Myristate as a carbon and energy source for the asymbiotic growth of the arbuscular

mycorrhizal fungus *Rhizophagus irregularis*

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Abstract

Arbuscular mycorrhiza (AM) is one of the most widespread mutualistic symbioses, which is

formed between the majority of land plants and soil-borne fungi belonging to Glomeromycotina.

AM fungi are obligate symbionts that cannot complete their natural life cycle without a host.

Recent evidence suggests that lipids synthesized by a host are transferred to AM fungi that

possess no fatty acid synthase genes in their genome and that mutations in lipid biosynthesis-

related genes of the host lead the symbiotic interaction to fail (1-3). We hypothesized that lipids

derived from plants are crucial for AM fungal growth and reproduction. In this study, we

evaluated whether AM fungi can grow on medium supplied with fatty acids under asymbiotic

conditions without the host. Myristate led to an extensive hyphal growth of *Rhizophagus*

irregularis and an increase in biomass production. Other examined fatty acids showed no effect

on biomass production. Myristate also induced secondary spore formation. The myristate-

induced spores can germinate, colonize carrot hairy roots, and form the next generation of

mature daughter spores. A fluorescently labeled fatty acid probe was taken up by branched

hyphae of AM fungi. Tracer experiments using ^{13}C-labeled myristic acid showed that myristate

and its metabolites were utilized for the synthesis of triacylglycerol and cell wall components

of AM fungi. Furthermore, myristate activated ATP generation in the fungal hyphae. Here we

demonstrate that myristate is utilized as a carbon and energy source for biomass production and

sporulation under asymbiotic conditions.

Introduction

Arbuscular mycorrhizal (AM) fungi belonging to the subphylum Glomeromycotina (4) form

symbiotic associations with over 70% of land plant species (5). AM fungi provide hosts with

minerals taken up via hyphal networks in soil and in return receive carbon sources, such as

sugars and lipids derived from plant photosynthates. This is regarded as an obligate symbiotic

relationship, where the life cycle of AM fungi is completed through colonization with their host.

Only a few reports have been published on AM fungal culture without hosts. One report showed

that the co-cultivation of the AM fungus *Glomus intraradices* with strains of *Paenibacillus*

validus separated from each other with dialysis membranes induced secondary spore formation

of the AM fungus (6). Another study reported that some fatty acids, including palmitoleic acid

and (*S*)-12-methyltetradecanoic acid, induced fertile secondary spores in asymbiotic cultures of

AM fungi (7). These results suggest that AM fungi may be cultured independently from host

plants under artificial conditions. In nature, the life cycle of AM fungi proceeds as follows.

Resting spores of AM fungi germinate, and then germ tubes emerge from the spores and

elongate into the soil. After colonization into plant roots, AM fungi form a highly branched

hyphal structure, called an arbuscule, in plant cortical cells, which is a site of nutrient exchange

between AM fungi and their hosts. After receiving carbon sources from their hosts, AM fungi

activate the formation of extraradical hyphal networks in soil and form spores on their hyphae.

A key step of AM fungal growth and reproduction is to obtain carbon sources from their hosts

for the production of energy and the carbon skeleton of the fungal cell components. Tracer

experiments and NMR analyses show that hexoses transfer to AM fungi as a carbon source (8-

10). Several AM fungal monosaccharide transporters have been identified (11-13). Recently,

lipids derived from plants have been proven to be another carbon source (1-3, 14, 15). No fatty

acid biosynthesis activity in extraradical hyphae has been detected, so lipids were assumed to

be synthesized in intraradical hyphae and transferred to extraradical hyphae and spores (10, 16).

However, AM fungi have no cytosolic fatty acid synthases involved in *de novo* fatty acid

biosynthesis in their genomes, indicating that AM fungi cannot produce long chain fatty acids

by themselves (17-20). During AM symbiosis, plants activate fatty acid biosynthesis and

transfer lipids, presumably 16:0 β-monoacylglycerol (β-MAG), to AM fungi via arbuscules (1-

3, 14, 15). In plant mutants that are defective in fatty acid biosynthetic genes, AM fungi cannot

develop arbuscules and reduce colonization in roots. These results indicate that AM fungi

require external fatty acids for their growth. Once AM fungi take up fatty acids, they can utilize

them using fatty acid desaturase and elongase genes that are present in their genomes and

expressed in intraradical hyphae (16-18, 20-23). Thus, we examined whether AM fungi can

grow and reproduce fertile spores through the application of fatty acids under asymbiotic

conditions.

