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3 DNA affinity purification sequencing and transcriptional profiling reveals 4 new aspects of nitrogen regulation in a filamentous fungus 5 6 Lori B. Huberman^{a,b,*}, Vincent W. Wu^{a,b}, David J. Kowbel^a, Juna Lee^c, Chris Daum^c, Igor 7 V. Grigoriev^{a,c,d}, Ronan C. O'Malley^{c,d}, and N. Louise Glass^{a,b,d,*} 8 9 ^aPlant and Microbial Biology Department and ^bEnergy Biosciences Institute University of California, Berkeley, CA USA 94720 10 11 ^cUS Department of Energy Joint Genome Institute and ^dEnvironmental Genomics and 12 Systems Biology Division Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory, Berkeley, CA USA 13 94720 14 15 *Corresponding authors: Lori B. Huberman 2151 Berkeley Way, rm. 420 16 17 University of California Berkeley Berkeley, CA 94704 18 19 **Email:** huberman@cornell.edu 20 N. Louise Glass 21 22 341A Koshland Hall 23 University of California Berkeley 24 Berkeley, CA 94720 25 Phone: 510-643-2546 26 Email: Lglass@berkeley.edu 27 28 ORCIDs 29 Lori B. Huberman: 0000-0003-2638-8528 30 Vincent W. Wu: 0000-0001-9973-2508 31 Chris Daum: 0000-0003-3895-5892 Igor V. Grigoriev: 0000-0002-3136-8903 32 Ronan C. O'Mallev: 0000-0002-4907-0339 33 N. Louise Glass: 0000-0002-4844-2890 34 35 36 Classification **Biological Sciences - Genetics** 37 38 39 **Keywords** transcriptional networks, nitrogen utilization, nutrient sensing, DAPseq, RNAseq 40 41 42 **Author Contributions** 43 L.B.H., V.W.W., R.C.O., I.V.G., and N.L.G. designed research; L.B.H., V.W.W., D.J.K., 44 J.L., C.D., and R.C.O. performed research; L.B.H., V.W.W., D.J.K., R.C.O., I.V.G., and 45 N.L.G. analyzed data; and L.B.H. and N.L.G. wrote the paper. 46 47 Supplementary materials for this manuscript include the following: 48 49 Supplementary Materials and Methods 1

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54 **ABSTRACT**

55 Sensing available nutrients and efficiently utilizing them is a challenge common to all organisms. The model filamentous fungus *Neurospora crassa* is 56 57 capable of utilizing a variety of inorganic and organic nitrogen sources. Nitrogen 58 utilization in *N. crassa* is regulated by a network of pathway-specific transcription 59 factors that activate genes necessary to utilize specific nitrogen sources in 60 combination with nitrogen catabolite repression regulatory proteins. We identified 61 an uncharacterized pathway-specific transcription factor, *amn-1*, that is required for 62 utilization of the nonpreferred nitrogen sources proline, branched chain amino 63 acids, and aromatic amino acids. AMN-1 also plays a role in regulating genes 64 involved in responding to the simple sugar mannose, suggesting an integration of 65 nitrogen and carbon metabolism. The utilization of nonpreferred nitrogen sources, 66 which require metabolic processing before being used as a nitrogen source, is also 67 regulated by the nitrogen catabolite regulator NIT-2. Using RNA sequencing 68 combined with DNA affinity purification sequencing, we performed a survey of the 69 role of NIT-2 and the pathway-specific transcription factors NIT-4 and AMN-1 in 70 directly regulating genes involved in nitrogen utilization. Although previous studies 71 suggested promoter binding by both a pathway-specific transcription factor and NIT-72 2 may be necessary for activation of nitrogen responsive genes, our data show that 73 pathway-specific transcription factors regulate genes involved in the catabolism of 74 specific nitrogen sources, while NIT-2 regulates genes involved in utilization of all 75 nonpreferred nitrogen sources, such as nitrogen transporters. Together, these 76 transcription factors form a nutrient sensing network that allows N. crassa cells to 77 regulate nitrogen utilization.

