Title

Genetic and transcriptomic dissection of nitrate-independent function of Arabidopsis

NRT1.1/NPF6.3/CHL1 under high ammonium condition

Authors and addresses

Takushi Hachiya[a,b,†], Nobue Makita[b], Liên Bach[c], Alain Gojon[c], Tsuyoshi Nakagawa[a],

and Hitoshi Sakakibara[b,d]

[a]Department of Molecular and Functional Genomics, Interdisciplinary Center for

Science Research, Shimane University, Matsue 690-8504, Japan

[b]RIKEN Center for Sustainable Resource Science, Tsurumi, Yokohama 230-0045,

Japan

[c]Institut des Sciences des Plantes de Montpellier (IPSiM), Université de Montpellier,

Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique (CNRS), Institut National de Recherche

pour l'Agriculture, l'Alimentation, et l'Environnement (INRAE), Institut Agro,

Montpellier, France

[d]Graduate School of Bioagricultural Sciences, Nagoya University, Nagoya 464-8601,

Japan

Corresponding Author

Takushi Hachiya

Department of Molecular and Functional Genomics, Interdisciplinary Center for

Science Research, Shimane University, Matsue 690-8504, Japan

Email: takushi.hachiya@life.shimane-u.ac.jp,

Tel: +81-852-32-6288, FAX: +81-852-32-6109

Abstract

The Arabidopsis nitrate transceptor NRT1.1/NPF6.3/CHL1 regulates physiological responses to nitrate. Several studies have reported that *Arabidopsis* lacking NRT1.1 shows enhanced shoot growth under toxic levels of ammonium without nitrate, suggesting a nitrate-independent function for NRT1.1. To further investigate this nitrate-independent function and its impact on ammonium tolerance, we conducted genetic analysis, tissue-specific expression analysis, and transcriptome analysis using various NRT1.1-related lines. Transgenic plants expressing either nonphosphomimic or phosphomimic mutants of NRT1.1 exhibited similar ammonium tolerance to the wild-type. The *chl1-9* mutant, in which NRT1.1 with the P492L substitution is localized intracellularly rather than at the plasma membrane and fails to transport nitrate, showed improved ammonium tolerance. Confocal imaging revealed that the NRT1.1-GFP signal was detected in the plasma membrane of various tissues, including cotyledon pavement cells, hypocotyl epidermal cells, mesophyll cells, root cap cells, and epidermal cells near root tips. In early seedlings, the absence of functional NRT1.1 altered the expression of genes associated with aliphatic glucosinolate biosynthesis, ethylene signaling, and low pH stress. Genes predicted to encode products localized to the extracellular space were enriched among those differentially expressed due to *NRT1.1* deficiency. Our data suggest that in the absence of nitrate, plasma membrane-targeted NRT1.1 reduces ammonium tolerance irrespective of its phosphorylation state with alterations of gene expression associated with stress and senescence.

Key words: *Arabidopsis thaliana,* ammonium toxicity, CHL1, NPF6.3, NRT1.1

1. Introduction

Land plants primarily rely on soil nitrate as their main nitrogen (N) source. Nitrate serves not just as a substrate for N assimilation but also as a vital signaling molecule, regulating genes related to nitrogen acquisition and root system development (Wang et al. 2004; Okamoto et al. 2019). These nitrate responses require molecular components to perceive nitrate and to drive nitrate-dependent signaling. The Arabidopsis nitrate transporter NRT1.1/NPF6.3/CHL1 plays a crucial role as a nitrate sensor, orchestrating various plant responses to nitrate supply (Remans et al. 2006; Ho et al. 2009; Bouguyon et al. 2015). Downstream of NRT1.1, calcium ions serve as secondary messengers, stimulating the expression of nitrate-responsive genes, including the major high-affinity nitrate transport gene *NRT2.1* (Riveras et al. 2015). Recent findings indicate that the subgroup III protein kinase CPK perceives calcium signals and phosphorylates the transcription factor NLP7 (Liu et al. 2017), which directly binds intracellular nitrate, regulating nitrate-dependent gene expression (Liu et al. 2022). Furthermore, NRT1.1 enhances the expression of the transcription factor *ANR1* and the *AFB3* auxin receptor gene in roots, promoting lateral root development and elongation in response to nitrate supply (Remans et al. 2006; Vidal et al. 2010). The magnitude of these NRT1.1-dependent responses is finely tuned by the phosphorylation status of NRT1.1 at the T101 residue (Ho et al. 2009; Bouguyon et al. 2015).

In addition to its nitrate-dependent functions, NRT1.1 exhibits significant roles in the absence of nitrate. It aids the basipetal transport of auxin out of the lateral root primordia when nitrate is absent (Krouk et al. 2010). Exogenous nitrate inhibits auxin

transport, leading to auxin accumulation in primordia and the stimulation of lateral root

emergence in nitrate-rich patches (Mounier et al. 2014). Walch-Liu and Forde (2008)

observed that exogenous glutamate inhibits primary root elongation at the root tip, a

process antagonized by nitrate presence, depending on phosphorylated NRT1.1.

Intriguingly, overexpression of nonphosphomimetic NRT1.1 (T101A) heightens

glutamate sensitivity in primary roots even without nitrate. Furthermore, studies

including ours have demonstrated that the absence of functional NRT1.1 significantly

alleviates growth suppression and chlorosis under toxic ammonium levels as the sole N

source (Hachiya et al. 2011; Jian et al. 2018; Liu et al. 2020). NRT1.1 promotes

ammonium   accumulation,   altering   ammonium   metabolism   and   subsequently

upregulating ethylene signaling, resulting in ammonium toxicity (Jian et al. 2018).

Moreover, under high ammonium and NaCl concentrations without nitrate, NRT1.1

transports chloride, leading to chloride accumulation, especially in roots (Liu et al.

2020). This chloride accumulation contributes to ammonium toxicity under high salt

conditions.

The aforementioned observations clearly indicate a nitrate-independent function for

NRT1.1, although the precise mechanism remains elusive. This study aimed to

comprehensively uncover the primary nitrate-independent function of NRT1.1 in

ammonium tolerance. Employing various NRT1.1-related lines, we conducted genetic

analyses, tissue-specific expression studies using quantitative PCR (qPCR) and confocal

microscopy,   and   transcriptome   analyses.   Our   findings   reveal   that   (i)   plasma

membrane-targeted   NRT1.1   diminishes   ammonium   tolerance   regardless   of   its

phosphorylation state, (ii) NRT1.1 is expressed across most seedling tissues, and (iii)

NRT1.1 primarily modulates the expression of genes associated with aliphatic

glucosinolate (GSL) biosynthesis, ethylene signaling, and low pH stress.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Plant materials and growth conditions

In this study, *A. thaliana* was used. The T-DNA insertion mutants *nrt1.1* (Hachiya et al.

