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Fungal and plant gene expression in the Tulasnella calospora - Serapias vomeracea symbiosis provides cues on N pathways in orchid mycorrhiza Valeria Fochi^{1,2}, Walter Chitarra², Annegret Kohler³, Samuele Voyron¹, Vasanth Singan⁴, Erika Lindquist⁴, Kerrie Barry⁴, Mariangela Girlanda^{1,2}, Igor V. Grigoriev⁴, Francis Martin³, Raffaella Balestrini², Silvia Perotto^{1,2} ¹Department of Life Sciences and Systems Biology, University of Turin, Italy ²Institute for Sustainable Plant Protection (IPSP)-CNR, Italy ³ INRA-Nancy and Lorraine University, Lab of Excellence ARBRE, Unité Mixte de Recherche 1136, 54280, Champenoux, France ⁴ U.S. Department of Energy Joint Genome Institute, Walnut Creek, CA 94598, USA Authors for correspondence: Silvia Perotto Department of Life Sciences and Systems Biology, University of Turin, Italy e-mail: silvia.perotto@unito.it Raffaella Balestrini Institute for Sustainable Plant Protection (IPSP)-CNR, Italy e-mail: raffaella.balestrini@ipsp.cnr.it

Summary

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- 27 • Orchids are highly dependent on their mycorrhizal fungal partners for nutrient supply, especially
- during early developmental stages. In addition to organic carbon, nitrogen (N) is likely a major 28
- nutrient transferred to the plant because orchid tissues are highly N-enriched. We know almost 29
- 30 nothing on the N form preferentially transferred to the plant and on the key molecular determinants
- required for N uptake and transfer. 31
- 32 • We identified, in the genome of the orchid mycorrhizal fungus Tulasnella calospora, two
- functional ammonium transporters and several amino acid transporters but no evidence of a nitrate 33
- assimilation system, in agreement with N preference of the free living mycelium grown on different 34
- N sources. 35
- Differential expression in symbiosis of a repertoire of fungal and plant genes involved in transport 36
- and metabolism of N compounds suggests that organic N may be the main form transferred to the 37
- orchid host and that ammonium is taken up by the intracellular fungus from the apoplatic symbiotic 38
- interface. 39
- This is the first study addressing the genetic determinants of N uptake and transport in orchid 40
- mycorrhiza, and provides a model for nutrient exchanges at the symbiotic interface, which may 41
- guide future experiments. 42

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Keywords: orchid mycorrhiza, Tulasnella, Serapias, nitrogen

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Introduction

- Like the majority of terrestrial plants, orchids form mycorrhizal associations with soil fungi that 48
- provide them with essential nutrients. However, orchids are peculiar because seed germination and 49
- early development in nature fully depend on the mycobionts (Rasmussen, 1995; Smith & Read, 50
- 2008), that provide the embryo with organic carbon (C) and other essential nutrients. Following 51
- seed germination, orchids form the protocorm, a heterotrophic structure that precedes seedling 52
- development and continue to rely on their mycobionts for organic C supply, a strategy known as 53
- 54 mycoheterotrophy (Leake, 2004). Some orchid species remain achlorophyllous or with inefficient

photosynthesis at adulthood (Selosse & Roy, 2009; Hynson et al., 2013), whereas most orchids 55 develop photosynthetic leaves and become fully autotrophic. These photosynthetic orchid species 56 usually associate with saprotrophic fungi belonging to the anamorphic form-genus Rhizoctonia, 57 featuring basidiomycete members in the Ceratobasidiaceae, Tulasnellaceae and Sebacinales (Taylor 58 et al., 2002; Weiß et al., 2004). 59 Given the fascinating mycoheterotrophic strategy of orchids as mycorrhizal plant parasites, most 60 experiments on nutrient transfer in orchid mycorrhiza (ORM) have focussed on the acquisition and 61 transfer of organic C, whereas little is known about other nutrients, such as nitrogen. Nitrogen (N) 62 63 is often a limiting factor for plant growth in natural ecosystems (Vitousek & Howarth, 1991). Particularly high concentrations of total N have been reported in the tissues of many orchids (see 64 65 Hynson et al., 2013) and measurements of stable isotope natural abundance, commonly used to identify the source and direction of nutrient flow in ecological systems (Dawson et al., 2002), 66 67 provide evidence that terrestrial orchids receive N from their mycobionts (Gebauer & Meyer, 2003; Hynson et al., 2013; Stöckel et al., 2014). 68 69 Nitrogen occurs in soil as inorganic forms, such as ammonium (NH4⁺) and nitrate (NO3⁻), or as organic N compounds. Fungal uptake and transfer of soil-derived N to the host plant has been 70 71 extensively investigated in arbuscular mycorrhizal (AM) and ectomycorrhizal (ECM) fungi (see references in Chalot et al., 2006; Martin et al., 2007; Müller et al., 2007; Koegel et al., 2015; 72 Bücking & Kafle, 2015). Nitrate transporters and genes responsible for nitrate utilization have been 73 identified mainly in AM fungi (Kaldorf et al., 1998; Tian et al., 2010; Koegel et al., 2015), and 74 nitrophilous ECM fungi (Plassard et al., 2000; Jargeat et al., 2003; Montanini et al., 2006). Genes 75 coding for high- and low-affinity ammonium transporters have been identified and characterized in 76 both AM (López-Pedrosa et al., 2006; Perez-Tienda et al., 2011; Calabrese et al., 2016) and ECM 77 fungi (Montanini et al., 2002; Javelle et al., 2001; Willmann et al., 2007). Amino acid permeases 78 and peptide transporters, that allow for organic N uptake, have been identified and characterized 79 mainly in ECM fungi (Nehls et al., 1999; Wipf et al., 2002a; Guidot et al., 2005; Benjdia et al., 80 2006; Shah et al., 2013) but also in AM fungi (Cappellazzo et al., 2008; Belmondo et al., 2014), 81 82 although the ability of AM fungi to utilize organic N sources is considered to be relatively low. Ammonium is thought to be the main N form transferred to the host plant in AM (Koegel et al., 83 2015; Bücking & Kafle, 2015), whereas N transfer across the ECM interface is not fully clear and 84 may involve both organic (i.e. amino acids) and inorganic nitrogen forms (Chalot et al., 2006; 85

Couturier et al., 2007; Müller et al., 2007).

Compared to ECM and AM fungi, very little is known on N metabolism in orchid mycorrhiza. 87 Some ORM fungi belonging to Ceratobasidium, Tulasnella and Sebacina can grow on organic N as 88 well as on ammonium (Hadley & Ong, 1978; Nurfadilah et al., 2013). In addition, a 89 Ceratobasidium spp. isolate also grew on nitrate (Nurfadilah et al., 2013). Uptake of N from 90 inorganic sources by a Ceratobasidium isolate and transfer to the host protocorm was demonstrated 91 by Kuga et al. (2014) after feeding the fungus with ¹⁵N-labelled NH₄NO₃. Cameron et al. (2006) 92 demonstrated uptake of double-labelled [13C-15N] glycine by C. cornigerum and transfer of labelled 93 ¹⁵N to the adult photosynthetic host *Goodyera repens*. However, the mechanisms underlying fungal 94 N uptake and transfer to the plant, as well as the form of N transferred to the orchid host, remain 95 96 unknown. 97 Here, we used the ORM Tulasnella calospora isolate AL13/4D, either as free-living mycelium (FLM) or in symbiosis with achlorophyllous protocorms of the photosynthetic orchid host Serapias 98 99 vomeracea, as a model system to explore the genetic bases of N uptake and transfer to the ORM host plant. We show that T. calospora lacks a nitrate uptake system but, like other mycorrhizal 100 101 fungi, has functional ammonium transporters (AMTs). Two AMT coding genes were identified in the T. calospora genome (TcAMT1 and TcAMT2) and were characterized by functional 102 103 complementation in yeast. The expression pattern of these fungal AMTs, together with the

expression of additional T. calospora and S. vomeracea genes potentially involved in N uptake and

transfer, allowed us to formulate hypotheses on the N pathway in ORM.

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Materials and methods

Growth of the free-living mycelium (FLM)

Tulasnella calospora AL13/4D was isolated from mycorrhizal roots of Anacamptis laxiflora in 109 110 Northern Italy (Girlanda et al., 2011) and deposited in the mycological collection of the University of Turin (MUT4182). FLM was maintained on solid 2% Malt Extract Agar at 25°C. To evaluate 111 growth on different N sources, 8 hyphal plugs (6 mm diameter) of 20-days-old T. calospora 112 mycelia were transferred into flasks containing 50 ml of modified synthetic Pachlewski P5 liquid 113 medium (Kemppainen & Pardo, 2011) with L-glutamine, monosodium glutamate, ammonium 114 tartrate, sodium nitrate or ammonium sulphate, each added as 0.49g of N. Inoculated flasks were 115 116 maintained at 25°C under constant shaking (120 rpm). After 20 days, the mycelium was recovered by filtration, washed with distilled water, weighted and dried to obtain biomass. Three replicate 117 flasks were used for each N source. 118

- Modified P5 solid medium with the same N sources, as well as oat agar medium (0.3% milled oats,
- 120 1% agar), were used to grow FLM for RNA extraction and expression studies. In this case, T.
- calospora was inoculated onto a sterilized cellophane membrane placed on top of the agar medium
- (Schumann et al., 2013) and kept until the plate was fully colonised (about 20 days). The mycelium
- was then collected from the cellophane membrane, immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored
- 124 at -80°C.