78 SIGNIFICANCE STATEMENT

79 Microorganisms have evolved transcriptional networks to prioritize utilization 80 of available nutrient sources. For filamentous fungi, such as *Neurospora crassa*, this 81 entails distinguishing between a variety of organic and inorganic nitrogen sources. 82 Here, we transcriptionally profiled the response of *N. crassa* to a variety of nitrogen 83 sources and used DNA affinity purification sequencing to characterize the role of 84 regulatory genes and their direct downstream targets. We identified a transcription factor responsible for regulating genes involved in amino acid and mannose 85 86 metabolism. By comparing the genes regulated by transcription factors that 87 regulate specific nitrogen utilization pathways and transcription factors that 88 regulate utilization of all nitrogen sources that require metabolic processing before 89 utilization, we revealed new aspects of the nitrogen regulatory network.

90 Main text

91 INTRODUCTION

92 Sensing available nutrients and efficiently utilizing them is a challenge 93 common to all organisms. In fungi, accurate nutrient sensing is important in the 94 establishment of fungal colonies and in continued, rapid fungal growth for the 95 exploitation of environmental resources. During fungal pathogenesis, mutations in 96 nutrient sensing and utilization pathways cause reduced virulence in plant and 97 human pathogenic fungi (1-3). Saprophytic and plant pathogenic fungi harvest their 98 nutrients from plants, where carbon is abundant. However, nitrogen is often a 99 limiting nutrient source for fungal cells (4).

100 Fungi are capable of scavenging nitrogen from a variety of sources, including 101 both inorganic and organic nitrogen sources. Utilization of different nitrogen sources 102 requires the activation of a number of different transporters and metabolic 103 enzymes. The fungal cell regulates the production of these proteins to ensure that 104 they are only produced when necessary for nitrogen utilization. The nitrogen 105 sources glutamine, glutamate, and ammonium are preferred in filamentous fungi 106 and are utilized first in a mixture of nitrogen sources (5). Fungi are also capable of 107 utilizing nitrate, nitrite, purines, amides, most amino acids, and proteins as nitrogen 108 sources. Uptake and catabolism of these secondary nitrogen sources is highly 109 regulated and requires the transcription of specific permeases and catabolic 110 enzymes. The repression of these genes when preferred nitrogen sources are 111 present is known as nitrogen catabolite repression (6).

Early work in the model filamentous fungus *Neurospora crassa* identified two genes that are required for nitrogen catabolite repression: *nit-2* (NCU09068) and *nmr* (NCU04158) (Fig. 1). The *nit-2* gene encodes a transcription factor that is

115 required for the expression of genes involved in the utilization of nitrate and a 116 number of amino and nucleic acids (7, 8). NMR represses the activity of NIT-2 when 117 preferred nitrogen sources are available (9-11). Much of the work exploring 118 regulation of this pathway focused on the nitrate reductase gene *nit-3* (NCU05298). 119 Activation of *nit-3* transcription requires two transcription factors: NIT-2 and NIT-4 120 (NCU08294) (12) (Fig. 1). NIT-4 is a pathway-specific transcription factor that specifically activates genes necessary for nitrate utilization (13). In the presence of 121 122 nitrate and absence of any preferred nitrogen sources, NIT-4 and NIT-2 promote expression of *nit-3* (12). When nitrate is present in combination with a preferred 123 124 nitrogen source, such as ammonium, NMR represses the activity of NIT-2, and *nit-3* 125 is not expressed (14).



126

Fig. 1. Regulation of *nit-3* expression in *N. crassa*. Both the transcription
factors NIT-2 and NIT-4 are required for *nit-3* expression. In the presence of nitrate,
NIT-4 promotes *nit-3* expression. NIT-2 promotes *nit-3* expression in the absence of
preferred nitrogen sources, such as ammonium. In the presence of preferred
nitrogen sources, NMR represses the activity of NIT-2, and *nit-3* is not expressed (6).
Utilization of nonpreferred organic nitrogen sources, such as amino and

134 nucleic acids is also thought to be regulated by NIT-2 in concert with pathway-

135 specific transcription factors that activate genes necessary to utilize specific

nitrogen sources (6). In *N. crassa* only a small number of these pathway-specific
transcription factors have been identified, such as the transcription factor required
for purine utilization, *pco-1* (NCU07669) (15). Although NIT-2 works in concert with
these pathway-specific transcription factors to promote utilization of nonpreferred
nitrogen sources, we do not understand how these transcription factors regulate
genes required for nitrogen utilization on a global scale.