2011), *cipk23-4* (Ho et al. 2009), and the gamma ray-mutagenized mutant c*hl1-5* (Tsay

et al. 1993a) in the Col background were obtained from the European Arabidopsis Stock

Center (NASC). The gamma-ray-mutagenized mutant *chl1-6* in the L*er* background

(Tsay et al. 1993b) was sourced from the Arabidopsis Biological Resource Center. The

transposon tag line *pst16286* in the Nossen background (Ito et al. 2002; Kuromori et al.

2004) was purchased from the RIKEN Bioresource Center (BRC). The lines harboring

the estradiol-inducible *NRT1.1-mCherry* and the *pNRT1.1:NRT1.1-GFPloop* in the

chl1-5 background were used in previous studies (Bouguyon et al. 2015; Bouguyon et al.

2016). The *chl1-9* in the Col background and the *T101D* and *T101A* lines in the *chl1-5*

background (Ho et al. 2009) were provided by Dr. Yi-Fang Tsay (Academia Sinica).

The seeds underwent surface sterilization and were placed in plastic Petri dishes

(diameter: 90 mm; depth: 20 mm; Iwaki, Tokyo, Japan) with approximately 30 mL of

N-modified Murashige and Skoog medium. The medium included 4.7 mM MES-KOH

(pH 5.7), 2% (w/v) sucrose, and 0.25% (w/v) gellan gum (Wako, Osaka, Japan). Two

different N and K sources were used: 10 mM KNO_3 (10 mM NO_3^- condition) or 5 mM

$(NH_4)_2SO_4$ with 10 mM KCl (10 mM NH_4^+ condition). After being kept in the dark at

4 °C for 3 d, the plants were grown horizontally under a photosynthetic photon flux

density of 100–130 μmol m^{-2} s^{-1} (16 h light/8 h dark cycle) at 23 °C. For transfer

experiments, surface-sterilized seeds were sown in larger plastic Petri dishes (length:

140 mm; width: 100 mm; depth: 20 mm; Eiken Chemical Co. Ltd., Taito-ku, Tokyo,

Japan) containing 50 mL of half-strength modified Murashige and Skoog medium with

2.5 mM ammonium as the sole N source at pH 6.7 (Okamoto et al. 2019). After 3 days

in the dark at 4 °C, the plants were grown vertically for 5 d under a photosynthetic

photon flux density of 100–130 μmol m^{-2} s^{-1} (16 h light/8 h dark cycle) at 23 °C. The

plants were then transferred to different N conditions for subsequent experiments.

Further details regarding plantlet cultivation are provided in the Results section and

figure legends.

2.2. Extraction of RNA

The seedlings were harvested and promptly frozen in liquid N_2, then stored at −80 °C

until needed. The frozen samples were ground using TissueLyser II (QIAGEN) with

zirconia beads (5 mm diameter). Total RNA was extracted using the RNeasy Plant Mini

Kit (Qiagen) and treated with on-column DNase digestion following the manufacturer's

instructions.

2.3. RT-qPCR

Reverse transcription (RT) was conducted using ReverTra Ace qPCR RT Master Mix

with gDNA Remover (Toyobo Co. Ltd., Tokyo, Japan) following the manufacturer's

guidelines. The resulting cDNA was diluted tenfold with distilled water for quantitative

PCR (qPCR). Transcript levels were assessed using a StepOnePlus Real-Time PCR

System (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). In the presence of 10-µL

KAPA SYBR FAST qPCR Kit (Nippon Genetics Co. Ltd., Tokyo, Japan), 0.4 µL

specific primers (0.2 µM final concentration), and 7.2 µL sterile water, 2 µL of obtained

cDNA was amplified. *ACTIN3* (Hachiya et al. 2021) served as internal standards.

Standard curves were generated using plasmid DNA containing target cDNAs or total

cDNAs. Refer to Supplementary Table 1 for primer sequences.

2.4. Microarray analysis

Microarray analysis was conducted following the protocol outlined in Hachiya et al.

(2021). RNA quality was evaluated using an Agilent 2100 bioanalyzer (Agilent

Technologies). RNA amplification, labeling, hybridization, and scanning were

performed using the 3′ IVT Express Kit (Affymetrix) and GeneChip Arabidopsis

Genome ATH1 Array (Affymetrix) as per the manufacturer's instructions. Data from

the microarray chips were normalized using the Microarray Suite 5.0 (MAS5) method

(Affymetrix). Transcripts labeled as "absent" or "marginal" were excluded from

subsequent quantitative analysis. The raw microarray data used in this study are

accessible in the ArrayExpress database at EMBL-EBI under accession number

E-MTAB-13395.

2.5. Observation of cotyledon

Bright-field imaging of *Arabidopsis* early seedling cotyledons was conducted using an

all-in-one fluorescence microscope (BZ-X710, KEYENCE, Japan) equipped with a

Nikon 40× objective (CFI Plan Apo λ 40×/0.95). To create a high-resolution and

wide-area continuous image of the cotyledon, individual images were seamlessly

merged using the image joint function of the BZ analyzer software (KEYENCE).

2.6. Observation of fluorescent signal

Confocal imaging of NRT1.1-GFPloop and propidium iodide (PI) was performed using

a Leica SP5 Confocal Microscope (Leica Microsystems). Roots were stained with a 10

$\mu g\ mL^{-1}$ PI solution to outline cell shapes. Mesophyll protoplasts were prepared from

cotyledons of 12-day-old plants (3 days post-transfer from 9-day-old plants grown

under 10 mM nitrate) following the method of Endo et al. (2016). NRT1.1-GFPLoop

and PI were excited with 488 nm and 543 nm lasers, and emissions were detected from

500 to 530 nm and 590 to 660 nm, respectively, using a Leica 25× objective (HCX

IRAPO L 25×/0.95 WATER).

2.7. Statistical analysis

The unpaired two-tailed Welch's *t*-test and the Tukey–Kramer multiple comparison test

were conducted using R software v.2.15.3. Additionally, the two-tailed ratio paired

t-test was performed using GraphPad Prism software v.9.3.1, assuming a Gaussian

distribution.

