using NCBI BLASTP (Basic Local Alignment Search Tool for Proteins, <https://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi>) against the *Arabidopsis thaliana* protein database. Sequence similarity was assessed based on percentage identity and coverage to infer functional homology. To assess relatedness among ABCG transporters from different plant species, we retrieved the protein sequences of experimentally characterized ABCG with known substrate specificity from Do et al⁸⁵., when available. These were aligned with the MpABCG1 sequence using the UniProt⁹⁷ online tool to evaluate percentage identity and phylogenetic grouping.

Plasmid construction for overexpression studies.

DNA fragments used to generate mVenus and metabolic constructs were synthesized by Genewiz (Azenta, Burlington, Massachusetts, USA) either as linear fragments or in pUAP1 vector⁹⁸. Linear fragments included overhangs compatible with Lgcl (#ER1931, ThermoFisher Scientific, Waltham, Massachusetts, USA) cloning into L0 acceptor vectors following the Loop protocol⁴¹. Linear fragments and sequences synthesized in pUAP1 vectors, contained overhangs enabling direct cloning into L1 or pBy01³⁷ vectors using BsaI-HF[®]v2 enzyme (#R3733S, New England Biolabs, Ipswich, Massachusetts, USA). MpFPS and MpHDS sequences were cloned from the *Marchantia* transcriptome as they did not require the removal of BsaI and Lgcl internal restriction sites, 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 toolkit⁴¹ or adapted from Romani et al³⁷. 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 Supplementary data 6.

In vitro testing of guide RNA and generation of CRISPR-based mutants.

In vitro testing of candidate gRNAs was performed prior to plant transformation, following a protocol adapted from an open-access method on protocols.io⁹⁹, with modifications described below. Genomic DNA was extracted from *Marchantia polymorpha* using the InnuPrep Plant DNA Kit (#845-KS-1060050, IST Innuscreen, Berlin, Germany). A genomic region of 860 bp containing the six candidate gRNA target sites was amplified using primers spanning from the 5'UTR to the first coding exon of the *ABCG1* sequence. For sequences of the six gRNAs and their target positions, see the table in Figure S10A. To amplify the 860 bp genomic sequence, the forward primer AAGACTCCGGATCCGAGGG and reverse primer CCTCAACTTTGGGCAGGTCA were used. PCR amplification was performed using VeriFi® Polymerase Mix, and products were purified using the QIAquick PCR Purification Kit. For each of the six candidate gRNAs designed with the CasFinder tool¹⁰⁰, a DNA template for in vitro transcription was generated by PCR. Forward primers consisted of the T7 promoter sequence, followed by the 20-nt gRNA target sequence, and the first portion of the trans-activating CRISPR RNA (tracrRNA), in the following format: GAAATTAATACGACTCACTATAGG<gRNA sequence>GTTTTAGAGCTAGAAATAGC. The reverse primer AAAAGCACCGACTCGGTGCCAC corresponded to the remaining portion of the tracrRNA scaffold. PCR templates were amplified using the single-guide acceptor CRISPR vector from Sauret-Guëto et al²³ containing the gRNA scaffold. PCR products were purified using the QIAquick PCR Purification Kit and quantified prior to in vitro transcription. PCR templates for each of the six candidate gRNAs were transcribed into RNA using the MEGAshortscript™ T7 Transcription Kit (#AM1354, Thermo Fisher Scientific) following the manufacturer's protocol, including treatment with TURBO DNase. RNA was precipitated by adding 15 µL RNase-free water and 15 µL LiCl Precipitation Solution (#10498254, Fisher Scientific) and processed according to the manufacturer's instructions. In vitro cleavage reactions were performed using the Cas9 Nuclease (#M0646T, New England Biolabs) following the supplier's protocol, with 300 nM in vitro-transcribed sgRNA and 200–300 ng of the genomic 860 bp amplicon as substrate. Reactions were incubated at 37 °C for 1 h, then treated with 1 µL Proteinase K (#11588916, Fisher Scientific) at 65 °C for 10 min. Cleavage products were resolved immediately on an agarose gel alongside a 100 bp DNA ladder (#N3231S, New England

Biolabs). Among the six tested guides (Figure S10A), gRNA #1 showed a slightly reduced intensity of the full-length 860 bp band (Figure S10B), suggesting possible in vitro activity, whereas gRNA #5 produced a clear cleavage pattern with two distinct fragments and a reduced intensity of the 860 bp band. Both gRNAs #1 and #5 were cloned into the single-guide acceptor vector following Sauret-Guëto et al protocol²³. Numerous mutants were obtained only with gRNA #5, while no mutant were recovered for gRNA #1.