142 In nature, N. crassa utilizes dead plant material, where carbon and nitrogen 143 sources occur in the matrix of the plant cell wall (16). We hypothesized that the 144 integration of carbon and nitrogen metabolism via nutrient sensing networks must 145 occur for optimal growth on these substrates. By combining RNA sequencing 146 (RNAseq) data from 12 different nitrogen sources with transcriptional profiling of N. 147 crassa on 40 different carbon sources (17), we identified and characterized a 148 pathway-specific transcription factor, amn-1 (NCU00445), that is required for the utilization of a number of amino acids, as well as for expression of genes in 149 150 response to the simple sugar mannose. DNA affinity purification sequencing 151 (DAPseq) (18) of AMN-1, NIT-2, and NIT-4 enabled us to identify the direct targets of 152 these transcription factors. Although previous studies suggested promoter binding 153 by both a pathway-specific transcription factor and NIT-2 may be necessary for 154 activation of nitrogen responsive genes (12, 19), our data suggest a model in which 155 pathway-specific transcription factors activate genes that encode enzymes required 156 for utilization of a specific nitrogen source, while NIT-2 regulates genes that are 157 required for general nitrogen metabolism, such as nitrogen transporters.

158 **RESULTS**

159 The zinc binuclear cluster transcription factor NCU00445 regulates genes

- 160 involved in mannan and mannose utilization
 - 7

To identify genes involved in nutrient sensing in filamentous fungi, we 161 162 exposed N. crassa to a diverse set of carbon sources and measured the 163 transcriptome using RNAseg (17). Transcription of the conserved zinc binuclear 164 cluster transcription factor NCU00445 was more than 4-fold higher during exposure 165 to 2mM mannose than 2% sucrose and less strongly induced on a number of other 166 hemicellulosic components (17). RNAseq data from wild type cells exposed to 167 mannose showed that the expression of 91 genes was at least 4-fold higher than 168 during exposure to carbon starvation (SI Appendix, Fig. S1A and Dataset S1) (17). If 169 NCU00445 is a positive regulator of the mannose response, we would expect the 170 expression of these genes to be reduced in cells lacking NCU00445 as compared to 171 wild type cells during exposure to mannose. Indeed, the expression of 83 of these 172 91 genes was at least 4-fold downregulated in Δ NCU00445 cells as compared to 173 wildtype (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S1 and Dataset S1).

174 The transcriptional response of cells lacking NCU00445 during exposure to 175 mannose led us to hypothesize that NCU00445 might play a role in mannose 176 utilization. Mannose-6-phosphate isomerase is the only enzyme necessary for 177 mannose utilization (20, 21). The N. crassa genome contains two mannose-6-178 phosphate isomerase genes, man-2 (NCU02322) and man-3 (NCU07165). The 179 expression of man-2 was reduced 6-fold in △NCU00445 cells as compared to 180 wildtype during exposure to mannose; the expression of man-3 was essentially 181 unchanged (SI Appendix, Fig. S2A). When wild type and Δ NCU00445 cells were 182 inoculated into media containing mannose as the carbon source, the growth of 183 Δ NCU00445 cells was indistinguishable from that of wild type cells, indicating that 184 NCU00445 was not required for mannose utilization (SI Appendix, Fig. S2B, S2C, and 185 Dataset S2).

186 Mannose is a building block of the complex carbohydrate mannan, which is a 187 component of the fungal cell wall and hemicellulose in the plant cell wall. Although 188 the N. crassa genome contains enzymes necessary for mannan degradation, N. 189 crassa is unable to grow on mannan alone (20, 22). The ability to grow on mannan 190 is enabled by constitutive expression of the transcription factor, CLR-2 (NCU08042), 191 which binds the promoter and regulates the expression of an extracellular endo- β -192 1,4-mannanase qh5-7 (NCU08412) and predicted β -mannosidase qh2-1 (NCU00890) 193 (17, 20, 23). The expression of both qh5-7 and qh2-1 was more than 3-fold lower in 194 ANCU00445 cells than wild type under mannose conditions. However, unlike with 195 clr-2, increasing the expression of NCU00445 by 2.4-fold by placing it under the 196 control of the gpd-1 (NCU01528) promoter did not allow N. crassa cells to grow on 197 mannan (SI Appendix, Fig. S2C, S2D, and Dataset S2).