Results

Myristate activates AM fungal growth

Initially, we screened several fatty acids and β-MAGs to identify chemicals that promote AM

fungal growth under asymbiotic conditions. These compounds were added to the modified

Saccharomyces cerevisiae synthetic complete (SC) medium (*SI Appendix*, Table S1) with

different dissolving methods: adding an aqueous solution of fatty acid salts, fatty acids and β-

MAGs dissolved in ethanol, or fatty acids conjugated with bovine serum albumin (BSA). Fatty

acid–BSA conjugates were dissolved to a final concentration of 0.5 mM, whereas potassium

salts of fatty acids were converted into an insoluble form due to the formation of metal soap

with Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} in SC medium. Moreover, fatty acids and β-MAGs were aggregated in the

solid culture (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S1). In the absence of fatty acids, no biomass increase was

detected in *R. irregularis* (Fig. 1*A* and *B*). After spore germination, *R. irregularis* generated a

thick and short subtending hypha that soon branched to produce straight-growing thick hyphae

(hereafter referred to as runner hyphae), with several thin lateral hyphae with a low level of

ramification (Fig. 1*D* and *E*). The hyphal elongation ceased within one or two weeks after

germination. By contrast, myristates (C14:0) among the tested chemicals substantially

increased fungal biomass regardless of the methods used for adding myristate (Fig. 1*A*). Fungal

biomass continued to increase in the culture depending on the concentration of myristate (Fig.

1*B*). As a consequence, the total dry weight of the two-month-old colony at 1 mM potassium

myristate doubled that of inoculated spores. Surprisingly, 16:0 β-MAG and palmitate (16:0),

candidate compounds released from arbusculated host cells during symbiosis (14, 15), did not

increase biomass production. During cultivation with myristate, vigorous hyphal development

and subsequent differentiation of secondary spores were observed (Fig. 1*F–P* and *SI Appendix*,

Fig. S1). After germination, *R. irregularis* differentiated a few densely packed coil (DPC)-like

structures from the runner hyphae in the vicinity of an inoculated spore (Fig. 1*G*). DPC is an

extensively branched hyphal structure, which was first observed in *G. intraradices* co-

cultivated with *P. validus* (24). *R. irregularis* elongated its runner hyphae as generating

branched hyphae similar to branched absorbing structures (BAS) (25) and expanded its habitat

by generating new runner hyphae (Fig. 1*H–J*). The short-branched hyphae (hereafter referred

to as BAS) were formed at short intervals (Fig. 1*K*). Interestingly, at the beginning of the

cultivation supplemented with potassium myristate, numerous precipitates of myristate salt

were observed throughout the growth medium; however, the precipitates around actively

growing hyphae were solubilized (Fig. 1*H*, *I*, and *L*). Myristate induced secondary spores,

which were frequently observed along the runner hyphae in the vicinity of the inoculated spores

(Fig. 1*M*). Myristate-induced spores also occurred apically or intercalary along the lateral

branches of the extensively growing runner hyphae (Fig. 1*N* and *O*). The size of the spores was

approximately 50 μm in diameter, which is almost half the size of inoculated spores (Fig. 1*F*,

M, and *P*). In the presence of palmitoleic acid (C16:1 Δ9) in the medium, extensive hyphal

branching and secondary spore formation was observed as reported by Kameoka et al. (7),

although this was not associated with an increase in biomass (Fig. 1*A* and *SI Appendix*, Fig.

S1*B*). When lauric acid (C12:0) was applied as a lauric acid–BSA conjugate, *R. irregularis*

showed an active runner hyphae elongation with few DPC, BAS, or secondary spores (*SI*

Appendix, Fig. S1*C*). However, this conjugate did not significantly increase fungal biomass (Fig.

1*A*). As the lauric acid–BSA conjugate was effective on hyphal elongation even at low

concentrations (1 and 10 μM), lauric acid is not likely to be utilized as a macronutrient for *R.*

irregularis (*SI Appendix*, Fig. 1*D*).

We further developed culture systems to promote fungal growth under asymbiotic

conditions. First, we examined a liquid culture of the modified SC medium containing

potassium myristate. The liquid culture was also effective for fungal biomass production (*SI*

Appendix, Fig. S2*A*). After germination, precipitates of metal soaps attached to the hyphal

surface (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S2*B*). The fungal hyphae continued to elongate and became tangled.