***Agrobacterium*-mediated transformation of *Marchantia* spores and selection of independent 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 (triclosene 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 method¹⁰¹. Sporelings and *Agrobacterium* were co-cultured for 2 days in a 4 mL solution of 0.5× Gamborg B-5 plus supplements like previously described⁴¹, and incubated at 22°C under continuous shaking and light. Following co-culture, sporelings 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 chlorsulfuron — resulted in an insufficient number of transformants. Therefore, transformants were selected based on hygromycin B resistance for *AMS* (with or without *MpABCG1*) 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 *Mpabcg1^{ge}* mutants and *Cas9^{OE}* lines, genomic DNA was extracted using the InnuPrep Plant DNA kit. For *Mpabcg1^{ge}* 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 *MpABCG1* 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 *Mpabcg1^{ge}* ones, and eight for the *Cas9^{OE}* 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 objective (Fluotar VISIR 25×/0.95 WATER) for whole-gemmae or meristematic area imaging, or a 40× water immersion objective (HC PL APO CS2 40×/1.10 WATER) for higher magnification images, with an additional digital

zoom applied up to a factor of 5× to enhance visualization of subcellular localizations. 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 *MpHDS-eGFP* and *MpHDR-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 perfluorodecalin¹⁰² (#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 Fiji¹⁰³ to generate maximum intensity projections of the Z-stacks. High magnification images were acquired as single scans to better display subcellular features.

BODIPY staining and oil body analysis.

Meristematic tissue pieces were collected from 2–3-week-old plants and stained with BODIPY™ 493/503 (#11540326, Fisher Scientific). A 5 mM stock solution was prepared in DMSO and diluted to a 2 µM working solution in water. Tissues were incubated in this solution for 30 min in the dark, rinsed twice with water, and gently blotted dry on absorbent paper before mounting in perfluorodecalin, as described above for confocal imaging of plants aged 3–14 days. BODIPY fluorescence was detected using 488 nm excitation and a narrow emission window of 500–505 nm, alongside chlorophyll autofluorescence recorded under the settings described above.

Z-stacks were processed in Fiji. For OB size measurements, the BODIPY fluorescence channel was converted to grayscale, thresholded (values 0–20), and binarized with watershed separation. OBs were then quantified using the “Analyze Particles” function

with a minimum size cutoff of 3 μm^2 . For fluorescence intensity measurements, regions of interest (ROIs) corresponding to OBs were generated from the binary image and transferred to the original grayscale image. The mean gray intensity and area of each ROI were then extracted using the “Set Measurements” and “Measure” functions. Data were compiled and plotted in PRISM software version 10 (GraphPad, La Jolla, California, USA).

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 et al²⁶. 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 $\times$ 0.25 mm $\times$ 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 work²⁶ 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 -amyryn 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 Adams⁷⁴. 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 μ g 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 μ L 1-trimethylsilyl-imidazole (TMS; #92718, Superlco) and resuspended in 300 μ L hexane. For GC-MS analysis, 200 μ L 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 *Mpabcg1^{ge}* and *Cas9^{OE}* 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^{104,105} 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 (*ProMYB2: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 *Mpabcg1^{ge}* mutants and *Cas9^{OE}* lines, as determined by Welch's or unpaired t-tests.

Statistics and Reproducibility.

Statistical analyses were performed on data obtained from independent biological replicates, defined as independently generated transgenic lines or independently genotyped mutant plants. For experiments involving metabolite quantification, four to eight independent primary transformants were analyzed per construct, as indicated in the corresponding figure legends. For CRISPR-generated mutants, all available genotyped transformants were included. Statistical analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism. Where applicable, statistical significance was assessed using one-way ANOVA followed by Dunnett's multiple comparisons test, unpaired two-tailed Student's t-tests, or Welch's t-tests, as specified in the figure legends. Quantitative data are presented as box plots showing individual data points.

For imaging experiments lacking formal statistical analysis, transformations were performed in independent rounds and multiple plants were analyzed per construct to confirm reproducibility of localization patterns.

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Competing interest

The authors declare no competing interests.