Deletion of NCU00445 caused the expression of 335 genes to be altered by more than 4-fold as compared to wildtype during exposure to mannose (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S1 and Dataset S1). However, aside from genes involved in mannose or mannan utilization, only 15 additional carbohydrate active enzymes were regulated by NCU00445 in response to mannose, the majority of which were involved in hemicellulose degradation (Dataset S1).

204 NCU00445 is required for utilization of a variety of amino acids as a

205 nitrogen source

To identify direct targets of NCU00445, we performed DAPseq, a technique that uses DNA sequencing to identify target sites in genomic DNA bound by *in vitro* synthesized transcription factors (18). Using DAPseq, we identified 296 NCU00445 DNA binding sites within 3000 base pairs upstream of a translational start site of 209 genes (Dataset S3). Surprisingly, none of the promoters of genes involved in

mannose or mannan utilization were bound by NCU00445. Additionally, KEGG
categories associated with carbon metabolism were not enriched in the set of 290
genes whose promoters were bound by NCU00445 (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S3A and
Dataset S3).

215 To identify cellular processes directly regulated by NCU00445, we used 216 functional enrichment analysis (24). Of the 335 genes that were at least 4-fold 217 differentially expressed between wild type and $\Delta NCU00445$ cells during exposure to 218 mannose, 40 had promoters directly bound by NCU00445 (SI Appendix, Fig. S4 and 219 Dataset S3). NCU00445 also bound its own promoter. Because we used 220 transcriptional profiling of cells lacking NCU00445 to identify genes that were 221 directly regulated by NCU00445, we were unable to conclusively determine whether 222 NCU00445 regulated its own expression; we included NCU00445 in our list of 223 NCU00445 direct targets. Functional enrichment analysis of the entire set of 335 224 genes (plus NCU00445 itself) showed enrichment for genes involved in valine, 225 leucine, and isoleucine degradation and biosynthesis, alanine, aspartate, and 226 glutamate metabolism, tryptophan metabolism and degradation of aromatic 227 compounds, pentose and glucuronate interconversions, and biosynthesis of 228 secondary metabolites (SI Appendix, Fig. S3B). Among the 41 genes whose 229 promoters were bound by NCU00445, we observed an enrichment for valine, 230 leucine, and isoleucine degradation and biosynthesis, tyrosine metabolism, and 231 thiamine metabolism (SI Appendix, Fig. S3C). Because mannose may not be the 232 only condition in which NCU00445 plays a role, we investigated the KEGG pathways 233 that were enriched amongst all 290 genes whose promoters were bound by 234 NCU00445 and found enrichment for branched chain amino acid degradation, 235 tyrosine, phenylalanine, cysteine, methionine, and thiamine metabolism, and

ubiquinone and other terpenoid-quinone biosynthesis (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S3A). These
data indicated a potential role for NCU00445 in directly regulating amino acid
metabolism.

239 Since the NCU00445 mutant grew without amino acid supplements (SI 240 Appendix, Fig. S2B, S2C, and Dataset S2), we hypothesized that NCU00445 may be 241 required for utilization of amino acids as a nitrogen source. To test this hypothesis, 242 we grew wild type and $\Delta NCU00445$ cells on media containing individual amino acids 243 as the sole nitrogen source. As a control we included $\Delta nit-2$ cells, which are not able 244 to utilize many amino acids as a nitrogen source, since wild type cells are not able 245 to utilize every nitrogen source equally well (8) (Fig. 2A, SI Appendix, Fig. S5A, S5B, 246 and Dataset S2). Biomass measurements of the NCU00445 deletion mutant in 3 ml 247 and 100ml cultures showed Δ NCU00445 cells had growth defects on proline, 248 phenylalanine, tryptophan, isoleucine, leucine, and threonine (Fig. 2A, SI Appendix, 249 Fig. S5A, S5B, and Dataset S2). Expressing NCU00445 from the *gpd-1* promoter in 250 cells lacking NCU00445, mitigated growth defects on proline, isoleucine, and 251 tryptophan (SI Appendix, Fig. S2D, S5B, and Dataset S2). Because NCU00445 was 252 required for amino acid catabolism, we named NCU00445 amn-1 for "amino acid utilization-1". 253