During fungal growth, the metal soaps on the surface gradually disappeared. Typical BAS was

not recognized due to the aggregation of the fungal hyphae, although highly branched fine

hyphae were observed in the presence of myristate (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S2*C*). In contrast to the

solid culture, very few secondary spores formed in the liquid culture. Next, an immobilized cell

culture system was tested, in which an inoculum of *R. irregularis* spores embedded in the center

of a Phytagel tablet was incubated in modified SC liquid medium (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S3*A*). This

culture system can prevent the aggregation of fungal hyphae and facilitate the diffusion of

medium components in the Phytagel tablets. Notably, AM fungal growth in the immobilized

cell culture system with potassium myristate was increased at 3–4-fold compared with that in

the solid and liquid cultures (Fig. 1*A* and *C*; *SI Appendix*, Fig. S2*A*). The hyphal elongation was

very active, and some hyphae spread out to the Phytagel tablets and continued to grow (Fig. 1*Q*

and *R* and *SI Appendix*, Fig. S3*B–D*). The elongation pattern was similar to that in the solid

culture. For instance, DPC-like structures, runner hyphae, BAS, and myristate-induced spores

were observed (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S3*E–I*). The myristate-induced spores were still smaller than

the inoculated spores (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S3*J*).

As monosaccharides are utilized by AM fungi as carbon sources during symbiosis (8-

10), we examined whether monosaccharides are effective on fungal growth in an immobilized

cell culture system. In the absence of potassium myristate, neither glucose nor xylose promoted

biomass production (Fig. 1*C*). Similarly, no additional effect of the monosaccharides to increase

biomass production was detected in the combination with potassium myristate.

Myristate-induced spores have infection capability

Myristate-induced spores began to differentiate from two weeks after inoculation in the solid

medium. The number of myristate-induced spores increased with time and concentration of

myristate and finally reached 1.4 spores per inoculated spore at 8 weeks post-inoculation (Fig.

2*A*). However, the spores were still half the size of the inoculated spores (Fig. 2*B*). In the

immobilized cell culture system, the number of myristate-induced spores was equal to that in

the solid culture, and the spores were further generated up to 2.5 per inoculated spore in the

combination with xylose (Fig. 2*C* and *SI Appendix*, Fig. S4*A*). Although the spore size and

thickness of spore walls were small (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S4*B* and Fig. S5*A*), the morphology of

the myristate-induced spores resembled that of the symbiotically generated spores (*SI Appendix*,

Fig. S5*A*). Both myristate-induced and symbiotically generated spores contained a large number

of nuclei (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S5*A*). We further evaluated the capability of the myristate-induced

spores as propagules. Forty-six percent of the myristate-induced spores were able to germinate

(*SI Appendix*, Fig. S5*B*). The abundance of germ tubes from the induced spores was less than

that from the symbiotically generated spores, possibly due to the small spore size (*SI Appendix*,

Fig. S5*C*). To test whether the myristate-induced spores can colonize plant roots, a single spore

generated in the immobilized cell culture system with potassium myristate and xylose was

inoculated to carrot hairy roots. In total, 245 spores were examined in six independent

experiments. Some induced spores had infectivity to the hairy roots; and as a result, mature

spores of the next generation were produced on the extraradical hyphae that emerged from the

roots (Fig. 2*D–G*). Approximately half of the germinated spores can colonize hairy roots and

produce daughter spores, albeit large variations in the germination and infectivity of spores

were observed among the trials due to the experimental manipulations (*SI Appendix*, Table S3).

172   AM fungi utilize myristate as a carbon and energy source

To address the use of fatty acids by AM fungi under asymbiotic conditions, we analyzed fatty

acid uptake using a fluorescent derivative of fatty acid, C_1-BODIPY 500/510 C_{12}, in the

immobilized cell culture system. The fluorescent probe was absorbed by the BAS (not the

runner hyphae) within 10 min of the exposure (Fig. 3*A*). The probe was first taken up from the

hyphal tips of BAS (Fig. 3*A*), and then the fluorescent signals were observed in lipid body-like

structures (26, 27) in the runner hyphae over time, which were translocated by cytoplasmic

streaming (*SI Appendix*, Movie S1). Long exposure of the probe showed that the signals were

localized in the myristate-induced spores as well as BAS, runner hyphae, and DPC, but