Data availability statement

Source data for terpene quantification and oil body measurements using BODIPY staining are provided as Supplementary Data 1–5. Sequences and vectors used to generate the constructs for plant transformation are provided in Supplementary Data 6. Original Leica .lif files containing confocal microscopy images are available from the corresponding authors upon reasonable request.

Table legend.

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 subclasses. 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 legends.

Figure 1. Confocal imaging of translational reporters for key *Marchantia polymorpha* isoprenoid biosynthetic genes.

(A) *Pro*MpDXS1:DXS1-mVenus, (B) *Pro*MpDXS2:DXS2-mVenus, (C) *Pro*Bidirectional MpHDR/HDS:HDS-eGFP, (D) *Pro*Bidirectional MpHDS/HDR:HDR-mVenus, (E) *Pro*MpGGPPS:GGPPS-mVenus, (F) *Pro*MpFPS:FPS-mVenus, and (G) *Pro*MpHMGR:HMGR-mVenus. Each construct is represented by two images: the full gemmae at day 0 (left panels, scale bar: 50 μ m) and a higher magnification view showing

subcellular localization (right panels, scale bar: 5 μ m). (H) Simplified biosynthetic pathway scheme highlighting enzymatic steps analyzed in this study. The mVenus signal (yellow) or eGFP (green) for MpHDS (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 MpDXS1 in the plastids. Panel (G) includes one whole-gemma image and two high magnification images to illustrate the localization of MpHMGR-mVenus to the ER and Golgi apparatus. White arrow indicates the localizations to the Golgi apparatus.

Figure 2. Confocal imaging of transcriptional reporters for additional isoprenoid biosynthetic genes in *Marchantia polymorpha*.

(A) *Pro*MpDXR1:mVenus-N7, (B) *Pro*MpDXR2:mVenus-N7, (C) *Pro*MpMVD:mVenus-N7, and (D) *Pro*MpSQS3: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 μ m) and the meristem area of 14-day-old plants (right, scale bar: 50 μ m). 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 *Pro*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 *Pro*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 *Pro*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 μ m.

(D) Quantification of taxadiene (upper graph) and β -amyrin (lower graph) in plants expressing *ProUBE2:TXS* and *ProUBE2: β -AS* respectively (whole plant expression) or *ProMYB2:TXS* and *ProMYB2: 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 overexpressing 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 (ns) across gene combinations.

Figure 4. Expression of amorphadiene synthase (AMS) in *Marchantia polymorpha* with or without precursor supply genes and the MpABCG1 transporter, and its effect on endogenous sesquiterpene levels.

(A) Quantification of amorphadiene levels in plants expressing *Artemisia annua* AMS under the *Marchantia UBE2* promoter. The compound was detected in six independent transformants (mean $\pm$ SD; $n = 6$). (B) Subcellular localization of MpFPS 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 μ m. (C) Quantification of endogenous sesquiterpenes, including cis-thujopsene, β -chamigrene, γ -cuprenene, and thujopsan-2 α -ol, in lines expressing AaAMS with or without precursor supply genes (MpFPS, MpDXS2, and/or MpHMGR) and with or without MpABCG1, under *ProMYB2*. 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 (* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$; **** $p < 0.0001$; ns = not significant).

Figure 5. Analysis of endogenous terpene profiles in CRISPR-generated *Mpabcg1^{ge}* mutants compared to *Cas9^{OE}* controls.

(A) DNA sequence alignment of the *Mpabcg1* genomic region in wild-type (WT) and CRISPR-generated *Mpabcg1^{ge}* 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^{OE}* control (upper chromatogram) and *Mpabcg1^{ge}* mutant line (lower chromatogram). Peaks corresponding to quantified compounds are labeled: sesquiterpenes (1: cis-thujopsene, 2: β -chamigrene, 3: γ -cuprenene, 4a: thujopsan-2 α -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 *Mpabcg1^{ge}* (n=6) compared to *Cas9^{OE}* (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 (unpaired t-tests or Welch's tests depending on variance equality ($p < 0.05$)).

Figure 6. Proposed 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. 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; CPT, cis-prenyl transferase; MTPSL2, microbial terpene synthase like 2, functionally characterised in yeast as a limonene synthase (Kumar et al.).