269

270 AMN-1 regulates genes encoding enzymes required for the catabolism of 271 amino acids

To further investigate the role of AMN-1 in amino acid utilization, we first transcriptionally profiled the response of wild type cells to a panel of 12 nitrogen conditions to identify genes involved in the utilization of amino acids. These nitrogen conditions included: nitrogen starvation, ammonium nitrate, preferred nitrogen sources (ammonium, glutamate, and glutamine), and non-preferred nitrogen sources (nitrate, alanine, arginine, proline, glycine, isoleucine, and tryptophan) covering a range of metabolic pathways (21).

279 Analysis of the expression of genes involved in nitrogen metabolism and the 280 metabolism of amino acids across the nitrogen panel revealed that many genes 281 involved in the metabolism of a specific nitrogen source were upregulated on that 282 nitrogen source (Fig. 2B and Dataset S1). For example, the expression of the nitrate 283 reductase nit-3, the nitrite reductase nit-6 (NCU04720), the nitrate transporter nit-284 10 (NCU07205), and the FMN-dependent 2-nitropropane dioxygenase npd-1 285 (NCU03949) all showed increased expression levels on nitrate. Similarly, the 286 expression of genes involved in tryptophan and guinate metabolism, such as the 287 kynureninase gene kyn-1 (NCU09183) and the indoleamine 2,3-dioxygenase genes 288 iad-1 (NCU09184) and iad-2 (NCU01402), was highest on tryptophan (Dataset S1). 289 Exposure to glycine resulted in the upregulation of a large number of genes. 290 These included genes involved in glycine metabolism, such as gly-3 (NCU02727), 291 gyd-1 (NCU02475), oxD (NCU06558), and NCU03761, but also genes involved in the 292 metabolism of a variety of other amino acids (Fig. 2B and Dataset S1) (25). This 293 result may indicate that since cells rarely see glycine in isolation from other amino

294 acids, the presence of glycine activated expression of genes involved in a variety of 295 amino acid utilization pathways. We asked whether genes from a variety of 296 metabolic pathways were expressed during exposure to other amino acids. Indeed, 297 when the expression pattern of genes in KEGG metabolic pathways was analyzed, it 298 became clear that genes in a KEGG pathway associated with the metabolism of a 299 particular amino acid were not specifically upregulated in response to that nutrient 300 (Fig. 2B). Additionally, hierarchical clustering of gene expression across our panel of 301 nitrogen sources did not show discrete clusters of genes in a particular KEGG 302 pathway (Fig. 2B).

303 To identify genes specifically regulated by AMN-1, we exposed the $\Delta amn-1$ 304 mutant to media containing proline and the aromatic and branched chain amino 305 acids for which $\Delta amn-1$ cells showed the most severe growth defects, tryptophan 306 and isoleucine, respectively (Fig. 2A. SI Appendix, Fig. S5A, S5B, and Dataset S2). 307 To control for growth defects of $\Delta amn-1$ cells under these conditions, we grew wild type and $\Delta amn-1$ cells in media containing ammonium nitrate as the nitrogen 308 309 source, washed the mycelial mass in media lacking a nitrogen source, and 310 transferred the mycelial cell mass into media containing the experimental nitrogen 311 source for 4h prior to harvesting for RNAseq.

312 We first investigated mechanisms of AMN-1-mediated regulation of proline 313 catabolism. Functional enrichment analysis of the 57 genes that were at least 4-fold 314 differentially expressed between $\Delta amn-1$ and wild type cells during exposure to 315 proline showed significant enrichment for valine, leucine, and isoleucine 316 degradation, β -alanine metabolism, tyrosine metabolism, phenylalanine 317 metabolism, and glycerolipid metabolism (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S6A and Dataset S1). 318 Eight of the 57 genes had promoters bound by AMN-1, including the homogentisate

1,2-dioxygenase NCU05499 and the dimethylallyl tryptophan synthase NCU12075,
both predicted to be involved in aromatic amino acid metabolism, and the
promoters of three genes predicted to be involved in branched chain amino acid
metabolism: the branched-chain α-keto acid dehydrogenase E2 component
NCU02704, the isovaleryl-CoA dehydrogenase NCU02126, and the methylcrotonoylCoA carboxylase β subunit *mcc-2* (NCU02127) (Fig. 3, 4A, *SI Appendix*, Fig. S4, S5*C*,
and Dataset S1).