3. Results

3.1. NRT1.1 targeted to the plasma membrane reduces ammonium tolerance almost

regardless of its phosphorylation status

In our previous study, *NRT1.1*-deficient mutants in the Col background exhibited

enhanced shoot growth under 10 mM ammonium conditions (Hachiya et al. 2011). In

this study, we consistently observed larger shoot fresh weights (FWs) in

NRT1.1-deficient mutants from three Arabidopsis accessions (Col; *chl1-5*, *nrt1.1*, *Ler*;

chl1-6, and Nossen; *pst16286*) compared to wild-type plants under 10 mM ammonium.

Conversely, under 10 mM nitrate conditions, the FWs were lower in these mutants

(Figure 1a, b). Intriguingly, the induction of NRT1.1-mCherry in the *chl1-5* background,

controlled by β-estradiol (Bouguyon et al. 2015), significantly reduced shoot FW under

ammonium, whereas β-estradiol-treated Col plants did not show a change in FW

(Figure 1c). Under nitrate, shoot growth was restored by the induction of

NRT1.1-mCherry, confirming its functionality (Figure 1d). These findings underscore

the significant role of Arabidopsis NRT1.1 in ammonium tolerance.

NRT1.1 exhibits diverse molecular functions, including nitrate uptake, nitrate

sensing/signaling, and auxin transport (Ho et al. 2009; Krouk et al. 2010; Bouguyon et

al. 2015; Zhang et al. 2019). Modifications at specific residues in the protein alter these

functions. In the *chl1-9* mutant with the P492L substitution, NRT1.1 primarily localizes

inside the cell, impairing nitrate and auxin transport without affecting *NRT2.1* induction

by nitrate (Ho et al. 2009; Bouguyon et al. 2015). Transgenic plants expressing

nonphosphomimic (T101A) or phosphomimic (T101D) mutants of NRT1.1 show

distinct nitrate-dependent responses and auxin transport abilities. When grown on 10

mM ammonium, the *chl1-9* mutant exhibited markedly improved ammonium tolerance

compared to the wild-type, displaying larger FWs and higher chlorophyll concentrations

(Figure 1e–g). Except for slightly enhanced shoot growth in T101A compared to Col,

both T101 mutants displayed ammonium toxicity similar to Col. Moreover, *cipk23-4*,

lacking CIPK23 that phosphorylates NRT1.1 at the T101 residue (Ho et al. 2009), did

not exhibit enhanced shoot growth under ammonium or nitrate conditions (Figure 1h, i).

These results imply that NRT1.1-induced ammonium toxicity is nearly independent of

its phosphorylation at the T101 residue but requires correct plasma membrane targeting

dependent on the P492 residue.

To determine the developmental stages at which NRT1.1 affects ammonium

tolerance, we monitored the growth progression of Col and *chl1-5* plants under 10 mM

ammonium. In 3-day-old seedlings, there were no significant difference in FW, and

their appearances were similar (Figure 1j, l). By day 5, *chl1-5* seedlings exhibited larger

shoot and root FWs, and their cotyledons were more expanded and greener compared to

Col (Figure 1k, l, and S1a). Additionally, at this stage, *chl1-5* and *nrt1.1* seedlings had

significantly higher chlorophyll concentrations than Col (Figure S1b). As plants aged

between 8 and 11-days, the impact of *NRT1.1* deficiency on shoot growth intensified

compared to root growth (Figure 1k). These findings highlight that NRT1.1's influence

on ammonium tolerance initiates at the early stages of seedling growth.

3.2. A significant expression of NRT1.1 is detectable both in shoots and roots of

ammonium-grown seedlings

To decipher how NRT1.1 impacts ammonium tolerance, we examined *NRT1.1*

expression patterns in Col plants grown under 10 mM ammonium or 10 mM nitrate. In

3-day-old Col seedlings, *NRT1.1* expression showed little disparity between ammonium

and nitrate conditions (Figure 2a). However, in 5-, 8-, and 11-day-old plants, shoot

expression of *NRT1.1* remained consistently higher under 10 mM ammonium compared

to 10 mM nitrate, whereas in the roots, this trend reversed (Figure 2b). Consequently,

the disparity in *NRT1.1* transcript levels between shoot and root was smaller under

ammonium than nitrate. Furthermore, to investigate NRT1.1 protein expression under

ammonium conditions, we utilized the *pNRT1.1:NRT1.1-GFPloop* line for confocal

observation (Bouguyon et al. 2016). Clear GFP signals were localized in the plasma

membrane of various cells, including pavement cells of cotyledons (Figure 2c, i),

epidermal cells of hypocotyl (Figure 2d), mesophyll protoplasts (Figure 2e), root cap

cells, and epidermal cells near root tips (Figure 2f, g). Intriguingly, dotted GFP signals

were frequently detected in intracellular regions of pavement cells and root tips (Figure

2h, j). These expression analyses indicate that NRT1.1 might function in diverse cells

and tissues under high ammonium conditions.

3.3. Overview of genome-wide transcriptional responses caused by NRT1.1 deficiency

To unravel the primary mechanisms by which NRT1.1 controls genome-wide gene

expression under ammonium conditions, we conducted independent microarray

experiments using 3-day-old (72 h) and 5-day-old (120 h) seedlings of Col, *chl1-5*, and

nrt1.1. In 3- and 5-day-old seedlings, we identified 20 and 176 transcripts, respectively,

in which expression was at least two-fold higher in both *NRT1.1*-deficient mutants

compared to Col (Table S2). Conversely, 13 and 80 transcripts in the mutants exhibited

levels less than or equal to half of those in Col (Table S2). To capture more

NRT1.1-regulated genes in the 3-day-old seedlings, we re-explored differentially

expressed genes (DEG) at a 1.5-fold threshold. This analysis identified 120 upregulated

genes and 71 downregulated genes in the mutants relative to Col (Table S3). RT-qPCR

analysis of 12 DEGs confirmed that the results were consistent with those of the

microarray (Figure S2 and Tables S2, 3). For subsequent analyses, we concentrated on

DEGs at a 1.5-fold threshold for 3-day-old seedlings and a 2-fold threshold for

5-day-old seedlings. A Venn diagram revealed that only 26 DEGs were common to both

3-day-old and 5-day-old seedlings (Figure 3a and Table S4). Enrichment analysis

conducted using Metascape (Zhou et al. 2019) identified a significant enrichment of the

term "response to extracellular stimulus" (Figure S3a). Additionally, the SUBA

localization predictor (Hooper et al. 2017) indicated that the translational products

corresponding to 9 out of the 26 DEGs were likely localized in the extracellular space

(Figure S3b). These findings suggest that, under ammonium conditions, NRT1.1 could

influence extracellular events.