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Symbiotic and asymbiotic germination of S. vomeracea seeds

- Symbiotic germination was obtained by co-inoculation of mycorrhizal fungi and orchid seeds in 9
- cm Petri dishes, as described in Ercole et al. (2013). Seeds of S. vomeracea were surface sterilized
- in 1% sodium hypochlorite and 0.1% Tween-20 for 20 minutes on a vortex, followed by three 5-
- minutes rinses in sterile distilled water. Seeds were re-suspended in sterile water and dropped on
- strips of autoclaved filter paper (1.5 x 3 cm) positioned on solid oat medium (0.3% milled oats, 1%
- agar). Plates were inoculated with a plug of actively growing T. calospora mycelium and were
- incubated at 20°C in full darkness. Asymbiotic seed germination was obtained on modified BM
- culture media (Van Waes & Deberg, 1986) at 20°C in darkness. Symbiotic and asymbiotic
- achlorophyllous protocorms collected at stage P2 (Otero et al., 2004) were either frozen
- immediately in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80 °C for RNA extraction, or fixed and embedded in
- paraffin for laser microdissection or in resin for microscopy.

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Gene identification and phylogenetic analysis

- Fungal genes coding for proteins possibly involved in N uptake and transfer were identified in the
- 141 T. calospora genome database on the JGI fungal genome portal MycoCosm
- 142 (http://genome.jgi.doe.gov/Tulca1/Tulca1.home.htm). Plant transcripts coding for proteins
- potentially involved in N uptake and transfer were selected from the RNASeq database obtained in
- this study as described below. Multiple protein alignments were done with MUSCLE (Edgar,
- 2004). Phylogenetic trees were constructed with the maximum likelihood method using the MEGA
- software, Version 7.0 (Kumar et al., 2015); bootstrap analyses were conducted on the basis of 1,000
- re-samplings of the sequence alignment.

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Full-length TcAMT1 and TcAMT2 isolation

TcAMT1 (1467 bp) and TcAMT2 (1611 bp) full length cDNA isolation was carried out through PCR amplification of T. calospora or mycorrhizal S. vomeracea protocorms cDNA with the full-length primers reported in Table S1. PCR reactions were performed in 50 µl final volume containing 10 µl of 5X Phusion HF Buffer, 1 µl of dNTPs (10mM stock each), 1.5 µl of each primer (10 mM stock), 0.5 μl of Phusion High-Fidelity DNA polymerase (NEB, USA), 34.5 μl of water and 1 μl of cDNA. PCR amplifications were carried out in a thermal cycler (Biometra) using the following program: 98 C for 60 s; 35 cycles of 98 C for 10 s, 57 C for 10 s and 72 C for 90 s; 72 C for 10 min. Amplicons were visualised on 1.2% agarose gel after electrophoresis in 0.5X TAE buffer, excised from the agarose gel and purified using Wizard® SV Gel and PCR Clean-Up System following the manufacturer's instruction. The purified DNA was eluted in 30 µl of Nuclease-Free Water and inserted into the p-GEM T plasmid (Promega) using a T4 DNA Ligase (Promega). Plasmids were transformed into E. coli chemically competent cells (Top10 cells, Invitrogen). Plasmids were then purified, from positive colonies, using QIAprep Spin Miniprep Kit (QIAGEN). Sequencing was performed at the sequencing service at Munich University (Sequencing Server, Biocenter of the LMU Munich, Germany).

Heterologous expression of TcAMT1 and TcAMT2 in yeast

Full-length *TcAMT1* and *TcAMT2* cDNAs were cloned into the yeast expression vector pFL61 under the control of the constitutive yeast phosphoglycerate kinase (PGK) promoter (Minet *et al.*, 1992). The *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* triple mep mutant 31019b (ΔΔΔmep1;2;3; Marini *et al.*, 1997), kindly provided by Nuria Ferrol (CSIC, Granada, Spain), was transformed with the empty pFL61 vector (negative control) or with the pFL61-*TcAMT1* and pFL61-*AMT2* constructs according to Gietz & Schiestl (2007). The coding sequence of *GintAMT1*, characterised in the AM fungus *Rhizophagus irregularis* (previously *Glomus intraradices*; López-Pedrosa *et al.*, 2006), was used as a positive control. Transformed yeasts were selected on solid N-free medium (2% Agar, 0.17% YNB w/o amino acids and ammonium sulphate) supplemented with 3% glucose and 0.1% arginine as the sole N source, buffered to pH 6.1 with 50 mM MES/Tris. For growth assays, yeast transformants were grown in liquid N-free medium plus arginine until OD600 reached 0.6–0.8. Cells were harvested, washed twice, resuspended in water to a final OD600 of 2, and 10 μl drops corresponding to a serial 10-fold dilutions were spotted on solid N-free medium supplemented with different NH4Cl concentrations as the sole N source (0.1, 0.5, 1 and 5 mM). Yeast cells were also

spotted on 1 mM NH₄Cl-supplemented medium buffered at different pH (4.5, 5.5, 6.5, 7.5) with 50

mM Mes/Tris. Pictures of the plates were taken 3 days incubation at 30°C.

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RNA-Seq experiment

- 185 Two different RNASeq experiments were carried out to investigate expression of *T. calospora* and
- S. vomeracea genes, and the experimental setup is illustrated in Figure S1. In the first experiment
- 187 (RNASeq-A), T. calospora transcripts were investigated in FLM and in mycorrhizal S. vomeracea
- protocorms grown on solid oat medium (0.3% milled oats, 1% agar). Three independent libraries
- were prepared from three biological replicates. Preparation of libraries and 2x100bp Illumina
- 190 HiSeq2000 mRNA sequencing (RNA-Seq) was performed at the IGA Technology Services
- facilities (Udine, Italy). The complete series was submitted to GEO (GSE63869).
- 192 For the second experiment (RNASeq-B), T. calospora FLM was grown on Modified Melin-
- Norkrans medium with two different N sources, ammonium and glutamine, each added as 0.49g of
- N. For each condition, three separate libraries were prepared from three biological replicates. To
- investigate fungal and plant gene expression in symbiosis, RNA was also extracted in a parallel
- experiment from symbiotic and asymbiotic S. vomeracea protocorms obtained as described above.
- 197 Independent libraries were prepared from three replicates for each condition. Illumina HiSEq2500
- sequencing (2x150bp) was performed at the Joint Genome Institute (JGI, Walnut Creek, USA). The
- 199 complete series was submitted to GEO (XXXX).
- 200 De novo assembly of S. vomeracea: Filtered fastq files of plant-only samples were used as input for
- 201 de novo assembly of S. vomeracea RNA contigs (Fig. S1). Reads were assembled into consensus
- sequences using Trinity (ver. 2.1.1) (Grabherr et al. 2011). Trinity partitions the sequence data into
- 203 many individual de Bruijn graphs, each representing the transcriptional complexity at a given gene
- or locus, and then processes each graph independently to extract full-length splicing isoforms and to
- tease apart transcripts derived from paralogous genes. Trinity was run with the --normalize reads
- 206 (In-silico normalization routine) and --jaccard_clip (Minimizing fusion transcripts derived from
- 207 gene dense genomes) options. Contigs were annotated following BlastX searches against the
- 208 Arabidopsis thaliana (TAIR) and the Phalaenopsis equestris (Cai et al., 2015) proteome.
- 209 Reads Alignments: Reads were aligned either to the *T. calospora* reference transcripts
- 210 (http://genome.jgi-psf.org) or to the S. vomeracea de novo assembly using CLC Genomics
- 211 Workbench. For mapping, the minimum length fraction was 0.9, the minimum similarity fraction
- 212 0.8 and the maximum number of hits for a read was set to 10. The unique and total mapped reads
- 213 number for each transcript were determined, and then normalized to RPKM (Reads Per Kilobase of

exon model per Million mapped reads). The Baggerly et al.'s Test (Baggerly *et al.*, 2003) implemented in CLC Genomic workbench was applied to the data. In addition, Benjamini & Hochberg multiple-hypothesis testing corrections with False Discovery Rate (FDR) were used. In our analysis, transcripts were considered to be up-regulated when FC≥2.5 and FDR<0.05, and down-regulated when FC≤0.5 and FDR<0.05.