326

327 Fig. 3. NIT-2 regulates transporters and genes associated with general

328 nitrogen metabolism while pathway specific transcription factors activate

329 genes that are required for utilization of a specific nitrogen source. Plot

- built with Circos, version 0.69 (26) to display the regulation of genes whose
- 331 promoters were bound and whose expression was regulated by AMN-1, NIT-2, or
- 332 NIT-4 when cells were exposed to the indicated conditions. Regulated genes were at

333 least 4-fold differentially expressed between wild type and $\Delta amn-1$, $\Delta nit-2$, or $\Delta nit-4$ 334 cells. Genes encoding transporters are highlighted in yellow. Solid lines indicate 335 genes that were activated by AMN-1, NIT-2, or NIT-4. Dotted lines indicate genes 336 that were repressed by AMN-1, NIT-2, or NIT-4.



337

338 Fig. 4. Regulation of amino acid utilization by AMN-1 and NIT-2 occurs through different genetic pathways. A-C. Differential expression analysis of 339 $\Delta amn-1$ relative to wild type cells after a shift to (**A**) 50mM proline, (**B**) 50mM 340 341 tryptophan, and (C) 50mM isoleucine. Green circles indicate genes whose 342 promoters were bound by AMN-1. Dotted lines indicate 4-fold change in expression. 343 **D.** Heatmap of the expression level of the 176 genes that were at least 4-fold 344 differentially expressed between wild type and $\Delta nit-2$ cells exposed to 50mM proline, 50mM isoleucine, or 50mM tryptophan plus *nit-2* itself. Purple bars indicate 345 genes whose promoters were bound by NIT-2. Green bars indicate genes that were 346 347 differentially expressed between wild type and $\Delta nit-2$ cells exposed to proline plus 348 *nit-2*. Pink bars indicate genes that were differentially expressed between wild type 349 and $\Delta nit-2$ cells exposed to tryptophan plus *nit-2*. Yellow bars indicate genes that 16

were differentially expressed between wild type and ∆*nit-2* cells exposed to
isoleucine plus *nit-2*. Numbers above each column indicate the total number of
genes in each category.

353

354 The remaining genes whose promoters were bound by AMN-1 included the 355 proline oxidase pro-7 (NCU02936), which is predicted to catalyze the first step in 356 proline degradation. S. cerevisiae cells lacking the pro-7 ortholog, PUT1 are unable 357 to utilize proline as a nitrogen source (27). In N. crassa, cells lacking pro-7 showed a 358 severe growth defect when provided proline as the sole nitrogen source (SI 359 Appendix, Fig. S7A, S7B, and Dataset S2). We hypothesized that the reduced 360 expression of *pro-7* in the *amn-1* deletion mutant might be at least partially 361 responsible for the inability of $\Delta amn-1$ cells to utilize proline. To test this, we asked 362 whether expression of pro-7 under the regulation of the constitutive *qpd-1* promoter 363 restored growth in cells lacking *amn-1* (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S7C and Dataset S2). Indeed, P_{apd-1} -pro-7 $\Delta amn-1$ cells grew significantly better than the $\Delta amn-1$ mutant 364 365 when proline was provided as the sole nitrogen source, indicating that reduced 366 expression of pro-7 in cells lacking amn-1 was at least partially responsible for the 367 inability of $\Delta amn-1$ cells to utilize proline (SI Appendix, Fig. S7A, S7B, and Dataset S2). 368

Although cells lacking *amn-1* had a severe growth defect on media containing
tryptophan as the sole nitrogen source, only 16 genes were at least 4-fold
differentially expressed in *∆amn-1* cells as compared to wildtype (Fig. 4*B*, *SI Appendix*, Fig. S5*C*, and Dataset S1). Of these 16 genes, the promoters of 12 were
bound by AMN-1 (Fig. 3, 4*B*, *SI Appendix*, Fig. S4, and S5*C*). Five of the genes whose
promoters were bound by AMN-1 and whose expression was regulated by AMN-1 in

375 response to tryptophan were predicted to be involved in aromatic amino acid

376 metabolism: the flavoprotein oxygenase *fpo-1* (NCU00236), the

377 fumarylacetoacetase fah-1 (NCU05537), the homogentisate 1,2-dioxygenase

378 NCU05499, the 4-hydroxyphenylpyruvate dioxygenase hpd-1 (NCU01830), and a

379 hypothetical protein NCU01829 predicted to be involved in tyrosine catabolism. N.