inoculated parent spores were rarely labeled (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S6). Translocation of the

fluorescent fatty acid probe to the myristate-induced spores prompted us to examine whether

myristate is utilized as a component of the major storage lipid, triacylglycerol. We cultured *R.*

irregularis in the medium supplemented with [1-^{13}C]myristic acid. After extraction of the lipids

from the fungal materials, triacylglycerol was purified through preparative TLC and analyzed

by ^{13}C-NMR. In the spectrum, two peaks at 173.1 and 173.4 ppm (corresponding to the carboxyl

carbons of acyl chains at the α and β positions, respectively) were observed at a much higher

intensity compared with those of triacylglycerol prepared from monoxenically cultured *R.*

irregularis (Fig. 3*B*). This finding shows that exogenous myristate is incorporated into

triacylglycerol, especially as acyl carboxyl components. To further examine whether myristate

provides the carbon skeleton for fungal cell components, we applied [1-^{13}C]myristate to the

solid culture medium and analyzed cell wall components. After the extraction of fungal cell

walls, chitin and chitosan in the cell walls were converted into glucosamine through acid

hydrolysis. LC-MS analysis of the extracted glucosamine demonstrated that the relative ion

intensity of M+1 was significantly higher in AM fungi supplemented with [1-^{13}C]myristate

(mean 14.6%) than in those supplemented with non-labeled myristate (6.5%). This finding

indicates that external myristate was taken up by *R. irregularis* and utilized for the biosynthesis

of chitin and chitosan of the fungal cell walls (Fig. 3*C*). To evaluate myristate as an energy

source, ATP production was measured after the application of myristate. We applied myristate

to germinating hyphae and measured ATP content at 12 h after application. ATP content

increased by 2.4-fold in the presence of myristate compared with that in the absence of myristate

(Fig. 3*D*). When carbonyl cyanide m-chlorophenylhydrazone (CCCP), an inhibitor of

depolarization of mitochondrial membrane potential, was simultaneously applied to the hyphae,

ATP content did not increase independently of fatty acid application. We also confirmed that

potassium myristate activated gene expression involved in β-oxidation, the glyoxylate cycle,

gluconeogenesis, and the TCA cycle at 3 h after the application (Fig. 3*E*). Interestingly, a gene

encoding *N*-myristoyl transferase (NMT), which catalyzes the myristoylation of proteins was

upregulated by myristate.

Discussion

AM fungi have an obligate biotrophic lifestyle, so these fungi cannot possibly grow and survive

without host-derived nutrients. Recently, AM fungi have been shown to receive lipids via

arbuscules from the host (1-3, 14, 15); however, the availability of lipids as nutrient is largely

unknown. Here we show that myristate (C14:0) is used for the hyphal growth of *R. irregularis*

as a carbon and energy source under asymbiotic conditions, which provides the first evidence

of the increase of AM fungal biomass in a pure culture system. Furthermore, we confirmed that

myristate-induced spores are infective propagules capable of generating symbiotic daughter

spores. Based on lipid profile analyses of plant mutants defective in arbuscule formation, 16:0

β-MAG or its related chemicals are transferred to AM fungi from the host under symbiotic

conditions (1-3, 14, 15). Recently, palmitoleic acid, a monounsaturated C16 fatty acid, has been

shown to induce hyphal branching and fertile spores in the absence of a host (7). However, fatty

acids and β-MAGs except for myristate were ineffective in biomass production in our culture

conditions. From our result that the fluorescently labelled fatty acid derivative C_1-BODIPY

500/510 C_{12} was accumulated in AM fungal hyphae, fatty acids are likely to be non-specifically

taken up. Rather, myristate seems to be essential for biological processes in AM fungi via a

myristate-specific metabolism. Myristate is used for the lipid modification of proteins, called

protein *N*-myristoylation, in a variety of eukaryotes (28-30). Protein *N*-myristoylation is

catalyzed by NMT, which transfers myristate from myristoyl-CoA to the N-terminal glycine

residue of the target proteins (31). *N*-myristoyl proteins are involved in diverse cellular

processes such as protein phosphorylation and signal transduction. Disruption of the *NMT* gene

causes recessive lethality in several fungal species (32-34). In the present study, the *R.*

irregularis NMT1 gene was upregulated by the application of myristate. Protein *N*-

myristoylation may be activated in *R. irregularis* by externally supplied myristate, which allows

it to proliferate.