In 3-day-old seedlings, the absence of NRT1.1 led to significant gene expression

changes without altering seedling growth (Figure 1e, 3a). Thus, we focused on the

transcriptome profile of 3-day-old seedlings to uncover the primary functions of

NRT1.1 under ammonium conditions. Gene cloud analysis (Krouk et al. 2015) revealed

a 168-fold enrichment in "methionine-derived" and a 120-fold enrichment in

"4-reductase" genes in the upregulated genes of 3-day-old *NRT1.1*-deficient mutants

(Figure 3b). "Methionine-derived" genes included *At3g19710* (*BCAT4*), *At4g12030*

(*BAT5*), and *At5g23010* (*MAM1*), essential for aliphatic glucosinolate biosynthesis. The

"4-reductase" genes included *At2g47460* (*MYB12*), *At4g09820* (*bHLH042*), and

At5g42800 (*DFR*), contributing to flavonoid biosynthesis. Metascape analysis also

overrepresented terms like "glucosinolate biosynthesis from methionine" and

"flavonoid metabolic process" for upregulated genes in the mutants (Figure 3c).

Downregulated genes in the 3-day-old mutants enriched terms like "interpro-ipr008263

(glycoside hydrolase, family 16, active site)" from genes encoding cell wall-modifying

enzymes like xyloglucan endotransglucosylase/hydrolase (*At4g25810* (*XTH23*),

At4g14130 (*XTH15*), and *At5g57560* (*XTH22*)) (Figure 3b). Intriguingly, DEGs in the

3-day-old mutants often overrepresented terms related to the extracellular space, such as

"plant-type cell wall loosening," "secretory vesicle," "apoplast," "xyloglucan metabolic

process," "plant-type cell wall," and "xyloglucan:xyloglucosyl transferase activity"

(Figure 3c, d).

In 5-day-old seedlings, terms related to photosynthesis were predominant among

upregulated genes in response to *NRT1.1* deficiency (Figure S4a, b). This aligns with

the observed greener and more expanded cotyledons and higher chlorophyll

concentrations in *NRT1.1*-deficient seedlings compared to Col (Figure 1m and S1a, b).

Conversely, downregulated genes were associated with terms related to abiotic and

biotic stresses (Figure S4c). MapMan analysis clearly illustrated the upregulation of

genes encoding components for light reactions, chlorophyll biosynthesis, and the

Calvin–Benson cycle in 5-day-old *NRT1.1*-deficient mutants (Figure S5b). These

findings indicate an enhancement of photoautotrophic growth with reduced stress

response in the 5-day-old mutants.

3.4. Effects of NRT1.1 deficiency on expression of genes for glucosinolate

biosynthesis and genes responsive to ACC, NaCl, H_2O_2, IAA, and low pH under

ammonium condition

Initially, we concentrated on the genes involved in the biosynthesis of aliphatic GSL

and indole GSL, based on the gene list from Harun et al. (2020). This focus was due to

the enrichment of terms such as "glucosinolate biosynthesis from methionine,"

"methionine-derived," and "glucosinolate biosynthesis" among the upregulated genes in

3- and 5-day-old *NRT1.1*-deficient mutants (Figures 3b, c, and S5b). The deficiency of

NRT1.1 significantly upregulated the aliphatic GSL biosynthesis genes and their

positive regulator genes, *AT5G61420* (*MYB28*) and *AT5G07690* (*MYB29*), while it had

little effect on the expression of indole GSL biosynthesis genes (Figure 4a and Tables

S2, 3, and 5).

Our enrichment analysis revealed that the GO term "cellular response to ethylene

stimulus" was overrepresented among the downregulated genes in 3-day-old

NRT1.1-deficient mutants (Figure 3d). This aligns with a previous study that reported a

down-regulation of genes involved in ethylene biosynthesis and senescence under toxic

ammonium conditions in *NRT1.1*-deficient mutants (Jian et al. 2018). Consequently, we

examined the genes responsive to the application of 1-aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylic

acid (ACC), a precursor of ethylene whose biosynthesis is a rate-limiting step for

ethylene production, based on the gene list from Goda et al. (2008) (Figure 4b and

Table S6). The ACC-induced genes were significantly downregulated in both 3- and

5-day-old *NRT1.1*-deficient mutants grown under 10 mM ammonium, whereas the

ACC-repressed genes did not show a significant response.

The GO term "response to salt stress" was found to be overrepresented in the

downregulated genes of 3- and 5-day-old *NRT1.1*-deficient mutants (Figures 3d and

S4c). A recent study found that in the presence of a 25 mM chloride ion with

ammonium as the sole N source, NRT1.1 supports excessive chloride absorption,

resulting in severe root growth inhibition (Liu et al. 2020). *NRT1.1* deficiency may

affect the expression of NaCl-responsive genes because our ammonium solution

contains 16 mM chloride ions. The NaCl-induced genes listed from Shen et al. (2014)

were significantly downregulated in the 5-day-old *NRT1.1*-deficient mutants, but not in

the 3-day-old mutants (Figures 4c and Table S7). The expression of NaCl-repressed

genes differed little between Col and *NRT1.1*-deficient mutants.

It has been reported that ammonium nutrition disrupts redox homeostasis, leading

to the apoplastic accumulation of reactive oxygen species and oxidative stress

(Podgórska et al. 2015). In line with this, our enrichment analysis revealed the presence

of the GO terms "response to oxidative stress" and "antioxidant activity" among the

downregulated genes in both 3-day-old and 5-day-old *NRT1.1*-deficient mutants (Figure

3d and S4c). Genes that are upregulated in response to H_2O_2 application, as documented

by Hieno et al. (2019), were downregulated in the 5-day-old *NRT1.1*-deficient mutants,

but not in the 3-day-old mutants (Figure 4d and Table S8). No significant alterations in

the expression of genes downregulated by H_2O_2 were observed between Col and the

NRT1.1-deficient mutants.

Regarding auxin responses, although NRT1.1 facilitates auxin influx into the cell

in the absence of nitrate (Krouk et al. 2010), its deficiency did not significantly alter the

expression of typical genes responsive to indole-3-acetic acid (IAA) application (Goda

et al. 2008) (Figure 4e and Table S9).

Interestingly, previous studies have shown that 43% of ammonium-inducible genes

correspond to low pH (4.5)-inducible genes in *A. thaliana* (Lager et al. 2010; Patterson

et al. 2010). We have previously observed that the enhanced ammonium tolerance of

NRT1.1-deficient mutants at pH 5.7 was mimicked in Col plants grown at pH 6.7

(Hachiya et al. 2011). These findings suggest that *NRT1.1*-deficient mutants may

exhibit enhanced tolerance to ammonium-derived acidic stress. Consequently, we

examined the microarray data with a focus on low pH stress-responsive genes listed in

Lager et al. (2010). Remarkably, the low pH stress-inducible genes were significantly

downregulated both in the 3- and 5-day-old *NRT1.1*-deficient mutants relative to Col,

whereas the low pH stress-repressive genes were generally upregulated in the mutants

(Figure 4f and Table S10).