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Real Time quantitative PCR (RT-qPCR) analyses

Total RNA for RT-qPCR was extracted from symbiotic and asymbiotic S. vomeracea protocorms and from T. calospora FLM following the method of Chang et al. (1993). Genomic DNA was removed using the Turbo DNA-free TM reagent (Ambion, Austin, TX, USA), according to the manufacturer's instructions. RNA was then quantified using spectrophotometry (NanoDrop 1000, BioRad) and subjected to reverse-transcription PCR (RT-PCR) to exclude DNA contamination, using the One Step RT-PCR kit (Qiagen), before cDNA synthesis. SuperScriptII Reverse Transcriptase (Invitrogen) was used to synthesize cDNA starting from 500 ng of total RNA for each sample, following the manufacturer's instructions. At the end of the reaction, cDNA was diluted 1:5 for quantitative gene expression analysis (RT-qPCR). Primers for RT-qPCR (Table S1) were designed using Primer3plus (http://www.bioinformatics.nl/cgi-bin/primer3plus/primer3plus.cgi/) and tested for their specificity with Primer Blast (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/tools/primer-blast/). Reactions were carried out in a StepOnePlus™ RT-qPCR System (Applied Biosystems), following the SYBR Green method (Power SYBR® Green PCR Master Mix, Applied Biosystems) as described by Perrone et al. (2012). Thermal cycling conditions were as follows: initial denaturation phase at 95 °C for 10 min, followed by 40 cycles at 95 °C for 15 s and 60 °C for 1 min. Expression of target transcripts was quantified after normalisation to the geometric mean of the endogenous control genes, Elongation Factors ($TcEF-1\alpha$, $SvEF-1\alpha$). Gene expression data were calculated as expression ratios (relative quantity, RQ) to controls (FLM on oat medium). All reactions were performed with three biological and three technical replicates.

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Laser Microdissection (LMD) analysis

Symbiotic and asymbiotic *S. vomeracea* protocorms were collected in RNase-free tubes containing freshly prepared Farmer's fixative (absolute ethanol/glacial acetic acid 3:1). Samples were dehydrated and embedded in paraffin as described in Perez-Tienda *et al.* (2011) with minor modifications. Sections (12 µm) cut with a rotary microtome were transferred onto Leica RNase-

- 246 free PEN foil slides (Leica Microsystem, Inc., Bensheim, Germany), dried at 40 °C in a warming
- plate, stored at 4 °C and used within 1 day. Specific cell types were collected from paraffin sections
- of S. vomeracea symbiotic protocorms with a Leica LMD 6500 system (Leica Microsystem, Inc.),
- as described by Balestrini et al. (2007). Approximately 1000-1500 cells for each type were
- 250 collected, with three independent biological replicates. RNA was extracted from LMD cells
- 251 following the Pico Pure kit (Arcturus Engineering) protocol, with some modifications. In particular,
- DNase treatment was not performed on the kit column, but RNA was treated with Turbo DNA-free
- 253 (Ambion, Austin, TX, USA), according to the manufacturer's instructions.
- The One Step RT-PCR kit (Qiagen, Valencia, CA, USA) was used to amplify transcripts from three
- biological replicates. Samples were incubated for 30 min at 50°C, followed by 15 min of incubation
- at 95°C. Amplification reactions were run for 40 cycles at 94°C for 30 s, 60°C for 30 s, and 72°C
- for 40 s using the same *T. calospora* and *S. vomeracea* specific primers used for RT-qPCR (Table
- S1). DNA contamination in the RNA samples was evaluated with primers for the plant ($SvEF1\alpha$)
- and the fungal ($TcEF1\alpha$) elongation factor by omitting the RT step at 50°C (Fig. S2). PCR products
- were separated on a 1.4% agarose gel.

262 Microscopy

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- Symbiotic S. vomeracea protocorms were fixed in 2.5% (v/v) glutaraldehyde, post-fixed in 1%
- 264 (w/v) osmium tetroxide and embedded in LR White resin (Polysciences, Warrington, PA, USA) as
- described in Perotto et al. (2014). Semi-thin sections (1 µm) were stained with 1% (w/v) toluidine
- blue for morphological observations. Thin sections (0.05-0.07 µm) were post-stained with uranyl
- acetate and lead citrate before being observed under a Philips CM10 transmission electron
- 268 microscope (Philips, Eindhoven, The Netherlands).

Statistical analysis

- 271 Significant differences among treatments (*T. calospora* biomass and RT-qPCR experiments) were
- tested by a one-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) test, and Tukey's HSD test was used for mean
- separation when ANOVA results were significant (P<0.05). Significant differences of pairwise
- 274 comparisons were assessed by Student's *t*-test. The SPSS statistical software package (version 23.0;
- SPSS Inc., Cary, NC, USA) was used to run statistical analyses.

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Results

Growth of Tulasnella calospora on different nitrogen sources

- 281 After 20 days of culture on modified Pachlewski P5 medium containing several defined organic and
- inorganic N sources, the highest fungal biomass (as dry weight) was on glutamine and the lowest
- one on nitrate (Fig. 1). Growth was intermediate on glutamate and ammonium tartrate and slightly
- but significantly lower (P<0.05) on ammonium sulphate (Fig. 1).

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Identification of T. calospora genes involved in the uptake of inorganic N forms

The complete genome sequence of T. calospora (Kohler et al., 2015) is available on the Mycocosm 287 portal (http://genome.jgi.doe.gov/Tulca1/Tulca1.home.html) and was searched for fungal genes 288 potentially involved in the uptake of inorganic N forms. Genes corresponding to nitrate uptake and 289 290 assimilation (nitrate and nitrite reductases) could not be identified in the T. calospora genome. By contrast, three gene models coding for ammonium transporters (AMTs) were identified 291 292 (corresponding to protein IDs 241632, 186135 and 10772). Only the first two, respectively named TcAMT1 and TcAMT2, contained a signal peptide, whereas the third, shorter sequence showed only 293 294 partial homology with AMTs from other fungi and was not investigated further. Searches in the 295 protein sequence databases indicated for TcAMT1 and TcAMT2 a high similarity to AMTs proteins identified in other mycorrhizal basidiomycetes, such as Hebeloma cilindrosporum (76% and 69% 296 identity with TcAMT1 and TcAMT2, respectively) or Laccaria bicolor (74% and 65% identity with 297 TcMT1 and TcAMT2, respectively). Phylogenetic comparison with functionally characterized 298 transporters from other fungi (Perez-Tienda et al., 2011) showed that TcAMT1 clustered with high-299 affinity transporters, whereas *TcAMT2* clustered with low-affinity transporters (Fig. 2). 300

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Heterologous expression of TcAMT1 and TcAMT2 in a yeast mep mutant

To verify that *TcAMT1* and *TcAMT2* encode functional ammonium transporters, the corresponding cDNAs were constitutively expressed in the yeast triple *mep* mutant 31019b (Marini *et al.*, 1997). This strain is unable to grow on medium containing <5 mM NH₄⁺ as the sole N source because is defective in all three endogenous Mep ammonium transporters. Both *TcAMT1* and *TcAMT2* were able to complement the growth defect of the mutant yeast strain in the presence of NH₄⁺ (from 0.1 to 1mM) as the sole N source, demonstrating that they encode functional AMTs (Fig. 3). To assess if external pH affects their function, growth tests were performed at initial pH values ranging from

4.5 to 7.5 on minimal medium containing 1 mM NH₄⁺ as the sole N source. Both transporters

showed pH dependency, and growth promotion was best at acidic pH and strongly decreased at pH

312 7.5 (Fig. 3).

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Expression of TcAMT1 and TcAMT2 on different N sources and in symbiosis

- 315 RNASeq and RT-qPCR experiments were used to investigate, both in the FLM and in symbiosis,
- expression of TcAMT1 and TcAMT2, as well as of other T. calospora genes potentially involved in
- N uptake and metabolism. RNASeq expression data were derived from two separate experiments
- 318 illustrated in (Fig. S1): RNASeq-A was run to identify *T. calospora* genes differentially expressed
- between symbiotic protocorms and free living mycelia (FLM), both obtained on oat meal. Another
- RNASeq experiment (RNASeq-B in Table 1) was run to investigate fungal gene expression patterns
- in FLM grown on two defined N sources, glutamine and ammonium. Gene expression in symbiosis
- was also measured in this second RNASeq experiment, in order to gain some insights on N
- regulation in the protocorm environment.
- In the FLM, both TcAMT genes were expressed at a higher level on glutamine compared to
- ammonium, but the difference was statistically supported (FC<0.5) only for TcAMT2 (RNASeq-B
- in Table 1). The results of RT-qPCR (Fig.4) on a wider range of N sources indicated a low level of
- 327 TcAMT1 and TcAMT2 expression when T. calospora was grown on all N sources, with an increase
- on nitrate only significant for *TcAMT1* (*P*<0.05) (Fig. 4). Of the two *T. calospora* AMT genes, only
- 329 TcAMT2 was significantly upregulated in symbiosis (FC=3.6, P<0.05), whereas expression of
- 330 *TcAMT1* was not significantly different from expression in the FLM (Table 1 and Fig. 4).
- Fungal pelotons are thought to be key structures for nutrient exchanges in the symbiotic orchid
- protocorms (Fig. 5). Specific cell-type expression of the *TcAMT* genes in mycorrhizal *S. vomeracea*
- protocorms was analysed using laser microdissection (LMD), and transcripts corresponding to
- 334 TcAMT1 and TcAMT2 were identified in LMD protocorm cells containing both younger (i.e.
- occupying the whole plant cell) and older (i.e. more condensed) fungal pelotons (Fig. S3).