	Name	Abbreviation	Putative localisation (DeepLoc 2.1)
MEP	1-Deoxy-D-xylulose-5-phosphate synthase 1	MpDXS1	Plastids/soluble
	1-Deoxy-D-xylulose-5-phosphate synthase 2	MpDXS2	
	1-Deoxy-D-xylulose 5-phosphate reductoisomerase 1	MpDXR1	
	1-Deoxy-D-xylulose 5-phosphate reductoisomerase 2	MpDXR2	
	4-Diphosphocytidyl-2-C-methyl-D-erythritol synthase	MpMCT	
	4-Diphosphocytidyl-2-C-methyl-D-erythritol 2-phosphate kinase	MpCMK	
	2-C-methyl-D-erythritol 2,4-cyclodiphosphate synthase	MpMDS	
	1-Hydroxy-2-methyl-2-(E)-butenyl 4-diphosphate synthase	MpHDS	
	1-Hydroxy-2-methyl-2-(E)-butenyl 4-diphosphate reductase	MpHDR	
	Isopentenyl diphosphate isomerase 1	MpIDI1	
	Isoprenyl (geranylgeranyl) diphosphate synthase 2	MpIDS2/MpGGPPS	Plastids/soluble
	Isoprenyl diphosphate synthase 3	MpIDS3	Plastids/soluble
	Isoprenyl (solanesyl) diphosphate synthase 4	MpIDS4	Plastids/soluble
	Isoprenyl diphosphate synthase 5	MpIDS5	Mitochondria/soluble
MVA	Acetoacetyl-coA thiolase 2	MpACT2	Peroxisome/soluble
	3-Hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl-coA synthase	MpHMGS	Cytoplasm
	3-Hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl-coA reductase	MpHMG/MpHMGR	ER/transmembrane
	Mevalonate-5-kinase	MpMK	Cytoplasm
	Phosphomevanolate kinase	MpPMK	Cytoplasm
	Mevanolate diphosphate decarboxylase.	MpMVD	Cytoplasm
	Isopentenyl diphosphate isomerase 2	MpIDI2	Cytoplasm
	Farnesyl pyrophosphate synthase	MpIDS1/MpFPS	Mitochondria/soluble
	Squalene synthase 3	MpSQS3	ER/transmembrane
	Squalene/phytoene synthase 1	MpSQS1	Plastids/peripheral
	Squalene/phytoene synthase 2	MpSQS2	Mitochondria/peripheral

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. 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.

Editor's Summary

A study maps terpene biosynthesis in *Marchantia polymorpha* oil bodies and identifies the ABC transporter MpABCG1 as a key factor for endogenous sesquiterpene accumulation in oil bodies, informing future metabolic engineering strategies.

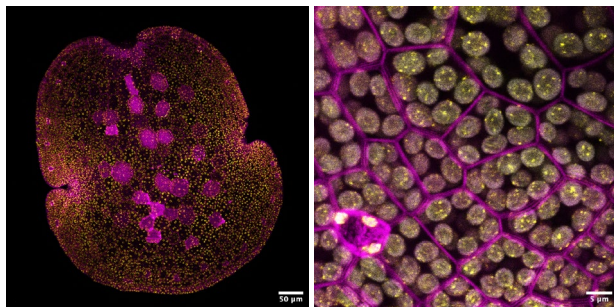
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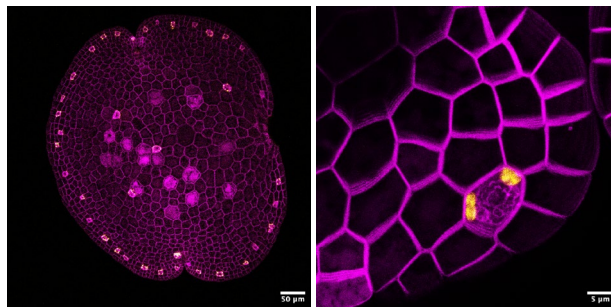
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*Pro*MpDXS1:DXS1-mVenus