Collectively, we conclude that NRT1.1 primarily alters the expression of genes

associated with aliphatic glucosinolate biosynthesis, ethylene signaling, and low pH

stress.

4. Discussion

The Arabidopsis nitrate transceptor NRT1.1 and its orthologs are required for plant

adaptation to nitrate-rich conditions (Wang et al. 2020). NRT1.1, on the other hand, has

been shown to reduce ammonium tolerance in the absence of nitrate (Hachiya et al.

2011; Jian et al. 2018). Thus, NRT1.1 and its orthologs are likely to determine adaption

features for the two major N sources, nitrate and ammonium.

Excessive ammonium assimilation by plastidic glutamine synthetase produces

proton accumulation and acidic stress in *A. thaliana* shoots when exposed to high

amounts of ammonium (Hachiya et al. 2021). Proton excretion from plants to external

media is common in plant cultivation with high ammonium feeding (Britto and

Kronzucker 2002). Moreover, in *A. thaliana*, ammonium-inducible genes and low pH

(4.5)-inducible genes overlap at a significant rate (Lager et al. 2010, Patterson et al.

2010). These findings imply that acidic stress is a major source of ammonium toxicity.

Our transcriptome analysis revealed that *NRT1.1* deficiency dampens low pH responses

(Figure 4f). We observed that increasing the pH of the medium from 5.7 to 6.7 by

adding alkaline NH_3 solution promoted shoot development of Col more intensely than

that of *chl1-5* under ammonium conditions, virtually completely suppressing the

difference in growth (Figure S6). These suggest that NRT1.1 exacerbates acidic stress

in the presence of ammonium. Interestingly, an acidic rhizosphere induces *NRT1.1*

expression in a STOP1 transcription factor-dependent way, which enhances symport of

proton and nitrate through NRT1.1 and adjusts rhizosphere pH to a more suitable range

(Ye et al. 2021). Furthermore, NRT1.1 and SLAH3 collaborate to drive a nitrate cycle

across the plasma membrane, reducing acidification of the rhizosphere (Xiao et al.

2022). It is uncertain how NRT1.1 affects intra- and extracellular pH under nitrate-free

ammonium conditions.

Our transcriptome analysis highlighted the extracellular space as an early site of

NRT1.1 action (Figure 3c, d, and S3a, b, S4b, c). A study by Podgórska et al. (2017) in

A. thaliana demonstrated that ammonium toxicity is associated with smaller mesophyll

cells characterized by a more rigid cell wall structure, containing increased phenolic

compounds and boron ions. In our study, the GO terms "plant-type cell wall loosening"

and "plant-type cell wall modification" were enriched in the genes upregulated by

NRT1.1 deficiency (Figure 3c and S4b). These terms originated from genes encoding

proteins involved in cell wall loosening and cell expansion, such as *AT1G69530*

(*EXPA1*), *AT1G74670* (*GASA6*), *AT2G20750* (*EXPB1*), *AT2G40610* (*EXPA8*),

AT3G29030 (*EXPA5*), and *AT4G28250* (*EXPB3*). This suggests that NRT1.1 might

influence ammonium tolerance via alterations in cell wall modification processes.

We discovered that genes for aliphatic GSL biosynthesis and their positive

regulator genes, *MYB28* and *MYB29*, were induced by *NRT1.1* deficiency (Figure 4a,

S2b, Table S2, 4). Coleto et al. (2021) reported that ammonium toxicity was

exacerbated in the *myb28myb29* mutant but not in the *myc234* mutant. Given that both

mutants are almost devoid of aliphatic GSL, the ammonium hypersensitivity of

myb28myb29 is not linked with a lack of aliphatic GSL. The authors provided evidence

that MYB28 and MYB29 maintain intracellular iron homeostasis under ammonium

conditions, thereby attenuating ammonium toxicity. It remains to be seen whether the

absence of NRT1.1 enhances ammonium tolerance via upregulation of *MYB28* and

MYB29. Meanwhile, our transcriptome data suggested that NRT1.1 enhances ethylene

signaling under ammonium conditions. Plants emit ethylene as a phytohormone in

response to various stresses, including ammonium toxicity (Britto and Kronzucker

2002). Inhibition of ethylene signaling by gene knockout and chemical treatment

alleviates ammonium toxicity (Jian et al. 2018, Li et al. 2019). These findings suggest

that NRT1.1 reduces ammonium tolerance through ethylene signaling. Although there is

little overlap among aliphatic GSL biosynthesis genes and ACC- and low

pH-responsive genes (Tables S5, 6, 10), it would be worthwhile to scrutinize these

associations.

Acknowledgments

We are grateful for Dr. Carine Alcon and Montpellier RIO Imaging on technical support

with confocal microscopy. We would like to thank Dr. Yi-Fang Tsay (Academia Sinica)

for giving the Arabidopsis seeds. We would also like to thank Enago (www.enago.jp)

for the English language review.

Disclosure statement

The authors report there are no competing interests to declare.

Funding

This study was supported by the Grants-in-Aid from the Ministry of Education, Culture,

Sports, Science and Technology, Japan (No. 17K15237, JP20K05771, JP23K04978 to

TH), by the Inamori Foundation (to TH), by the Agropolis Foundation (No. 1502-405 to

TH), and by the Nagase Science and Technology Foundation (to TH).

References

Bouguyon, E., F. Brun, D. Meynard, M. Kubeš, M. Pervent, S. Leran, B. Lacombe et al. 2015.

"Multiple mechanisms of nitrate sensing by Arabidopsis nitrate transceptor NRT1.1." Nature

Plants 1: 15015. doi:10.1038/nplants.2015.15.

Bouguyon, E., F. Perrine-Walker, M. Pervent, J. Rochette, C. Cuesta, E. Benkova, A.

Martinière, L. Bach, G. Krouk, A. Gojon, and P. Nacry. 2016. "Nitrate controls root

development through posttranscriptional regulation of the NRT1.1/NPF6.3 transporter/sensor."

Plant Physiology 172: 1237-1248. doi:10.1104/pp.16.01047.

Britto, D. T., and H. J. Kronzucker. 2002. "NH_4^+ toxicity in higher plants: a critical review."

Journal of Plant Physiology 159(6): 567-584. doi:10.1078/0176-1617-0774.