Under conditions where myristate was supplied in the absence of a host, AM fungi

formed DPC-like structures after germination, explored the media by developing runner hyphae

in association with BAS formation, and subsequently differentiated secondary spores. We found

that *R. irregularis* has the capability to absorb fatty acids through BAS and DPC. Absorbed

fatty acids or their metabolites are likely to be stored in lipid bodies or glyoxysomes and

translocate in runner hyphae as previously observed in symbiotic extraradical hyphae (27, 35,

36). A part of the fatty acids or lipids is delivered to newly formed spores, which may be used

for spore germination and subsequent hyphal elongation.

The observation of incorporating ^{13}C in triacylglycerols and cell wall components of

R. irregularis when [1-^{13}C]myristate is supplied indicates that myristate is utilized as a carbon

source to synthesize cellular components. During symbiosis, β-oxidation, the glyoxylate cycle,

and gluconeogenesis are active in AM fungi, and these metabolic pathways have been proposed

to play a crucial role in the generation of carbohydrates from lipids (10, 35-37). Based on our

observation that major genes involved in β-oxidation, the glyoxylate cycle, gluconeogenesis,

and the TCA cycle were induced by the application of myristate, absorbed myristate is likely

metabolized via such metabolic pathways and resulting carbohydrates are used to build the

fungal cells. Furthermore, ATP elevation through myristate addition indicates that myristate is

also used as an electron donor for the respiration of AM fungi. In our culture systems, hexoses

did not give rise to an increase in fungal biomass, although xylose in combination with myristate

induced a great number of secondary spores. This finding means that AM fungi are hardly able

to use sugars for carbon sources under these conditions. However, hexoses derived from the

host are taken up via fungal monosaccharide transporters in intraradical hyphae and/or

arbuscules during symbiosis (9). In addition, the monosaccharide transporter *MST2* is expressed

even in BAS formed on the medium in a carrot hairy root system (23) and induced in

extraradical hyphae applied with xylose (12). Thus, we cannot rule out the possibility that AM

fungi can utilize external sugars for their growth under asymbiotic conditions.

In conclusion, we proved that AM fungi are fatty acid auxotrophs, which leads to the

possibility of generating a pure culture of biotrophic AM fungi. Although myristate initiates

AM fungal growth and sporulation, the size of myristate-induced spores remains small

compared with that of symbiotically generated spores. Similar results were obtained with

palmitoleic acid-induced spores (7). As smaller spores show low germination rates and

infectivity (38), spore maturation in the absence of the host represents an exciting future

challenge for the pure culture of AM fungi. Our findings have shed new light on the cellular

and molecular biology of AM fungi, and have important implications for the genetic

transformation and the development of new strategies for the inoculum production of these

organisms.

Materials and Methods

More details of study methods are provided in *SI Appendix*, *Extended Methods*.

Biological materials. Sterile spore suspension of the AM fungus *R. irregularis* DAOM197198

(or DAOM181602, another voucher number for the same fungus) was purchased from Premier

Tech. Contaminated hyphae in the spore suspension were removed by density-gradient

centrifugation using gastrografin as described in *SI Appendix*, *Extended Methods*.

Asymbiotic culture. Approximately 300–400 spores of *R. irregularis* were inoculated on 0.3%

Phytagel (Sigma-Aldrich) plates containing modified SC medium (1.7 g l^{-1} yeast nitrogen base

[MP Biomedicals], 2.0 g l^{-1} complete SC mixture [Formedium], 5 mM ammonium sulfate, 1

mM glycerol, 5 mg l^{-1} thiamine hydrochloride, 5 mg l^{-1} nicotinic acid, 5 mg l^{-1} pyridoxal

phosphate, and appropriate amounts of fatty acids) and then covered with 0.3% Phytagel

dissolved in 3 mM magnesium sulfate in a 12-well culture plate. For the liquid culture, Phytagel

was removed from the medium. Three types of fatty acids were added to the medium: fatty acid

salts, fatty acids in an organic solvent, or fatty acids conjugated with BSA (*SI Appendix*,

Extended Methods). The plates were incubated at 28 ºC in the dark. Hyphal elongation was

observed under a dissecting microscope and light microscopes.