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Identification of T. calospora genes potentially involved in organic N uptake

- In addition to inorganic nitrogen, the soil litter contains organic N forms such as amino acids, small
- peptides and proteins that can be absorbed by most fungi (Chalot & Brun, 1998). Genes coding for
- membrane proteins potentially involved in amino acid uptake were identified in *T. calospora*.
- 341 Significant upregulation was recorded for only one amino acid transporter/permease gene (named
- 342 TcAAT9) in FLM grown on glutamine (FC=3.8, P<0.05), as compared to ammonium (RNASeq –B

in Table 1). Using ammonium as the reference N-source, most of the other fungal amino acid 343 transporters/permeases were not differentially expressed in the FLM grown on the two N sources, 344 or they were down-regulated on glutamine (FC<0.5, P<0.05), like TcAAT1 and TcAAT11 (Table 1). 345 Expression of some of the T. calospora amino acid transporters/permeases was regulated in 346 symbiosis (RNASeq-A in Table 1). For example, TcAAT1, TcAAT2 and TcAAT6 were significantly 347 upregulated in mycorrhizal protocorms (FC>2.5, P<0.05), as compared with FLM (Table 1). 348 TcAAT1 transcripts were also detected in colonized LMD protocorm cells (Fig.S3). The expression 349 of the other amino acid transporter/permease coding genes identified in the transcriptome was 350 351 unchanged, or even down-regulated in mycorrhizal protocorms (Table 1).

Glutamine synthetase (GS) is an essential enzyme in N assimilation, and two genes coding for

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Nitrogen assimilation and pathways in T. calospora

355 glutamine synthetase (named TcGS1 and TcGS2) were identified in the T. calospora genome. Their expression in FLM did not change on ammonium or on glutamine containing media (Table 1), 356 357 although TcGS1 was more expressed (as raw reads number) and upregulated in symbiosis (FC=2.7; P<0.05). Both TcGS1 and TcGS2 transcripts could be amplified from LMD protocorm cells 358 359 containing fungal pelotons (Fig. S3). The *T. calospora* gene coding for glutamate synthase, the other enzymes taking part to the GS/GOGAT nitrogen assimilation pathway, was also upregulated 360 (FC=6.4, P<0.05) in mycorrhizal protocorms (Table 1). 361 As no information is currently available on the N pathways inside ORM, we investigated in T. 362 calospora the expression of some genes identified in other mycorrhizal fungi. In particular, the urea 363 cycle is a pathway reported for both AM (Tian et al., 2010; Koegel et al., 2015) and ECM fungi 364 (Morel et al., 2005; Wright et al., 2005). Argininosuccinate lyase (ASL) is involved in arginine 365 biosynthesis and is a key enzyme of the anabolic arm of the urea cycle; in the T. calospora FLM, 366 the corresponding gene was found to be slightly induced by glutamine (FC=2.5, P<0.05), as 367 compared to ammonium (Table 1). This gene was induced in symbiosis (FC=2.9, P<0.05). 368 Arginase and urease are two enzymes of the catabolic arm of the urea cycle and are involved in 369 arginine breakdown; in the current model of N pathway in AM, they are thought to release 370 ammonium from arginine in the intraradical hyphae of AM fungi (Tian et al., 2010). The expression 371 of the corresponding T. calospora genes was investigated by RNASeq (Table 1). Only one of the 372 three T. calospora gene models coding for arginase (TcCAR, protein ID 179058) was found in the 373 transcriptome, but it was not differentially expressed on different N sources or in symbiosis. By 374

contrast, TcURE, coding for the T. calospora urease (protein ID 242909), showed a strong and significant down-regulation (FC=0.2, P<0.05) in symbiosis (Table 1).

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(Table 1).

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Serapias vomeracea gene expression in symbiotic and asymbiotic protocorms

379 Since the genome of S. vomeracea is not yet sequenced, a de novo assembly of S. vomeracea transcripts was generated and contigs were annotated by BlastX searches against the A. thaliana 380 (TAIR) and the P. equestris (Cai et al., 2015) proteome. Although de novo assembly was highly 381 fragmented and only included sequences derived from asymbiotic protocorms, it represented a 382 383 useful tool to identify genetic functions that were then validated by RT-qPCR. A list of contigs that, based on their annotation in A. thaliana, may be related to N uptake in S. vomeracea and their level 384 385 of expression in symbiotic and asymbiotic protocorms can be found in Table 2. Two contigs annotated as ammonium transporters, named respectively SvAMT1 and SvAMT2, showed 386 387 upregulation in symbiotic protocorms, but their induction was not statistically significant in the RNASeq experiment (Table 2). RT-qPCR demonstrated that *SvAMT1* was slightly but significantly 388 389 upregulated (FC=2.5, P<0.05) in symbiotic protocorms, whereas SvAMT2 was not regulated (Fig. 6). Phylogenetic comparison with plant AMTs (Guether et al., 2009) confirmed that SvAMT1 and 390 391 SvAMT2 cluster together with other members of the AMT1 and AMT2 subfamilies, respectively 392 (Fig. S4). Several contigs in the S. vomeracea transcriptome matched genes annotated as amino acid 393 transporters/permeases in the A. thaliana and P. equestris genomes. Only contigs manually verified 394 by BlastX and with FDR≤ 0.05 are reported in Table 2. Some of them were validated by RT-qPCR, 395 that confirmed the RNASeq results (Fig. 6). Two contigs coding for amino acid permeases (SvAAP1 396 and SvAAP2) and a contig identified as a putative lysine histidine transporter (SvLHT) with very 397 high identity with LHT1 transporters in Blastp searches, were the most upregulated in symbiotic 398 protocorms (Table 2). Interestingly, the strong upregulation of SvLHT expression in symbiosis was 399 400 mirrored by the upregulation of the biosynthetic pathways for lysine and histidine in the symbiotic fungus (RNASeq-A in Table 1). Histidinol dehydrogenase, the gene coding for the last steps in 401 402 histidine biosynthesis, was significantly upregulated inside mycorrhizal protocorms (FC=5.7, P<0.05). One sequence corresponding to saccharopine dehydrogenase, the final enzyme responsible 403 of lysine biosynthesis (protein ID 241089), was also upregulated (FC=4.4, P<0.05) in symbiosis 404

Because of the role of glutamine synthetase in N assimilation, we looked for the corresponding *S*.

vomeracea contigs in the transcriptome (Table 2). Despite the expression level was not very high,

one contig (SvGS) was significantly upregulated (FC=245, P<0.05) in mycorrhizal protocorms (Table 2), a situation confirmed by RT-qPCR (Fig. 6).

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Discussion

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Nitrogen preference in orchid mycorrhizal fungi

Orchids are peculiar mycorrhizal partners because they acquires all nutrients through the fungal 414 symbiont, including organic C, at least during the mycoheterotrophic life stages (Smith & Read, 415 416 2008; Selosse & Martos, 2014). For terrestrial orchids associated with Tulasnella, Ceratobasidium and Sebacinales, nutrients likely derive from C, N and P forms available in soil because these fungi 417 418 are known saprotrophs that utilize soil nutrient sources for growth and survival (Waterman et al., 2011; Smith & Read, 2008). Nurfadilah et al. (2013) reported different N source preference in 419 420 ORM fungi because isolates in the genus Tulasnella could use ammonium but not nitrate as inorganic N forms, whereas isolates in the genus Ceratobasidium could use both ammonium and 421 422 nitrate. Growth of T. calospora isolate AL13/4D on different N sources confirmed, like other cultivable ORM fungi (Hadley & Ong, 1978; Nurfadilah et al., 2013), a preference for ammonium 423 and organic N sources. The different ability of Tulasnella and Ceratobasidium to use inorganic N 424 forms is likely explained by the fact that the T. calospora genome lacks genes involved in nitrate 425 uptake and reduction, whereas these genes can be found in the recently sequenced genome of 426 Ceratobasidium, available 427 on the Mycocosm portal (http://genome.jgi.doe.gov/CerAGI/CerAGI.home.html). The ability of ORM fungi to use different 428 N sources has important ecological implications because most photoautotrophic orchids host a 429 diverse community of ORM fungi in their roots and protocorms, usually including both *Tulasnella* 430 and Ceratobasidium species (see e.g. Girlanda et al., 2011; Ercole et al., 2015; Jacquemyn et al., 431 2010). Co-occurrence of fungal symbionts able to utilize a wide variety of nutrient sources and to 432 exploit different soil N forms would represent an advantage for the host plant because it could 433 broaden the habitat range as well as the ability of the orchid to grow in a wide range of soil types 434 435 (Nurfadilah et al., 2013).