Coleto, I., I. Bejarano, A. J. Marín-Peña, J. Medina, C. Rioja, M. Burow, and D. Marino. 2021.

"*Arabidopsis thaliana* transcription factors *MYB28* and *MYB29* shape ammonium stress

responses by regulating Fe homeostasis." New Phytologist 229(2): 1021-1035.

doi:10.1111/nph.16918.

Goda, H., E. Sasaki, K. Akiyama, A. Maruyama-Nakashita, K. Nakabayashi, W. Li, M. Ogawa,

Y. Yamauchi, J. Preston, K. Aoki et al. "The AtGenExpress hormone and chemical treatment

data set: experimental design, data evaluation, model data analysis and data access." The Plant

Journal 55(3): 526-542. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-313X.2008.03510.x.

Hachiya, T., Y. Mizokami, K. Mizokami, D. Tholen, C. K. Watanabe, and K. Noguchi. 2011.

"Evidence for a nitrate-independent function of the nitrate sensor NRT1.1 in *Arabidopsis*

thaliana." Journal of Plant Research 124: 425-430. doi:10.1007/s10265-010-0385-7.

Hachiya, T., J. Inaba, M. Wakazaki, M. Sato, K. Toyooka, A. Miyagi, M. Kawai-Yamada, D.

Sugiura, T. Nakagawa, T. Kiba, A. Gojon, and H. Sakakibara. 2021. "Excessive ammonium

assimilation by plastidic glutamine synthetase causes ammonium toxicity in *Arabidopsis*

thaliana." Nature Communications 12(1): 4944. doi:10.1038/s41467-021-25238-7.

Harun, S., M. R. Abdullah-Zawawi, H. H. Goh, and Z. A. Mohamed-Hussein. 2020. "A

comprehensive gene inventory for glucosinolate biosynthetic pathway in *Arabidopsis thaliana*."

Journal of agricultural and food chemistry 68(28): 7281-7297. doi:10.1021/acs.jafc.0c01916.

Hieno, A., H. A. Naznin, K. Inaba-Hasegawa, T. Yokogawa, N. Hayami, M. Nomoto, Y. Tada,

T. Yokogawa, Mi. Higuchi-Takeuchi, K. Hanada, M. Matsui, Y. Ikeda, Y. Hojo, T. Hirayama,

K. Kusunoki, H. Koyama, N. Mitsuda, and Y. Y. Yamamoto. 2019. "Transcriptome analysis

and identification of a transcriptional regulatory network in the response to H_2O_2." Plant

Physiology 180(3): 1629-1646. doi:10.1104/pp.18.01426.

Ho, C. H., S. H. Lin, H. C. Hu, and Y. F. Tsay. 2009. "CHL1 functions as a nitrate sensor in

plants." Cell 138 (6): 1184-1194. doi:10.1016/j.cell.2009.07.004.

Hooper, C. M., I. R. Castleden, S. K. Tanz, N. Aryamanesh, and A. H. Millar. 2017. "SUBA4:

the interactive data analysis centre for Arabidopsis subcellular protein locations." Nucleic Acids

Research 45(D1): D1064-D1074. doi:10.1093/nar/gkw1041.

Ito, T., R. Motohashi, T. Kuromori, S. Mizukado, T. Sakurai, H. Kanahara, M. Seki, and K.

Shinozaki. 2002. "A new resource of locally transposed dissociation elements for screening

gene-knockout lines in silico on the Arabidopsis genome." Plant Physiology 129 (4): 1695-1699.

doi:10.1104/pp.002774.

Jian, S., Q. Liao, H. Song, Q. Liu, J. E. Lepo, C. Guan, J. Zhang, A. M. Ismail, and Z. Zhang.

2018. "NRT1.1-related NH_4^+ toxicity is associated with a disturbed balance between NH4+

uptake and assimilation." Plant Physiology 178(4): 1473-1488. doi:10.1104/pp.18.00410.

Krouk, G., B. Lacombe, A. Bielach, F. Perrine-Walker, K. Malinska, E. Mounier, K. Hoyerova,

P. Tillard, S. Leon, K. Ljung, E. Zazimalova, E. Benkova, P. Nacry, and A. Gojon. 2010.

"Nitrate-regulated auxin transport by NRT1.1 defines a mechanism for nutrient sensing in

plants." Developmental Cell 18(6): 927-937. doi:10.1016/j.devcel.2010.05.008.

Krouk, G., C. Carré, C. Fizames, A. Gojon, S. Ruffel, and B. Lacombe. 2015. "GeneCloud

reveals semantic enrichment in lists of gene descriptions." Molecular Plant 8 (6): 971-973. doi:

10.1016/j.molp.2015.02.005.

Kuromori, T., T. Hirayama, Y. Kiyosue, H. Takabe, S. Mizukado, T. Sakurai, K. Akiyama, A.

Kamiya, T. Ito, and K. Shinozaki. 2004. "A collection of 11800 single-copy Ds transposon

insertion lines in Arabidopsis." The Plant Journal 37(6): 897-905. doi:

10.1111/j.1365.313x.2004.02009.x.

Lager, I. D. A., O. L. A. Andréasson, T. L. Dunbar, E. Andreasson, M. A. Escobar, and A. G.

Rasmusson. 2010. "Changes in external pH rapidly alter plant gene expression and modulate

auxin and elicitor responses." Plant, Cell & Environment 33(9): 1513-1528.

doi:10.1111/j.1365-3040.2010.02161.x.

Li, G., L. Zhang, M. Wang, D. Di, H. J. Kronzucker, and W. Shi. 2019. "The Arabidopsis

AMOT1/EIN3 gene plays an important role in the amelioration of ammonium toxicity." Journal

of Experimental Botany 70(4): 1375-1388. doi:/10.1093/jxb/ery457.

Liu, K. H., Y. Niu, M. Konishi, Y. Wu, H. Du, H. S. Chung, L. Li, M. Boudsocq, M.

McCormack, S. Maekawa, T. Ishida, C. Zhang, K. Shokat, S. Yanagisawa, and J. Sheen. 2017.

"Discovery of nitrate-CPK-NLP signalling in central nutrient-growth networks." Nature 545:

311-316. doi:10.1038/nature22077.

Liu, X. X., Y. X. Zhu, X. Z. Fang, J. Y. Ye, W. X. Du, Q. Y. Zhu, X. Y. Lin, and C. W. Jin.

2020. "Ammonium aggravates salt stress in plants by entrapping them in a chloride

over-accumulation state in an NRT1.1-dependent manner." Science of The Total Environment

746: 141244. doi:10.1016/j.scitotenv.2020.141244.