380 crassa cells lacking fah-1 had a slight growth defect on tryptophan (SI Appendix,

381 Fig. S7D, S7E, and Dataset S2). However, deletion of NCU05499 did not significantly

382 affect growth on tryptophan, suggesting that the mechanism by which AMN-1

383 regulated tryptophan metabolism may be through a complex combination of genes

384 (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S7D, S7E, and Dataset S2). The remaining genes whose

385 promoters were bound by AMN-1 and regulated by AMN-1 in response to tryptophan

386 were involved in either proline metabolism: *pro-7* and the pyrroline 5-carboxylate

387 dehydrogenase *pcd-2* (NCU03076); or branched chain amino acid metabolism: the

388 branched chain amino acid aminotransferase val-1 (NCU04292), the 2-

389 oxoisovalerate dehydrogenase β subunit *ovd-2* (NCU03913), *mcc-2*, NCU02704, and
390 NCU02126 (Fig. 3, 4B, SI Appendix, Fig. S4, S5C, and Dataset S1).

391 Cells lacking *amn-1* also had a growth defect when branched chain amino 392 acids were provided as the nitrogen source (Fig. 2A, SI Appendix, Fig. S5A, S5B, and 393 Dataset S2). The expression of 17 genes was at least 4-fold differentially expressed 394 between wild type and $\Delta amn-1$ cells during exposure to media containing isoleucine 395 as the nitrogen source, and the promoters of 14 of these genes were bound by 396 AMN-1 (Fig. 3, 4C, SI Appendix, Fig. S4, S5C, and Dataset S1). Six of these 14 genes 397 play a role in branched chain amino acid metabolism, including the 2-oxoisovalerate 398 dehydrogenase α and β subunits ovd-1 (NCU09864) and ovd-2; the methylcrotonoyl-CoA carboxylase α and β subunits *mcc-1* (NCU00591) and *mcc-2*; NCU02704; and 399

400 NCU02126. Additionally, both *pro-7* and *pcd-2*, necessary for proline catabolism,
401 and *fah-1*, *hpd-1*, NCU05499, and NCU01829, involved in aromatic amino acid
402 metabolism were regulated by AMN-1 in response to isoleucine and had promoters
403 bound by AMN-1 (Fig. 3, 4*C*, *SI Appendix*, Fig. S4, S5*C*, and Dataset S1).

404 To comprehensively identify genes regulated directly by AMN-1, we cross 405 referenced the 290 genes with AMN-1 binding sites in the promoter region identified 406 by DAPseq, with genes that were differentially expressed by at least 4-fold across 407 our RNAseq experiments. Although it is likely that AMN-1 regulates additional genes 408 during exposure to conditions or at time points we did not test by RNAseq, we 409 identified 43 genes that were regulated by AMN-1 during exposure to mannose, 410 proline, tryptophan, or isoleucine and whose promoters were bound by AMN-1 (Fig. 411 3, *SI Appendix*, Fig. S4, and Dataset S3). Supporting our hypothesis that AMN-1 is 412 required for utilization of a variety amino acids, functional analysis of these 43 413 genes (plus *amn-1* itself) showed enrichment for genes involved in valine, leucine, 414 and isoleucine degradation and biosynthesis, tyrosine metabolism, and thiamine 415 metabolism (SI Appendix, Fig. S3C). Using the 45 promoter binding sites found in 416 these 44 genes, we identified a consensus binding motif KCGGYTWKYRKCGGCHWW 417 for AMN-1 (SI Appendix, Fig. S8A). This motif provided additional specificity to the 418 NNCGGNNNNN motif identified in a broad survey of transcription factor binding 419 motifs (28). As expected, AMN-1 only bound a small subset of the 2189 locations 420 where the KCGGYTWKYRKCGGCHWW motif was identified in *N. crassa* promoters 421 (Dataset S4) (29).