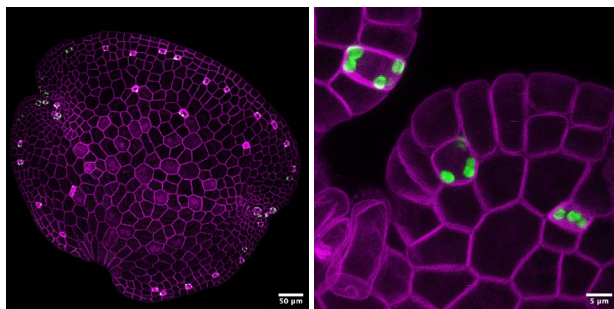
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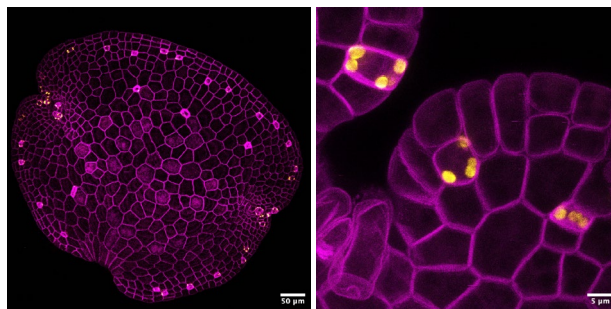
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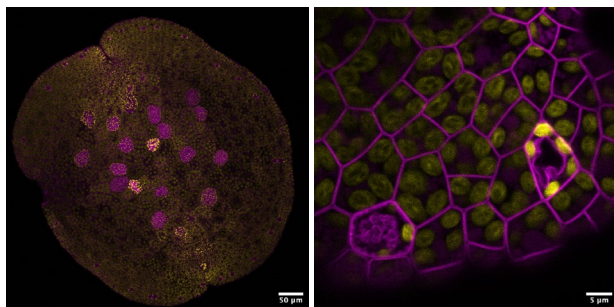
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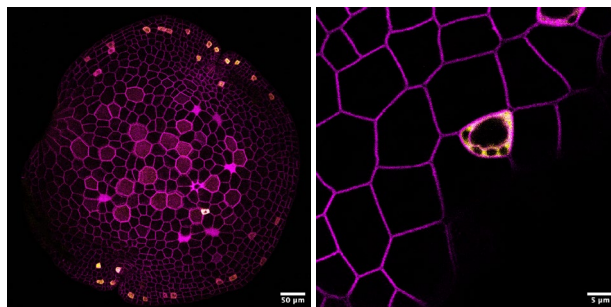
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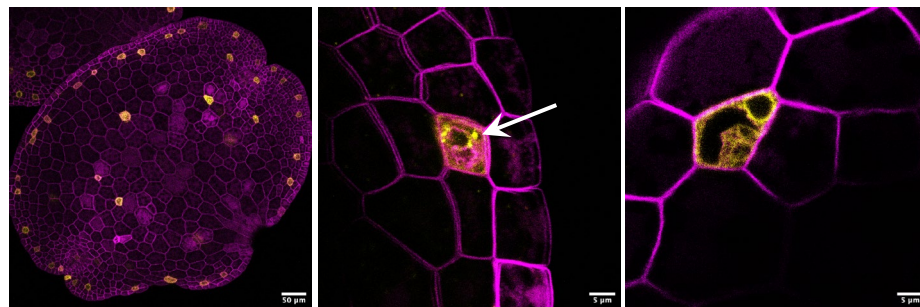