Liu, K. H., M. Liu, Z. Lin, Z. F. Wang, B. Chen, C. Liu, A. Guo, M. Konishi, S. Yanagisawa, G.

Wanger, and J. Sheen. (2022). "NIN-like protein 7 transcription factor is a plant nitrate sensor."

Science, 377(6613), 1419-1425. doi: 10.1126/science.add1104.

Mounier, E., M. Pervent, K. Ljung, A. Gojon, and P. Nacry. 2014. "Auxin-mediated nitrate

signalling by NRT1.1 participates in the adaptive response of *Arabidopsis* root architecture to

the spatial heterogeneity of nitrate availability." Plant, Cell and Environment 37(1): 162-174.

doi:10.1111/pce.12143.

Okamoto, Y., T. Suzuki, D. Sugiura, T. Kiba, H. Sakakibara, and T. Hachiya. 2019. "Shoot

nitrate underlies a perception of nitrogen satiety to trigger local and systemic signaling cascades

in Arabidopsis thaliana." Soil Science and Plant Nutrition 65 (1): 56-64.

doi:10.1080/00380768.2018.1537643.

Patterson, K., T. Cakmak, A. Cooper, I. D. A. Lager, A. G. Rasmusson, and M. A. Escobar.

2010. "Distinct signalling pathways and transcriptome response signatures differentiate

ammonium- and nitrate-supplied plants." Plant, cell & environment 33(9): 1486-1501.

doi:10.1111/j.1365-3040.2010.02158.x.

Podgorska, A., M. Ostaszewska, P. Gardeström, A. G. Rasmusson, and B. Szal. 2015. "In

comparison with nitrate nutrition, ammonium nutrition increases growth of the frostbite1 A

rabidopsis mutant." Plant, Cell and Environment 38(1): 224-237. doi:10.1111/pce.12404.

Podgórska, A., M. Burian, K. Gieczewska, M. Ostaszewska-Bugajska, J. Zebrowski, D. Solecka,

and B. Szal. 2017. "Altered cell wall plasticity can restrict plant growth under ammonium

nutrition." Frontiers in Plant Science 8: 1344. doi:10.3389/fpls.2017.01344.

Remans, T., P. Nacry, M. Pervent, S. Filleur, E. Diatloff, E. Mounier, P. Tillard, B. G. Forde,

and A. Gojon. 2006. "The Arabidopsis NRT1.1 transporter participates in the signaling pathway

triggering root colonization of nitrate-rich patches." Proceedings of the National Academy of

Sciences of the United States of America 103 (50): 19206-19211.

doi:10.1073/pnas.0605275103.

Riveras, E., J. M. Alvarez, E. A. Vidal, C. Oses, A. Vega, and R. A. Gutiérrez. 2015. "The

calcium ion is a second messenger in the nitrate signaling pathway of Arabidopsis." Plant

Physiology 169 (2): 1397-1404. doi:10.1104/pp.15.00961.

Shen, X., Z. Wang, X. Song, J. Xu, C. Jiang, Y. Zhao, C. Ma, and H. Zhang. 2014.

"Transcriptomic profiling revealed an important role of cell wall remodeling and ethylene

signaling pathway during salt acclimation in Arabidopsis." Plant Molecular Biology 86:

303-317. doi:10.1007/s11103-014-0230-9.

Tsay, Y. F., J. I. Schroeder, K. A. Feldmann, and N. M. Crawford. 1993a. "The herbicide

sensitivity gene *CHL1* of Arabidopsis encodes a nitrate-inducible nitrate transporter." Cell 72

(5): 705-713. doi:10.1016/0092-8674(93)90399-B.

Tsay, Y. F., M. J. Frank, T. Page, C. Dean, and N. M. Crawford. (1993b) Identification of a

mobile endogenous transposon in *Arabidopsis thaliana*. Science 260 (5106): 342-344. doi:

10.1126/science.838580.

Vidal, E. A., V. Araus, C. Lu, G. Parry, P. J. Green, G. M. Coruzzi, and R. A. Gutiérrez. 2010.

Nitrate-responsive miR393/AFB3 regulatory module controls root system architecture in

Arabidopsis thaliana. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences. 107 (9): 4477-4482.

doi:10.1073/pnas.0909571107.

Walch-Liu, P., and B. G. Forde. 2008. "Nitrate signalling mediated by the NRT1.1 nitrate

transporter antagonises L-glutamate-induced changes in root architecture." The Plant Journal

54(5): 820-828. doi:10.1111/j.1365-313X.2008.03443.x.

Wang, R., R. Tischner, R. A. Gutiérrez, M. Hoffman, X. Xing, M. Chen, G. Coruzzi, and N. M.

Crawford. 2004. "Genomic analysis of the nitrate response using a nitrate reductase-null mutant

of Arabidopsis." Plant Physiology 136 (1): 2512-2522. doi:10.1104/pp.104.044610.

Wang, W., B. Hu, A. Li, and C. Chu. 2020. "NRT1.1s in plants: functions beyond nitrate

transport." Journal of Experimental Botany 71(15): 4373-4379. doi:10.1093/jxb/erz554.

Xiao, C., D. Sun, B. Liu, X. Fang, P. Li, Y. Jiang, M. He, J. Li, S. Luan, and He, K. 2022.

"Nitrate transporter NRT1.1 and anion channel SLAH3 form a functional unit to regulate

nitrate-dependent alleviation of ammonium toxicity." Journal of Integrative Plant Biology

64(4): 942-957. doi:10.1111/jipb.13239.

Ye, J. Y., W. H. Tian, M. Zhou, Q. Y. Zhu, W. X. Du, Y. X. Zhu, X. X. Liu, X. Y. Lin, S. J.

Zheng, and C. W. Jin. 2021. "STOP1 activates NRT1.1-mediated nitrate uptake to create a

favorable rhizospheric pH for plant adaptation to acidity." The Plant Cell 33(12): 3658-3674.

doi:10.1093/plcell/koab226.

Zhang, X., Y. Cui, M. Yu, B. Su, W. Gong, F. E. Balu¡ka, G. Komis, J. Šamaj, X. Shan, J. Lin.

2019. Phosphorylation-mediated dynamics of nitrate transceptor NRT1.1 regulate auxin flux

and nitrate signaling in lateral root growth. Plant Physiology 181 (2): 480-498.

doi:10.1104/pp.19.00346.

Zhou, Y., B. Zhou, L. Pache, M. Chang, A. H. Khodabakhshi, O. Tanaseichuk, C. Benner, and

S. K. Chanda. 2019. "Metascape provides a biologist-oriented resource for the analysis of

systems-level datasets." Nature Communications 10(1): 1523.

doi:10.1038/s41467-019-09234-6.