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Nitrogen pathways in the fungal hyphae

In the current model proposed for AM, the best studied among mycorrhizal types, N taken up by the extraradical fungal mycelium as inorganic (Bago *et al.*, 1996; Govindarajulu *et al.*, 2005) or organic (Hawkins *et al.*, 2000; Cappellazzo *et al.*, 2008; Belmondo *et al.*, 2014) N forms is assimilated into

arginine via the biosynthetic arm of the urea cycle (Bago et al., 2001). Arginine is then transported to the intraradical mycelium, where is broken down via the catabolic arm of the urea cycle to release ammonium (see Bücking & Kafle, 2015). The free ammonium is released into the plantfungus interface, where it is taken up by the host plant thanks to local induction of plant ammonium transporters (Guether et al., 2009; Gomez et al., 2009; Kobae et al., 2010; Koegel et al., 2013). This inorganic N form is then assimilated in the plant cytoplasm thanks to the upregulation of the plant GS/GOGAT pathway (Bücking & Kafle, 2015). The urea cycle seems to be also involved in the N pathway of some ECM fungi, as urea was found to accumulate in the extraradical mycelium together with gene transcripts related to the urea cycle (Morel et al., 2005; Wright et al., 2005). Although solely based on transcriptional evidence, it seems unlikely that T. calospora uses this N pathway to transfer ammonium to the orchid protocorm. Argininosuccinate lyase, a marker gene of arginine biosynthesis upregulated in the extraradical AM fungal mycelium (Koegel et al., 2015), is upregulated in symbiosis in T. calospora. Moreover, the gene coding for urease, the main enzyme involved in arginine breakdown and ammonium release, is upregulated in the intraradical AM fungal mycelium (Koegel et al., 2015) but was strongly down-regulated in T. calospora when inside ORM protocorms. It should be however noted that, also due to the obligate symbiotic nature of AM fungi, gene expression and enzymatic activities in AM fungi were assessed in two different but connected compartments, i.e. the extraradical and intraradical AM fungal mycelium (Gomez et al., 2009; Tian et al., 2010; Koegel et al., 2015), whereas gene expression in T. calospora was measured separately in FLM and symbiotic conditions. The metabolic pathway and the form of N transferred inside the T. calospora hyphae that connect the substrate to the protocorm remains therefore to be understood.

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Nitrogen transfer inside the mycorrhizal orchid protocorm

In the colonised protocorm cells, ORM fungi form coiled hyphae, known as pelotons (Smith & Read, 2008), surrounded by a plant-derived membrane and by an apoplastic plant-fungus interface (Peterson *et al.*, 1996). Similarly to the AM fungal arbuscules, ORM fungal pelotons are ephemeral structures rhythmically digested inside the host cell (Smith & Read, 2008). Based on this observation, Rasmussen (1995) proposed fungal lysis as the main mechanism underlying nutrient transfer in orchid mycorrhiza. Although this mechanism may explain some of the nutrient uptake by the plant (Kuga *et al.*, 2014), other authors (see in Smith & Read, 2008; Cameron *et al.*, 2006, 2008; Kuga *et al.*, 2014) have provided convincing evidence that nutrient transfer takes place across intact membranes, thus requiring membrane transporters.

investigate the plant import systems. Ammonium transfer by AM fungi is suggested by the high and 475 localized upregulation of plant AMTs in arbuscule-containing cells (Guether et al., 2009; Gomez et 476 al., 2009; Kobae et al., 2010; Koegel et al., 2013). In L. japonicus, LjAMT2;2 was the most 477 upregulated gene in mycorrhizal roots (Guether et al., 2009). In our ORM system, by contrast, the 478 importance of ammonium transfer to the plant remains unclear because the two S. vomeracea 479 SvAMT1 and SvAMT2 genes were lowly expressed (as raw reads number) and not strongly 480 upregulated in mycorrhizal protocorms. 481 Some putative S. vomeracea transporters strongly induced in mycorrhizal protocorms suggest 482 transfer of organic N forms to the host plant in ORM. In addition to some amino acid 483 transporters/permeases, S. vomeracea contigs coding for a putative lysine histidine transporter 1 484 (LHT1) were found to be very highly upregulated in mycorrhizal protocorms. Upregulation of 485 486 genes coding for LHT1 in mycorrhizal roots have been also identified by deep-sequencing in the tropical orchid Cymbidium hybridum (Zhao et al., 2014) and in L. japonicus AM roots (Guether et 487 488 al., 2011). LHT1 was first identified in A. thaliana and was demonstrated to be a particularly active and selective lysine and histidine transporter (Chen & Bush, 1997), whereas later studies showed a 489 490 broader amino acid specificity (Hirner et al., 2006). Cameron et al. (2006) suggested amino acid transfer in ORM, based on incorporation of both ¹³C 491 and ¹⁵N in mycorrhizal G. repens after feeding the symbiotic fungus with double-labelled [¹³C-492 ¹⁵N]glycine. In Cameron et al.'s experiment, the ratio of assimilated ¹³C:¹⁵N recovered in the 493 extraradical fungus and ORM roots was significantly lower than the ratio in the source glycine. As 494 discussed by these authors, if cotransport of glycine-derived ¹⁵N and ¹³C occurred as amino acids 495 with a higher N content, such as glutamine, the transamination could account for the change in 496 ¹³C:¹⁵N ratio (Cameron et al., 2006). Our data provide support to this hypothesis, and although 497 specificity of the S. vomeracea LHTs remains to be established, they suggest that the amino acids 498 499 preferentially transferred may be N-enriched amino acids such as lysine or histidine. RNASeq indicated that the biosynthetic pathways of these amino acids are upregulated in T. calospora when 500 501 inside the mycorrhizal protocorm. LHTs can transport quite a broad range of amino acids (Hirner et al., 2006) and a high affinity for proline was demonstrated for LjLHT1.2 in L. japonicus (Guether et 502 al., 2011). However, T. calospora genes involved in proline biosynthesis were not upregulated 503 inside symbiotic protocorms (data not shown). 504 In addition to transporters/permeases for single amino acids, several S. vomeracea contigs identified 505

as putative oligopeptide transporters were very strongly upregulated in symbiotic protocorms (Table

One way to elucidate the N source delivered by the mycorrhizal fungus in symbiosis is to

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2), similarly to what has been also observed in mycorrhizal roots of *Cymbidium hybridum* (Zhao *et al.*, 2014). However, the role of OPTs in N transport is unclear (Lubkowitz, 2011).

Nitrogen uptake by T. calospora inside mycorrhizal protocorm cells

Fungal gene expression in mycorrhizal protocorms suggests that ammonium is available in the apoplastic interface surrounding the pelotons and is actively taken up by the fungus. In particular, the strong upregulation of a low-affinity ammonium transporter (TcAMT2) and of the ammonium scavenging enzymes glutamine synthetase (TcGS1) suggests that ammonium is at high concentrations in the plant-fungus interface and is rapidly assimilated once taken up by the peloton. Fungal transcripts corresponding to high and low affinity AMTs in root colonized cells has been reported in AM (Perez-Tienda *et al.*, 2011; Calabrese *et al.*, 2016), where a role in ammonium retrieval from the apoplastic space surrounding the arbuscule has been suggested. As hypothesized for AM (Guether *et al.*, 2009; Calabrese *et al.*, 2016), the presence of both fungal and plant AMTs in the same colonized ORM cells may lead to a competition between the plant and the fungus for N present in the interfacial apoplast.

In the present study, we have identified for the first time some genetic determinants potentially

involved in N uptake and trasfer in ORM. The T. calospora genome contains two genes coding for

Conclusions

functional ammonium transporters and several amino acid transporters/permeases that allow this fungus to exploit inorganic and organic N sources (but not nitrate). Based on transcriptional evidence, we suggest that T. calospora mainly transfers organic N to the host plant, possibly in the form of N-rich amino acids. The transfer of amino acids with a high N:C ratio may explain the unusually high N content in orchid tissues (Hynson et al., 2013). Recent studies in AM interactions have demonstrated that reciprocal reward strategies guarantee a "fair trade" between the two mycorrhizal partners, where phosphorus and nitrogen from the fungus are exchanged against C from the plant (Kiers et al., 2011; Fellbaum et al., 2012). In particular, increased C supply to the mycorrhizal fungus by the host plant was found to stimulate the uptake and transfer of inorganic and organic N in the fungal partner (Fellbaum et al., 2012). In this respect, orchids raise intriguing questions on the mechanisms controlling the nutrient flux, at least during the mycoheterotrophic stages (Selosse & Rousset, 2011). In fact, ORM fungi provide the plant not only with N (Cameron et al., 2006; Kuga et al., 2014) and P (Cameron et al., 2007) but also with organic C, without an apparent reward (Selosse & Roy, 2009). What drives nutrient flow towards

- the plant in the absence of a bidirectional exchange remains one of the most fascinating questions in
- ORM (Selosse & Rousset, 2011). The identification of the molecular components involved in this
- nutrient flow may provide some tools to start addressing this question.

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- **Author Contribution Statement**
- 553 SP, RB and MG conceived and designed the research. VF and WC conducted all wet lab
- experiments. SV prepared the biological materials and extracted the RNA for the cDNA libraries.
- AK, VS, EL, KB, IVG, FM supervised and/or conducted the transcriptome sequencing and the
- 556 bioinformatic analyses. SP and RB wrote the manuscript. All authors read and approved the
- 557 manuscript.