Immobilized cell culture. An overview of the immobilized cell culture system is represented

in the *SI Appendix* (Fig. S3*A*). Thirty-five ml of 0.75% Phytagel containing 3 mM magnesium

sulfate was poured into a 90 mm Petri dish and solidified. A Phytagel tablet (6 mm high and

17.5 mm wide) with a circular incision (3 mm deep and 11.5 mm wide) was cut out using a

sterile double cork borer (inner diameter: 11.5 and 17.5 mm, respectively). The gel within the

circular incision on the top side of the gel tablet was removed to 3 mm deep using a spatula or

disposable pipette tip connected to an aspirator to prepare a hole for spore inoculation. To flatten

the bottom of the hole, a small amount of 0.75% Phytagel was added. Approximately 300–400

spores were placed in the hole and covered with 0.75% Phytagel containing 3 mM magnesium

sulfate. The Phytagel tablets containing spores were transferred into a six-well culture plate.

Each well was filled with 5 mL of full- or half-strength modified SC liquid medium with or

without 0.5 mM potassium myristate and monosaccharides (glucose and xylose). AM fungi

were grown at 28 ºC in the dark. During the culture, the medium was changed once a month.

Measurement of fungal biomass.

Fungal materials were recovered from gels in wells of a culture plate by melting the gels in

citrate buffer and weighed using a micro analytical balance (*SI Appendix*, *Extended Methods*).

The number of inoculated spores in the well was counted in advance under a dissecting

microscope. The standardized growth increment of *R. irregularis* was calculated by dividing

the total fungal dry weight in a well by the number of inoculated spores and subtracting the

mean dry weight of an inoculated spore.

Spore morphology and germination assay. Myristate-induced spores were produced by an

immobilized cell culture system in the presence of 0.5 mM potassium myristate in a half-

strength modified SC medium for approximately three months. Myristate-induced and

symbiotically generated spores were mounted with polyvinyl alcohol–lactic acid–glycerol

(PVLG) or Melzer's reagent for microscopic observation. Spores were incubated with 10 μM

SYTO 13 green fluorescent nucleic acid stain (Thermo Fisher) for 2 h and observed by

epifluorescence microscopy. For spore germination assay, myristate-induced and symbiotically

generated spores were placed onto 0.3% Phytagel containing 3 mM magnesium sulfate and

incubated at 28 ºC for one week. Spore germination was examined under a dissecting

microscope.

Single spore inoculation. A single myristate-induced spore produced by an immobilized cell

culture system in the presence of 0.5 mM potassium myristate and 5 mM xylose in a half-

strength modified SC medium was placed onto carrot hairy root plates using a pipette. The

production of daughter spores on extraradical hyphae emerging from hairy roots was observed

under a dissecting microscope. AM fungal colonization was confirmed by trypan blue staining.

Fatty acid uptake. Fatty acid uptake was evaluated using a fluorescent fatty acid analogue,

4,4-difluoro-5-methyl-4-bora-3a,4a-diaza-*s*-indacene-3-dodecanoic acid (C_1-BODIPY 500/510

C_{12}, Thermo Fisher Scientific). *R. irregularis* was grown in an immobilized cell culture system

with modified SC medium containing 0.5 mM potassium myristate without sugars for 4 or 6

weeks. Fungal hyphae were stained with 0.5 mM C_1-BODIPY 500/510 C_{12} in modified SC

medium. After a 10-minute the incubation, fungal hyphae protruding outside a Phytagel tablet

were observed using a laser scanning confocal microscope. For the samples incubated for 1 or

5 days in the medium containing the fluorescent probe, a Phytagel tablet containing fungal

materials was melted by adding citrate buffer. Fluorescent signals were observed under an

epifluorescence microscope.

LC-MS analysis of glucosamine. [1-^{13}C]Myristic acid (Taiyo Nippon Sanso) and non-labeled

myristic acid were dissolved in 200 mM potassium hydroxide to 100 mM final concentration

of fatty acids. *R. irregularis* was cultured in a modified SC solid medium supplied with 1 mM

neutralized myristate for two months. Approximately 1–2 mg dry fungal materials per sample

were recovered from the solid medium as described above. Extraction of glucosamine derived

from fungal biomass and LC-MS analysis was described in *SI Appendix, Extended Methods*.

The relative intensities of the molecular ion peaks of glucosamine ([M+H]$^+$, *m/z* 180.19;

[M+1+H]$^+$, *m/z* 181.19; and [M+2+H]$^+$, *m/z* 182.19) were monitored. The relative fraction of

M+0, M+1, and M+2 in the glucosamine standard solution were 92.9%, 7.1%, and 0%,

respectively.