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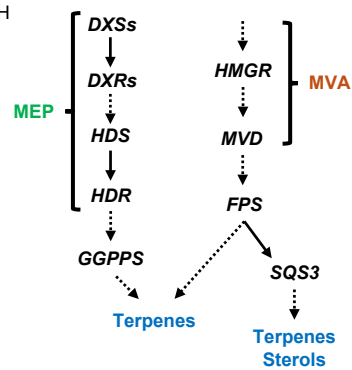
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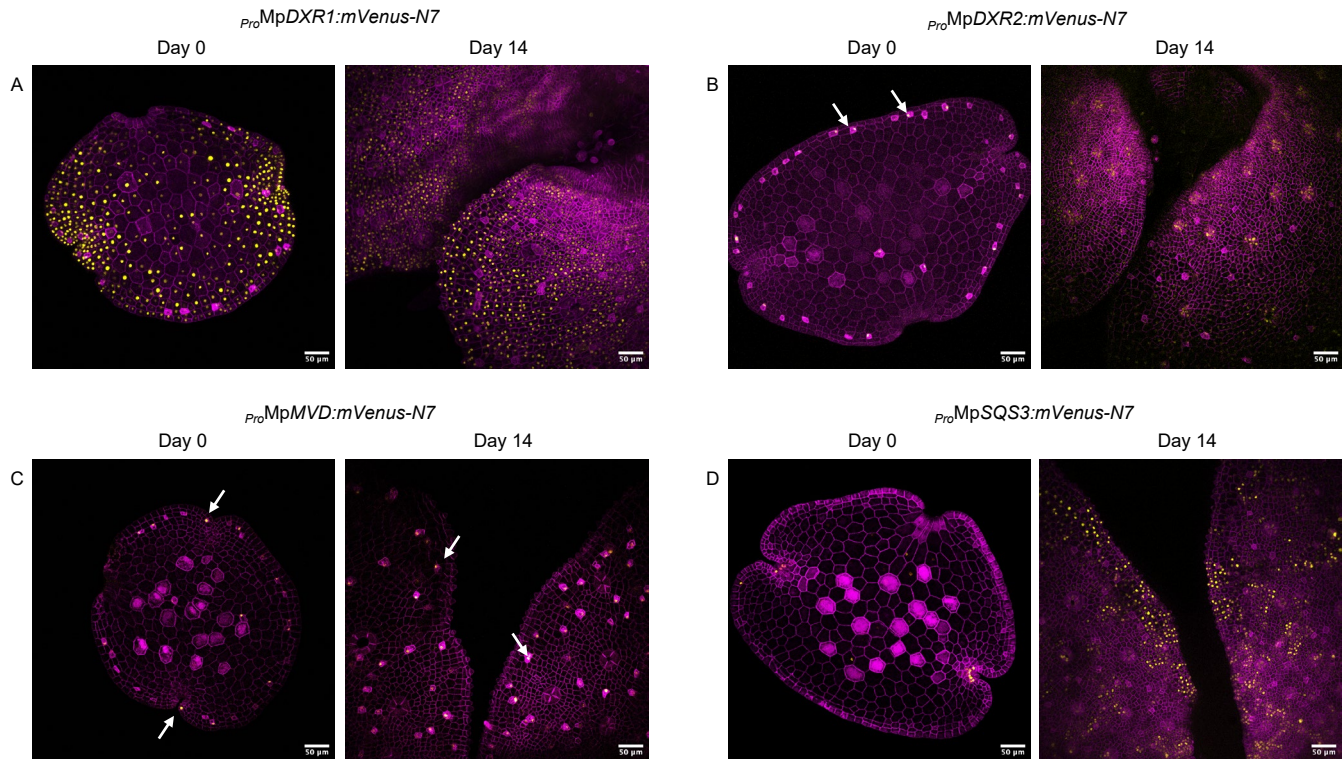
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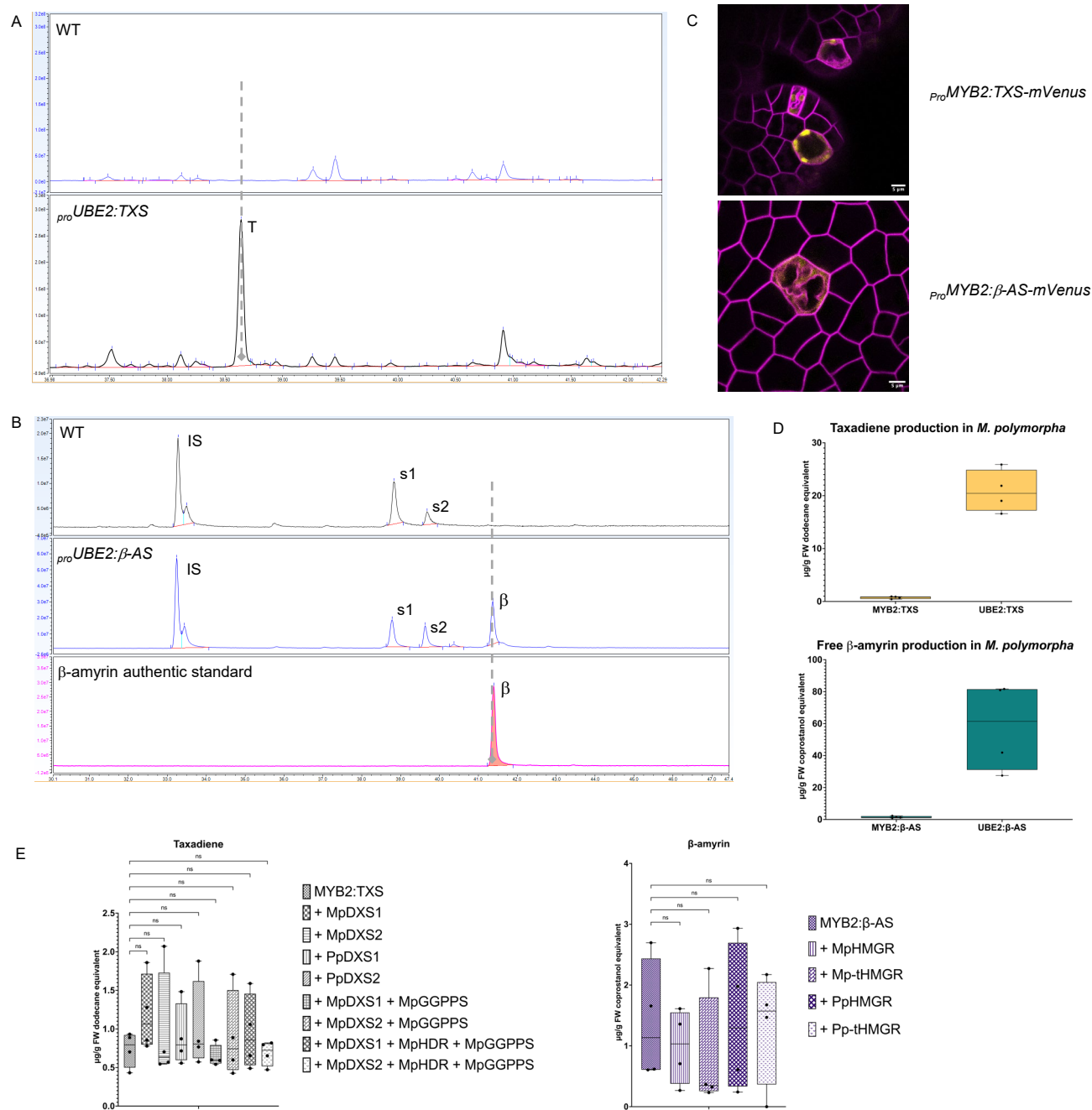
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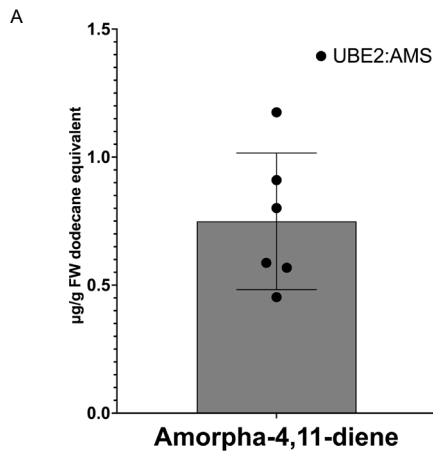