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Table 1. Expression of *T. calospora* genes potentially involved in N metabolism in free living mycelium (FLM) and in symbiotic mycelium (SYM). In RNASeq-A, *T. calospora* gene expression was compared in FLM and in symbiotic protocorms grown on the same out medium. In RNASeq-B, *T. calospora* gene expression was compared in FLM grown on two different N sources (Am=Ammonium; Gln=Glutamine) and in symbiosis. The experimental setup is illustrated in Fig. S1.

| | | | | | RNA | Seq-A | | RNASeq-B | | | | | | | | | |
|-------------------------|---------------|-------------------|---------|----------------------------------|---------|-------------------|-------------|-----------|----------------|----------------|---------------------|-------------|------------------|-------------|-------------------|-------------|--|
| Functional groups | protein Id | Protein Length | Code | Mean raw read Fold counts Change | | | Mean | raw read | counts | Fold Change | | | | | | | |
| | | | | FLM | SYM | SYM vs FLM Oat | P- value | FLM Am | FLM Gln | SYM | FLM Gln vs Am | P- value | SYM vs FLM Am | P- value | SYM vs FLM Gln | P- value | Putative function |
| Ammonia permeases | 241632 | 489 | TcAMT1 | 339.29 | 764.08 | 2.25 | 0.07128 | 380.84 | 195.35 | 329.02 | 0.51 | 0.044 | 0.86 | 0.6541 | 1.68 | 0.0008 | Ammonium transporter |
| - | 186135 | 537 | TcAMT2 | 200.13 | 724.54 | 3.62 | 0.01724 | 96.58 | 32.56 | 291.56 | 0.34 | 0.0015 | 3.02 | 0.0151 | 8.95 | 0.0002 | Ammonium transporter |
| Amino acid transporters | 29106 | 529 | TcAAT1 | 59.22 | 378.40 | 6.39 | 0.00011 | 101.36 | 29.68 | 281.46 | 0.29 | 0.0248 | | 0.0063 | 9.48 | 4E-07 | Amino acid transporter/permease |
| | 81514 | 516 | TcAAT2 | 18.48 | 80.04 | 4.33 | 0.00147 | 24.10 | 24.45 | 87.63 | 1.01 | 1 | 3.64 | 0.0749 | 3.58 | 0.0594 | Amino acid transporter/permease |
| | 74421 | 238 | TcAAT3 | 366.77 | 581.75 | 1.59 | 0.01275 | 1000.38 | | 374.69 | 0.55 | 0.112 | 0.37 | 0.0331 | 0.68 | 0.0373 | Amino acid transporter/permease |
| | 74154 | 782 | TcAAT4 | 55.72 | 80.85 | 1.45 | 0.00158 | 38.32 | 32.01 | 47.23 | 0.84 | 0.2896 | 1.23 | 0.6802 | 1.48 | 0.2303 | Amino acid transporter/permease |
| | 12255 | 411 | TcAAT5 | 268.67 | 369.13 | 1.37 | 1.1E-06 | 715.87 | 379.32 | 209.47 | 0.53 | 0.001 | 0.29 | 4E-09 | 0.55 | 0.0047 | Amino acid transporter/permease |
| | 24746 | 512 | TcAAT6 | 4.96 | 16.15 | 3.25 | 0.00736 | 4.70 | 5.53 | 12.45 | 1.18 | 0.9355 | 2.65 | 0.4287 | 2.25 | 0.4427 | Amino acid transporter/permease |
| | 150749 | 494 | TcAAT7 | 70.81 | 127.59 | 1.80 | 8.7E-08 | 75.45 | 74.87 | 89.02 | 0.99 | 0.8505 | 1.18 | 0.9024 | 1.19 | 0.785 | Amino acid transporter/permease |
| | 33378 | 416 | TcAAT8 | 23.66 | 40.98 | 1.73 | 0.00466 | 14.49 | 18.88 | 44.84 | 1.30 | 0.5262 | 3.10 | 2E-09 | 2.37 | 4E-07 | Amino acid transporter/permease |
| | 227 | 498 | TcAAT9 | 8.90 | 19.23 | 2.16 | 0.00507 | 3.02 | 11.43 | 8.72 | 3.78 | 0.0152 | 2.88 | 0.5334 | 0.76 | 0.7975 | Amino acid transporter/permease |
| | 31587 | 453 | TcAAT10 | 72.77 | 53.91 | 0.74 | 0.03185 | 15.82 | 9.22 | 17.94 | 0.58 | 0.0624 | 1.13 | 1 | 1.95 | 0.6214 | Amino acid transporter/permease |
| | 228655 | 449 | TcAAT11 | 131.11 | 75.07 | 0.57 | 3.6E-05 | 19.85 | 9.33 | 40.36 | 0.47 | 0.0044 | 2.03 | 0.0782 | 4.32 | 0.0008 | Amino acid transporter/permease |
| | 155949 | 385 | TcAAT12 | 31.08 | 15.91 | 0.51 | 0.00212 | 25.91 | 40.89 | 4.70 | 1.58 | 0.0903 | 0.18 | 0.0006 | 0.12 | 1E-14 | Amino acid transporter/permease |
| | 65140 | 551 | TcAAT13 | 80.22 | 33.39 | 0.42 | 2.1E-08 | 30.31 | 19.83 | 13.40 | 0.65 | 0.1078 | 0.44 | 0.121 | 0.68 | 0.6195 | Amino acid transporter/permease |
| | 23211 | 586 | TcAAT14 | 27.09 | 9.38 | 0.35 | 6.9E-06 | 8.49 | 6.71 | 11.25 | 0.79 | 0.6254 | 1.33 | 0.8797 | 1.68 | 0.6531 | Amino acid transporter/permease |
| | 13898 | 533 | TcAAT15 | 124.13 | 30.88 | 0.25 | 2E-20 | 16.21 | 26.90 | 24.75 | 1.66 | 0.0433 | 1.53 | 0.5243 | 0.92 | 0.9589 | Amino acid transporter/permease |
| Peptide transporters | 231405 | 296 | | 48.14 | 29.64 | 0.62 | 0.01195 | 35.30 | 24.47 | 10.93 | 0.69 | 0.3897 | 0.31 | 0.0683 | 0.45 | 0.1173 | H+/oligopeptide symporter (PTR2) |
| | 70976 | 682 | | 0.35 | 4.38 | 12.59 | 0.00726 | 1.51 | 2.12 | 2.17 | 1.40 | 0.8669 | 1.44 | 0.9484 | 1.03 | 1 | Oligopeptide transporter OPT superfamily |
| | 6542 | 1664 | | 3.66 | 10.93 | 2.98 | 0.00616 | 5.06 | 2.68 | 8.84 | 0.53 | 0.2972 | 1.75 | 0.338 | 3.30 | 0.0134 | Oligopeptide transporter OPT superfamily |
| | 73589 | 726 | | 25.49 | 54.50 | 2.14 | 7E-05 | 15.74 | 16.75 | 41.61 | 1.06 | 1 | 2.64 | 0.0063 | 2.48 | 0.0061 | Oligopeptide transporter OPT superfamily |
| | 21934 | 989 | | 29.03 | 17.51 | 0.60 | 0.01831 | 7.28 | 11.60 | 12.37 | 1.59 | 0.2914 | 1.70 | 0.6 | 1.07 | 1 | Oligopeptide transporter OPT superfamily |
| | 22904 | 1063 | | 34.96 | 18.02 | 0.52 | 0.00047 | 16.11 | 11.56 | 27.46 | 0.72 | 0.2511 | 1.70 | 0.6462 | 2.38 | 0.3989 | Oligopeptide transporter OPT superfamily |
| | 209937 | 674 | | 15.89 | 7.18 | 0.45 | 0.02306 | 10.66 | 7.40 | 5.43 | 0.69 | 0.3437 | 0.51 | 0.3178 | 0.73 | 0.79 | Oligopeptide transporter OPT superfamily |
| | 229195 | 805 | | 12.25 | 4.18 | 0.34 | 0.00366 | 5.10 | 8.46 | 1.25 | 1.66 | 0.3447 | 0.25 | 0.0787 | 0.15 | 0.0018 | Oligopeptide transporter OPT superfamily |
| | 73703 | 710 | | 14.96 | 4.94 | 0.33 | 0.00077 | 7.18 | 7.18 6.93 7.02 | | 0.96 | 0.975 | 0.98 | 1 | 1.01 | 1 | Oligopeptide transporter OPT superfamily |
| | 71241 | 752 | | 13.32 | 4.23 | 0.32 | 0.0013 | 1.83 | 3.58 | 0.86 | 1.96 | 0.4618 | 0.47 | 0.6798 | 0.24 | 0.1831 | Oligopeptide transporter OPT superfamily |
| | 229100 | 507 | | 42.73 | 7.90 | 0.18 | 8.9E-16 | 4.28 | 7.65 | 1.61 | 1.79 | 0.3004 | 0.38 | 0.2249 | 0.21 | 0.0065 | Oligopeptide transporter OPT superfamily |
| | 21935 | 354 | | 58.70 | 6.12 | 0.10 | 3.7E-27 | 2.89 | 6.05 | 15.10 | 2.09 | 0.2275 | 5.22 | 0.3862 | 2.49 | 0.5285 | Oligopeptide transporter OPT superfamily |
| GS/GOGAT assimilation | 241239 | 314 | TcGS1 | 421.07 | 1125.72 | 2.67 | 0.02795 | 281.58 | 222.61 | 714.11 | 0.79 | 0.0012 | 2.54 | 0.0533 | 3.21 | 0.0148 | Glutamine synthetase |
| pathway | 183750 | 482 | TcGS2 | 113.95 | 109.28 | 0.96 | 0.95391 | 52.68 | 75.84 | 83.63 | 1.44 | 0.041 | 1.59 | 0.3923 | 1.10 | 0.8607 | Glutamine synthetase |
| | 242592 | 2163 | TcGOGAT | 16.49 | 104.95 | 6.36 | 0.01265 | 20.47 | 27.70 | 95.05 | 1.35 | 0.4985 | 4.64 | 0 | 3.43 | 2E-12 | Glutamate synthase |
| Urea Cycle | 245827 | 466 | TcASL | 118.15 | 337.12 | 2.85 | 0 | 113.56 | 288.70 | 279.02 | 2.54 | 0.0048 | 2.46 | 6E-08 | 0.97 | 0.9927 | Argininosuccinate lyase |
| | 179058 | 331 | TcCAR | 50.95 | 70.18 | 1.38 | 0.05579 | 61.33 | 142.54 | 66.83 | 2.32 | 0.0007 | 1.09 | 0.9639 | 0.47 | 0.0006 | Arginase |
| | 242909 | 839 | TcURE | 409.82 | 82.77 | 0.20 | 1E-22 | 52.43 | 50.41 | 37.08 | 0.96 | 0.7455 | 0.71 | 0.0172 | 0.74 | 0.072 | Urease |