^{13}C-NMR analysis of triacylglycerols. *R. irregularis* was cultured in a modified SC solid

medium supplied with 1 mM neutralized [1-^{13}C]myristate (Cambridge Isotope Laboratories,

Inc.) for 2.5 months as described above. Approximately 43 mg of wet fungal materials were

recovered from solid medium. Extraction of lipids from fungal biomass, purification of

triacylglycerol, and ^{13}C-NMR analysis were described in *SI Appendix, Extended Methods*.

Determination of ATP content. Five hundred spores of *R. irregularis* were incubated in 100

µL of sterilized water at 28 ºC for 5 days. Potassium myristate was added to the germinating

spores at a final concentration of 0.5 mM. For the control, the protonophore CCCP was

simultaneously added at a final concentration of 50 µM. The germinating spores were incubated

for 12 h. After centrifugation at 3,500 rpm for 10 min, 400 µL of phosphate-buffered saline

(PBS; pH 7.4) was added to the pellet. The spore suspension was transferred to a 2 mL tube

containing a metal crusher (TAITEC) and placed on ice. The sample was crushed with a bead

crusher (µT-12, TAITEC) at 2,200 rpm for 10 s three times. The crushed fungal materials were

transferred to a 1.5 mL tube and centrifuged at $8,000 \times g$ for 2 min at 4 ºC. The supernatant was

recovered and used for determination of ATP and protein concentration. ATP concentration was

measured using the CellTiter-Glo Luminescent Cell Viability Assay Kit (Promega) following

the manufacturer's instructions. Protein concentration was assayed using the Qubit Protein

Assay Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific). ATP content in the germinating spores was calculated as

pmol per mg protein.

Quantitative RT-PCR. *R. irregularis* was grown in an immobilized cell culture system with

modified SC medium containing 0.5 mM potassium myristate without sugars for 3 weeks.

Subsequently, Phytagel tablets containing fungal materials were incubated in a modified SC

medium without fatty acids for 11 days to induce fatty acid starvation. During the first three

days of starvation, the culture medium was exchanged every day. After the starvation treatment,

half of each sample was added to 100 mM potassium myristate to a final concentration of 0.5

mM, and the remaining half of each sample was added the same amount of sterilized water.

After a 3 or 12 h incubation, fungal hyphae protruding outside a Phytagel tablet were recovered

using forceps and immediately immersed in 500 μL of RNAiso Plus (Takara Bio). The fungal

hyphae were crushed using the bead crusher μT-12 with a metal crusher at 2,200 rpm for 10 s

three times with cooling on ice. RNA purification, cDNA synthesis, and semiquantitative PCR

was conduct as described in *SI Appendix*, *Extended Methods*.

Statistical analysis. All statistical analyses were performed using R version 3.5.2. To examine

the differences among experimental groups, data were analyzed with Student's t-test or Tukey

HSD test, as appropriate. Differences at $P < 0.05$ were considered to be significant.

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    Figure legends

    Fig. 1. Asymbiotic culture of *R. irregularis* in the presence of fatty acids. (*A*) Standardized

    growth increment (see Materials and Methods) during 8 weeks in the modified SC solid medium

    supplemented with potassium salts of fatty acids, fatty acids and β-MAGs, or fatty acid–BSA

    conjugates (*n* = 3–4). (*B*) Time course of biomass production at different concentrations of

    potassium myristate (*n* = 5–6). (*C*) Biomass production in an immobilized cell culture system.

    Immobilized fungal spores were incubated in half-strength modified SC medium supplemented

    with combinations of potassium myristate and sugars at 8 weeks after inoculation (*n* = 6). For

    each boxplot, the boxes show the first, median, and third quartiles; the whiskers extend to 1.5×

    interquartile range, and data points for each treatment are displayed. The same lowercase letter

    indicates no significant difference (Tukey's test, *P* < 0.05; *A*–*C*). Fungal growth in the solid

    medium without fatty acids (*D* and *E*) or with potassium myristate (*F*–*P*). (*D*) Germinating

    spore. Hyphal elongation (*E*) without fatty acids and (*F*) with potassium myristate at 8 weeks

    after inoculation. (*G*) DPC-like structures formed around an inoculated spore. (*H*) Radial

    growth of fungal mycelium. (*I*) Elongation of runner hyphae. (*J*) Branching of runner hyphae

    and the formation of BAS. (*K*) Magnified image of BAS. (*L*) Front line of elongated mycelium.