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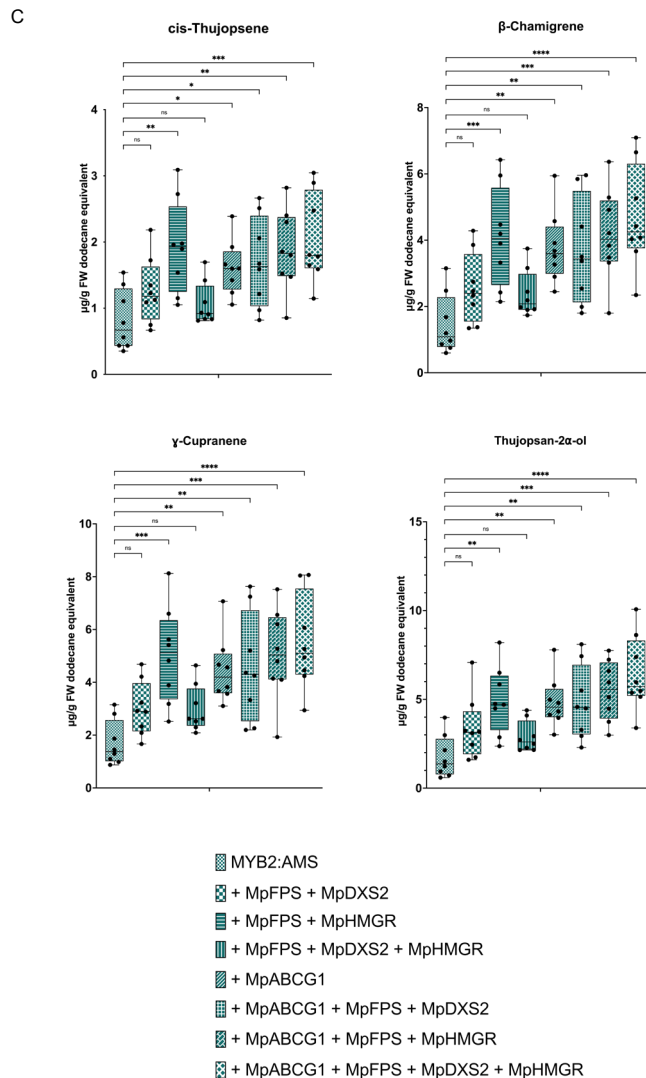