| Lysine biosynthesis | 241089 | 388 | 51.86 | 225.57 | 4.35 | 1.2E-06 | 134.11 | 353.32 | 307.68 | 2.63 | 0.0036 | 2.29 | 0.0571 | 0.87 | 0.7822 | Saccharopine dehydrogenase | |
|------------------------|--------|-----|-------|--------|------|---------|--------|--------|--------|------|--------|------|--------|------|--------|--|--|
| Histidine biosynthesis | 141375 | 272 | 14.33 | 41.90 | 2.92 | 0.00507 | 19.12 | 35.78 | 54.22 | 1.87 | 0.0683 | 2.84 | 0.0015 | 1.52 | 0.0788 | Phosphoribosylformimino-5-aminoimidazo carboxamide ribonucleotide isomerase | |
| | 77512 | 595 | 10.53 | 70.57 | 6.70 | 0 | 25.44 | 102.64 | 77.08 | 4.03 | 0.0144 | 3.03 | 0.0064 | 0.75 | 0.6169 | Imidazoleglycerol-phosphate synthase | |
| | 242885 | 392 | 49.95 | 181.72 | 3.64 | 0 | 140.77 | 351.91 | 224.23 | 2.50 | 0.0043 | 1.59 | 0.4616 | 0.64 | 0.1164 | Histidinol-phosphate transaminase | |
| | 75590 | 328 | 45.27 | 19.14 | 0.42 | 3.7E-05 | 55.14 | 36.68 | 17.44 | 0.67 | 0.0306 | 0.32 | 0.0011 | 0.48 | 0.2422 | Histidinol-phosphatase | |

4E-05

34.61

89.00

74.79

2.57

0.0278

2.16

0.0289

0.84

0.7631

N.B. Only transcripts with FDR≤0.05 in at least one sample comparison are listed in the table. P-value: FDR p -value correction

858

15.86

90.21

5.69

73648

866

867

868

869 870

871

872

Histidinol dehydrogenase

Table 2. Expression of *S. vomeracea* contigs potentially involved in N metabolism, identified in a *de novo* assembly annotated by BlastX against the *A. thaliana* and *P. equestris* proteome. Expression of *S. vomeracea* contigs in mycorrhizal protocorms (SYM) was compared with expression in non-mycorrhizal protocorms at a similar developmental stage (ASYM).

| Functional groups | Trunity Contig Name | Code | ode Mean raw Fold <i>P</i> -read count Change value | | A. thaliana protein Id | Putative function in A. thaliana | score | e-value | percent identity | P. equestris protein Id | score | e-value | percent identity | | |
|----------------------------|------------------------|------------|---|--------|---------------------------|----------------------------------|-------------|---|---------------------|-------------------------|-------|------------|---------------------|-----------|------|
| | | | ASY | SYM | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ammonia | DN68801_c0_g1_i1 | SvAMT1 | 7.69 | 21.75 | 2.83 | 0.896 | AT1G64780.1 | ammonium transporter 1;2 | 1613 | 0 | 76.7 | PEQU_21149 | 1799 | 0 | 79.6 |
| permeases | DN77095_c1_g2_i1 | SvAMT2 | 1.58 | 8.33 | 5.26 | 0.988 | AT2G38290.1 | ammonium transporter 2 | 193 | 5.00E-18 | 84.1 | PEQU_10528 | 262 | 9.00E-28 | 86.2 |
| | DN71918_c0_g1_i1 | SvAAP1 | 0.35 | 43.97 | 125.27 | 4E-05 | AT1G77380.1 | amino acid permease 3 | 1357 | 0 | 69.8 | PEQU_10464 | 1445 | 0 | 72.5 |
| | DN71918_c0_g2_i1 | SvAAP2 | 0.93 | 49.83 | 53.32 | 2E-12 | AT5G63850.1 | amino acid permease 4 | 504 | 1.00E-60 | 75.2 | PEQU_01321 | 532 | 7.00E-69 | 77.9 |
| Amino acid | DN77539_c1_g1_i1 | | 4.17 | 46.89 | 11.25 | 5E-06 | AT4G21120.1 | amino acid transporter 1 | 1606 | 0 | 71.7 | n.d. | | | |
| transporters/ permeases | DN74856_c3_g6_i1 | 1.67 17.03 | | 17.03 | 10.20 | 7E-06 | AT1G08230.2 | transmembrane amino acid transporter family | 1045 | 7.00E-137 | 55.8 | n.d. | | | |
| | DN63460_c0_g1_i1 | SvLHT | 1.79 | 167.52 | 93.43 | 4E-05 | AT5G40780.2 | lysine histidine transporter 1 | 987 | 9.00E-133 | 87 | n.d. | | | |
| | DN66338_c0_g1_i1 | | 1.68 | 81.17 | 48.21 | 8E-09 | AT5G40780.2 | lysine histidine transporter 1 | 716 | 1.00E-89 | 76.7 | PEQU_15531 | 843 | 5.00E-109 | 87.1 |
| | DN49188_c0_g1_i1 | | 0.03 | 149.13 | 5357.71 | 0.02 | AT5G55930.1 | oligopeptide transporter 1 | 239 | 2.00E-24 | 61.4 | PEQU_16981 | 293 | 6.00E-32 | 72.9 |
| | DN32096_c0_g1_i1 | | 0.16 | 187.93 | 1176.92 | 0.002 | AT5G55930.1 | oligopeptide transporter 1 | 224 | 3.00E-22 | 57.3 | | | | |
| | DN1177_c0_g1_i1 | | 0.85 | 381.43 | 451.23 | 0.011 | AT5G55930.1 | oligopeptide transporter 1 | 391 | 1.00E-43 | 60.5 | PEQU_41210 | 525 | 9.00E-68 | 72 |
| Oligope ptide | DN61732_c1_g1_i1 | | 0.11 | 35.83 | 328.50 | 2E-07 | AT5G55930.1 | oligopeptide transporter 1 | 551 | 3.00E-66 | 66.2 | PEQU_29359 | 730 | 2.00E-92 | 90.5 |
| transporters | DN61732_c1_g2_i1 | | 0.02 | 29.43 | 1324.27 | 2E-17 | AT4G26590.1 | oligopeptide transporter 5 | 283 | 5.00E-30 | 56 | PEQU_40777 | 432 | 3.00E-55 | 89 |
| | DN48315_c0_g1_i1 | | 0.37 | 279.21 | 750.97 | 2E-10 | AT4G26590.1 | oligopeptide transporter 5 | 807 | 8.00E-101 | 58 | PEQU_16981 | 1006 | 9.00E-131 | 71.3 |
| | DN78718_c1_g1_i2 | | 3.69 | 36.53 | 9.90 | 2E-11 | AT4G26590.1 | oligopeptide transporter 5 | 2138 | 0 | 59.8 | n.d. | | | |
| | DN69777_c0_g1_i2 | | 0.58 | 11.01 | 19.02 | 3E-05 | AT3G54140.1 | peptide transporter 1 | 2148 | 0 | 71.2 | n.d. | | | |
| | DN75842_c0_g4_i1 | | 9.36 | 41.38 | 4.42 | 5E-04 | AT5G46050.1 | peptide transporter 3 | 330 | 4.00E-35 | 56.3 | PEQU_03726 | 441 | 1.00E-50 | 73.2 |
| GS/GOGAT pathway | DN97391_c0_g1_i1 | SvGS | 0.12 | 28.27 | 244.52 | 0.032 | AT5G35630.3 | glutamine synthetase 2 | 925 | 3.00E-121 | 60.4 | n.d. | | | |

n.d: No match found

874

P-value: FDR p-value correction

875 Figures legends

876

- Figure 1. Growth of *Tulasnella calospora* on different N sources. Biomass are expressed as mean
- values of three replicates \pm SD. ANOVA was performed comparing all five media, and values with
- different letters above the bars differ significantly following Tukey's HSD test (P<0.05).