    The medium around the fungal hyphae became transparent, indicating that the precipitates of

    metal soaps were solubilized. (*M*) Myristate-induced secondary spores generated around the

inoculated spores. (*N* and *O*) Myristate-induced spores formed along the runner hyphae. (*P*)

Magnified image of a myristate-induced spore. Fungal growth in the immobilized cell culture

system (*Q*) without fatty acids and (*R*) with potassium myristate at 8 weeks after inoculation.

See *SI Appendix* (Table S2) for sample details. BAS, branched absorbing structure; BH,

branching hypha; DPC, densely packed coil; MS, myristate-induced spore; P, precipitate of

metal soaps; PS, parent spore (inoculated spore); PT, Phytagel tablet; RH, runner hypha; and

SH, subtending hypha. Scale bars: 200 μm (*D–G* and *I–P*) and 1,000 μm (*H*, *Q*, and *R*).

Fig. 2. Spore formation of *R. irregularis* under asymbiotic conditions. (*A*) Number and (*B*)

diameter of myristate-induced spores generated in the solid medium containing different

concentrations of potassium myristate. Spore diameter was measured at 8 weeks after

inoculation. (*C*) Number of myristate-induced spores in an immobilized cell culture containing

0.5 mM potassium myristate and 5 mM monosaccharides at 8 weeks after inoculation. (*D–G*)

Inoculation of a single myristate-induced spore to carrot hairy roots. (*D*) Inoculated spore that

was produced in the immobilized cell culture containing potassium myristate and xylose. (*E*)

Germination of the inoculated spore. (*F*) Daughter spores (DS) on extraradical mycelia (ERM)

emerged from the carrot hairy roots. (*G*) Colonization of AM fungi in the carrot hairy roots.

Arrows indicate an inoculated myristate-induced spore. A, arbuscule; and V, vesicle. See *SI*

Appendix (Table S2) for sample details. Scale bars: 500 μm. Bars in *A* are standard errors of

means (*A*). For each boxplot, the boxes show the first, median, and third quartiles; the whiskers

extend to 1.5× interquartile range, and data points for each treatment are displayed. The same

lowercase letter indicates no significant difference (Tukey's test, $P < 0.05$, $n = 3–6$ (*A*) and $n =$

6 (*C*)).

Fig. 3. Utilization of fatty acids by *R. irregularis* under asymbiotic conditions. (*A*) Uptake of

the fluorescently labeled fatty acid derivative C_1-BODIPY 500/510 C_{12}. A cluster of BAS

(upper panels), magnified BAS (middle panels), and a single hypha of BAS (lower panels).

Optical sections captured using a confocal laser scanning microscope were projected.

Fluorescence images and superimposed bright field images were shown. BAS, branched

absorbing structure; and RH, runner hyphae. Scale bars, 200 μm. (*B*) ^{13}C-NMR spectra of

triacylglycerol isolated from mycelial extracts of *R. irregularis* grown in monoxenic root organ

culture (upper) and asymbiotic culture supplemented with 1 mM potassium [1-^{13}C$_1$]myristate

(lower). Inset: Chemical structure of a triacylglycerol. (*C*) Mass isotopomer distribution of

glucosamine derived from the fungal cell wall. *R. irregularis* was cultured in the solid medium

containing unlabeled or ^{13}C$_1$-labeled myristate ($n = 5$). *P* values are based on a *t*-test with the

Bonferroni correction. (*D*) ATP content in *R. irregularis* at 12 h after the application of

potassium myristate or DW (control) in the presence or absence of CCCP ($n = 4$). *P* values are

based on a *t*-test. (*E*) Gene expression analysis in *R. irregularis* at 3 h after the application of

potassium myristate shown by real-time RT-PCR. Relative expression ($\log_2$ fold change) was

normalized to water-treated samples (myristate treated: $n = 5$; water-treated: $n = 6$). *$P < 0.05$,

**$P < 0.01$, and ***$P < 0.001$ (*t*-test). See *SI Appendix* (Table S4) for gene details. GC,

glyoxylae cycle; GNG, gluconeogenesis. For each boxplot, the boxes show the first, median,

and third quartiles; the whiskers extend to 1.5× interquartile range, and data points for each

treatment are displayed (*C* and *D*). Mean ± s.d. (*E*).

Fig. 1

Fig. 2

Fig. 3