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*Pro*MYB2:MpFPS-mVenus

*Pro*MYB2:AMS-mVenus



A

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Mpabcg1-2^{oe} 301- CAGATGAACCCAG __GAGGATGAGAAGTTTCTCGCCAAGCTAA

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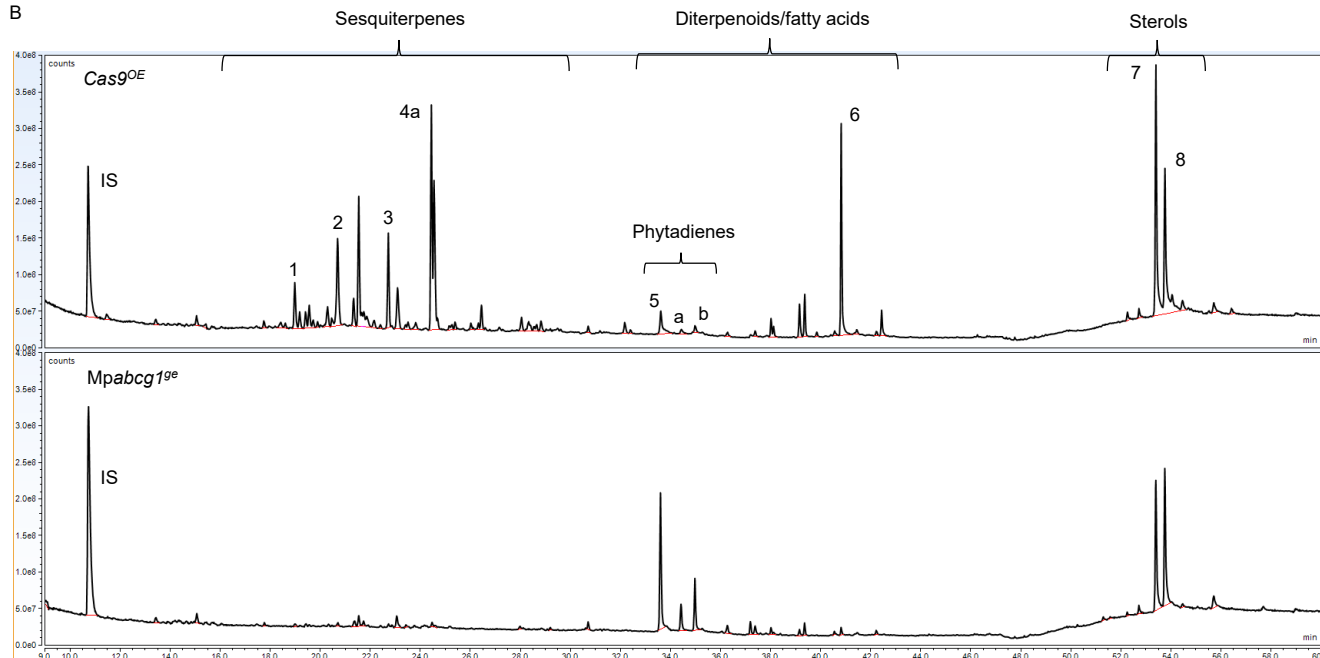
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Mpabcg1-10^{oe} 301- CAGATGAAC __AGGAGGATAATGAGAAGTTTCTCGCCAAGCTAA

Mpabcg1-11^{oe} 301- CAGATGAAC TGGGTTTCTCGCCAAGCTAAGATCCCATGATGAGAAGTTTCTCGCCAAGCTAA

B



C