 Figure legends

Figure 1. Plasma membrane-targeted NRT1.1 reduces ammonium tolerance almost

regardless of its phosphorylating status. (a, b) Fresh weights (FWs) of shoots from

11-day-old Col, *chl1-5*, *nrt1.1*, L*er*, *chl1-6*, Nossen, and *pst16286* plants grown under

10 mM ammonium (a) or 10 mM nitrate (b) conditions (Mean ± SD; n = 5-10). (c, d)

Shoot FWs in Col and NRT1.1-mCherry (eNRT1.1) lines under the control of the

β-estradiol-inducible promoter in the *chl1-5* background (Mean ± SD; n = 15). In one

dish, five seedlings of each line grown under the 10 mM nitrate condition for 5 days

were transferred to the 10 mM ammonium (c) or 10 mM nitrate (d) condition in the

absence (ethanol as a mock) or presence of 1 μM β-estradiol and further grown for 6

days. (e, f) Shoot FWs (e) and a representative photograph (f) from 11-day-old Col,

chl1-5, *chl1-9* (*P492L*), *T101D*, and *T101A* plants grown under 10 mM ammonium

conditions (Mean ± SD; n = 5). The scale bar represents 5 mm. Twelve shoots from one

plate were regarded as a single biological replicate. (g) The chlorophyll (*a* + *b*)

concentrations of shoots from 5-day-old Col, *chl1-5*, *chl1-9*, *T101D*, and *T101A*

seedlings grown under 10 mM ammonium (Mean ± SD; n = 3). Thirty-seven shoots

from one plate were regarded as a single biological replicate. (h, i) FWs of shoots from

11-day-old Col and *cipk23-4* plants grown under 10 mM ammonium (h) or 10 mM

nitrate (i) conditions (Mean ± SD; n = 5-10). (j) FWs of 3-day-old Col and *chl1-5*

seedlings grown under 10 mM ammonium (Mean ± SD; n = 4). (k) FWs of shoots and

roots from 5-, 8-, or 11-day-old Col and *chl1-5* grown under 10 mM ammonium (Mean

± SD; n = 5). (l) Representative photographs of 3-day-old Col and *chl1-5* seedlings

grown under 10 mM ammonium and representative photographs of the adaxial side of

cotyledons from 5-day-old Col and *chl1-5* seedlings grown under 10 mM ammonium.

The scale bars represent 1 mm (3-day) and 500 μm (5-day). (a, b, h–k) Six shoots or

roots from one plate were regarded as a single biological replicate. In one dish, six seeds

of each line of wild-type and mutant were placed and grown. *$P < 0.05$; **$P < 0.01$;

***$P < 0.001$ (unpaired two-tailed Welch's *t*-test). NS denotes not significant. Different

lowercase letters indicate significant differences evaluated by the Tukey–Kramer

multiple comparison test conducted at a significance level of $P < 0.05$.

Figure 2. NRT1.1 is expressed in various tissues under ammonium conditions. (a)

Relative transcript levels of *NRT1.1* in 3-day-old Col seedlings grown under 10 mM

ammonium or 10 mM nitrate conditions (Mean ± SD; n = 3). 45 seedlings from one

plate were regarded as a single biological replicate. (b) Relative transcript levels of

NRT1.1 in shoots and roots from 5-, 8-, or 11-day-old Col grown under 10 mM

ammonium or 10 mM nitrate conditions (Mean ± SD; n = 3). 12 shoots and 12 roots

from one plate were regarded as a single biological replicate. (c–j) Signals of

NRT1.1-GFPloop from pavement cells of cotyledons from 3-day-old plants (c),

epidermal cells of hypocotyl from 3-day-old plants (d), mesophyll protoplasts from

8-day-old plants (e), root cap and epidermal cells of the primary root from 5-day-old

plants (f, g), primary root tip from 5-day-old plants (h), and pavement cells of

cotyledons from 12-day-old plants (i: horizontal central section of the cell, j: horizontal

section below the cell surface layer). The scale bars represent 10 μm (c, e–j) and 30 μm

(d). The purple signals represent autofluorescence (e) and PI fluorescence (f). The

images were processed by Image J version 1.53c. Figure 2h was generated by the

maximum intensity projection.

Figure 3. Genome-wide transcriptional responses caused by *NRT1.1* deficiency. (a)

Venn diagram showing the number of genes upregulated and downregulated in the 3-

and 5-day-old *NRT1.1*-deficient mutants (*chl1-5*, *nrt1.1*) compared with Col grown

under 10 mM ammonium. The transcripts whose expression was at least 1.5-fold

(3-day) or 2-fold (5-day) higher or at most 1/1.5 (3-day) or 1/2 lower (5-day) in both

mutants relative to that in Col were counted. The gene lists are shown in Supplementary

Tables S2, 3. (b) Outputs derived from GeneCloud analysis of genes upregulated and

downregulated in the 3-day-old *NRT1.1*-deficient mutants (*chl1-5*, *nrt1.1*) compared

with Col grown under 10 mM ammonium. The numbers next to the term denote the

number of genes containing the term and the fold enrichment. (c, d) Outputs derived

from Metascape analysis of genes upregulated (c) and downregulated (d) in the

3-day-old *NRT1.1*-deficient mutants (*chl1-5*, *nrt1.1*) compared with Col grown under 10

mM ammonium.

Figure 4. NRT1.1 primarily alters the expression of aliphatic glucosinolate biosynthesis

genes, ACC-responsive genes, and low pH-responsive genes under ammonium

conditions. (a–f) Comparisons of the expression of biosynthesis genes for aliphatic

glucosinolate (AGSL) and indole glucosinolate (IGSL) (a), genes upregulated and

downregulated by ACC application (b), genes upregulated and downregulated by NaCl

stress (c), genes upregulated and downregulated by H_2O_2 application (d), genes

upregulated and downregulated by IAA application (e), and genes upregulated and

downregulated by low pH treatment (f) between Col and *NRT1.1*-deficient mutants

(*chl1-5*, *nrt1.1*) grown under 10 mM ammonium. One hundred thirty-five seedlings

(3-day) from three plates and 74 seedlings (5-day) from two plates were regarded as a

single biological replicate. Changes in gene expression levels between Col and *chl1-5*

and Col and *nrt1.1* were represented as logarithms to base 2 of ratios in signal

intensities. *$P < 0.05$; **$P < 0.01$; ***$P < 0.001$ (two-tailed ratio paired *t*-test).

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4