880

- 881 Figure 2. Phylogenetic tree of fungal ammonium transporters, based on amino acid deduced
- 882 sequences. The sequences were aligned using Muscle and a tree was constructed using the
- maximum likelihood method. Numbers indicate bootstrap values, and are given only for ≥ 50 %.
- Bootstrap tests were performed using 1,000 replicates. Sequences were obtained from the GenBank
- database with the following accession numbers: Glomus intraradices (GintAMT1: CAI54276;
- 886 GintAMT2: CAX32490), Hebeloma cylindrosporum (HcAMT1: AAM21926, HcAMT2:
- 887 AAK82416, HcAMT3: AAK82417), Tuber borchii (TbAMT1: AAL11032), Ustilago maydis
- 888 (UmMEP1: AAL08424, UmMEP2: AAO42611), Saccharomyces cerevisiae (ScMEP1: P40260,
- 889 ScMEP2: P41948, ScMEP3: P53390), Schizosaccharomyces pombe (SpAMT1: NP_588424,
- 890 SpAMT2: NP_593462), Aspergillus nidulans (AnMEAA: AAL73117, AnMEPA: AAL73118),
- 891 Fusarium fujikuroi (FfMEPA: CAJ44733, FfMEPB: CAJ44734, FbMEPC: CAK55531),
- 892 Cryptococcus neoformans (CnAMT1: XP_566614, CnAMT2: XP_567361), Synechocystis sp.
- 893 (NP_442561). Arrows point to the *T. calospora* sequences TcAMT1 and TcAMT2.

894

- 895 **Figure 3.** Complementation of *mep* yeast mutant with *TcAMT1* and *TcAMT2*. The ammonium
- uptake-deficient yeast 31019b ($\Delta\Delta\Delta$ mep1;2;3) was transformed with TcAMT1, TcAMT2, the
- positive control GintAMT and the empty plasmid pFL61 as negative control. Serial dilutions of the
- transformants were grown on ammonium as sole N source at different concentrations and pH or on
- arginine as positive growth control.

- 901 Figure 4. Quantification by RT-qPCR of TcAMT1 and TcAMT2 expression in T. calospora FLM
- 902 grown on different organic and inorganic N sources and in symbiosis. Different lowercase letters
- above the bars denote significant differences by two-tailed Student's t test (P < 0.05).
- 904 **Figure 5.** Mycorrhizal protocorms of *S. vomeracea* 30 days after sowing with *T. calospora*. A.
- 905 Semi-thin section of a resin-embedded protocorm, showing the basal mycorrhizal region. Colonized
- cells cell containing well-developed and collapsed (asterisks) fungal pelotons (coils) are visible. Bar

- $= 80 \mu m$. B. At the electron microscope level, an interface space, based on membrane proliferation
- 908 (arrows), is evident around an intracellular hypha. Bar = $0.25 \mu m$. C. A colonized cell containing
- 909 collapsed hyphae. cc, collapsed coil. Bar = $0.35 \mu m$
- 910 Figure 6. RT-qPCR assessing expression of several Serapias vomeracea contigs in symbiotic and
- asymbiotic protocorms. Different lowercase letters above the bars denote significant differences by
- 912 two-tailed Student's t test (P<0.05).

914

List of supplementary material

916

915

917 **Table S1.** List of primers used in this study

918

- 919 Figure S1. Diagram showing the experimental setup of the two RNASeq experiments that were
- 920 used to identify fungal and plant genes involved in N uptake and metabolism

921

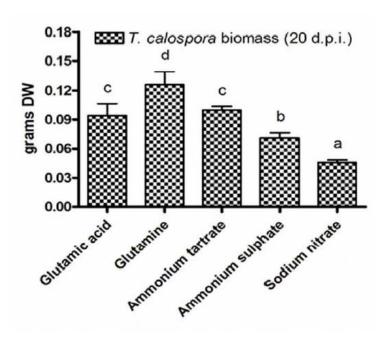
- Figure S2. Control experiment to verify the absence of DNA in the RNA extracted from LMD cells
- and amplified by RT-PCR. C, cells containing coils occupying the whole plant cell; CC, cells with
- older more condensed coils; NM, non-colonized cells; -, water. The signs + and indicate presence
- or absence of the RT step before PCR amplification with primers for the housekeeping genes
- 926 coding for the plant $(SvEF1\alpha)$ and the fungal $(TcEF1\alpha)$ elongation factor.

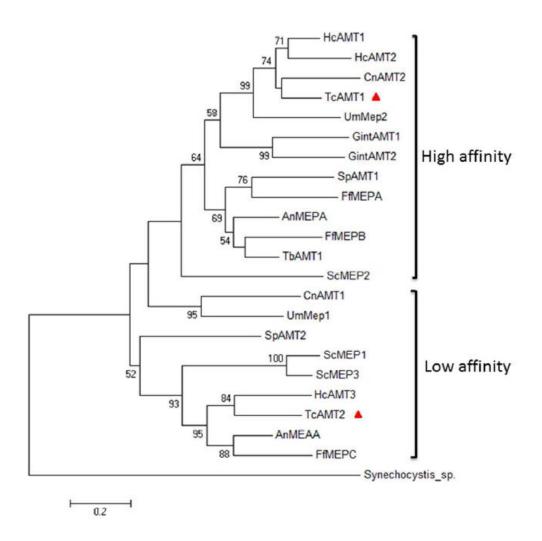
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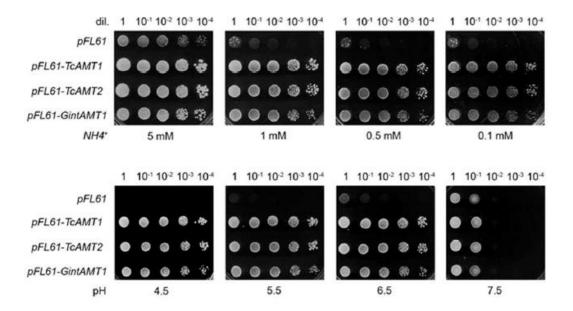
- 928 Figure S3. One-step RT-PCR analysis of T. calospora genes in three populations of laser
- microdissected (LMD) cells: C, cells containing coils occupying the whole plant cell; CC, cells with
- older and more condensed coils; NM, non-colonized cells; -, water. Fungal transcripts coding for
- 931 transporters and enzymes involved in N uptake and metabolism were amplified with the primers
- 932 listed in Table S1 and separated by agarose gel electrophoresis.

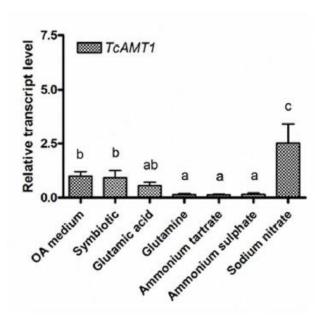
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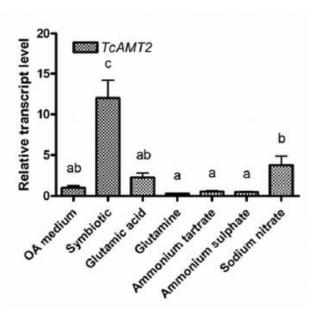
- 934 Figure S4. Phylogenetic tree of plant ammonium transporters, based on amino acid deduced
- 935 sequences. The sequences were aligned using Muscle and the unrooted tree was constructed using
- 936 the maximum likelihood method. Bootstrap tests were performed using 1,000 replicates. Numbers
- 937 indicate bootstrap values, and are given only for ≥50 %. Arrows point to the S. vomeracea
- 938 sequences SvAMT1 and SvAMT2.

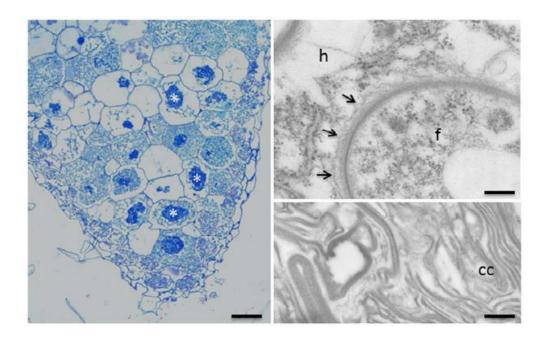












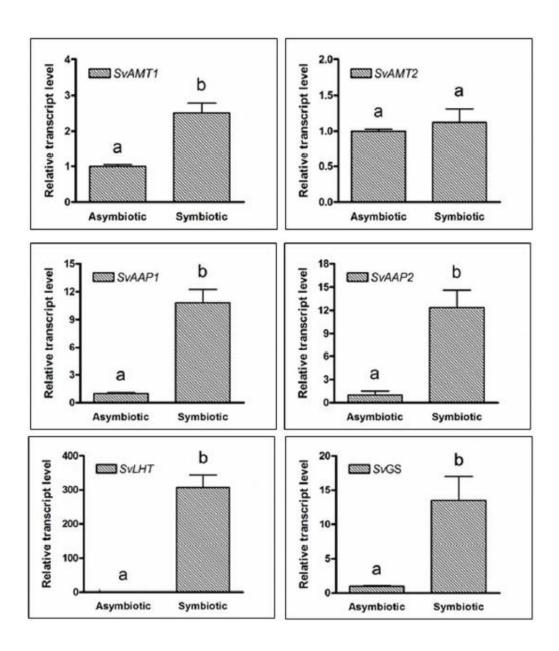


Figure 6