The nitrogen catabolite repressor NIT-2 regulates genes necessary for nitrogen import and enzymes responsible for amino acid utilization

424 NIT-2 is a conserved GATA-type transcription factor responsible for regulating 425 genes involved in utilizing nonpreferred nitrogen sources in filamentous fungi (6). 426 Although initially identified for its role in promoting nitrate utilization in *N. crassa*, 427 early studies also found NIT-2 is necessary for growth when a variety of amino and 428 nucleic acids are provided as the nitrogen source (8). Unlike cells lacking nit-2, the 429 $\Delta amn-1$ mutant exhibited normal growth when nitrate was provided as the nitrogen 430 source (Fig. 2A and Dataset S2). Similarly, amn-1 is not required for growth on 431 nucleic acids (SI Appendix, Fig. S5A, S5B, and Dataset S2). When exposed to amino 432 acids, there was significant overlap in the substrates that caused growth defects of 433 $\Delta amn-1$ cells as compared to $\Delta nit-2$ cells but also a number of notable differences. 434 In particular, $\Delta nit-2$ cells had a more severe growth phenotype than $\Delta amn-1$ cells 435 during exposure to glutamic acid, glycine, isoleucine, leucine, valine, phenylalanine, 436 lysine, methionine, serine, and threonine while the reverse was true for tryptophan (p_{adi}<0.05) (Fig. 2A, SI Appendix, Fig. S5A, S5B, and Dataset S2). These data 437 438 indicated that NIT-2 has a broader role in nitrogen metabolism than AMN-1. 439 Because of the expanded role of NIT-2 relative to AMN-1 with respect to 440 nitrogen metabolism, we hypothesized that AMN-1 and NIT-2 may not act through 441 the same pathway to regulate nitrogen metabolism. To test this hypothesis, we 442 performed RNAseq on cells lacking *nit-2* under the same nitrogen conditions that we 443 tested $\Delta amn-1$ cells (proline, tryptophan, and isoleucine), as well as exposure to 444 nitrate and ammonium nitrate. To complement these transcriptional profiling 445 experiments, we also performed DAPseq on NIT-2 to identify genes whose 446 promoters were bound by NIT-2. Using DAPseq, we identified 354 NIT-2 binding sites 447 in the putative promoter regions of 344 genes (Dataset S3). By comparing these 344 genes to the differentially expressed genes (at least 4-fold) between wild type 448

and ∆*nit-2* cells during exposure to nitrate, ammonium nitrate, proline, tryptophan,
or isoleucine, we identified the direct regulation of 33 of these genes by NIT-2 (Fig.
3, Datasets S1, and S3).

452 The expression of 176 genes differed by at least 4-fold in wildtype as 453 compared to $\Delta nit-2$ cells during exposure to media containing proline, tryptophan, 454 or isoleucine as the nitrogen source (Fig. 4D, SI Appendix, Fig. S9A-C, and Dataset 455 S1). Functional analysis of these 176 genes showed enrichment for genes involved 456 in the metabolism of a number of amino acids, including glycine, serine, threonine, 457 tyrosine, phenylalanine, arginine, proline, and β -alanine. We also observed an 458 enrichment for glyoxylate and dicarboxylate metabolism as well as for carbon and 459 nitrogen metabolism generally (SI Appendix, Fig. S6C). Of these 176 genes, the 460 promoters of 22 were bound by NIT-2 (Fig. 3, 4D, SI Appendix, Fig. S9A-C, Datasets 461 S1, and S3). Fully half of these 22 genes encoded transporters, suggesting that NIT-462 2 may regulate nitrogen metabolism primarily by regulating import of nitrogen substrates (Fig. 3, SI Appendix, Fig. S9A-C, and Dataset S1). 463

464 To further explore these data, we first analyzed the 13 genes directly 465 regulated by NIT-2 in response to proline, tryptophan, and isoleucine. Consistent 466 with the role of NIT-2 functioning as a transcriptional activator (6), the expression of 467 all 13 genes was downregulated in the $\Delta nit-2$ mutant as compared to wildtype (Fig. 468 3, 4D, and Dataset S1). Nine of these 13 genes encoded for transporters, including the general amino acid permease aap-22 (NCU04435) and the oligopeptide 469 470 transporter opt-1 (NCU09773) (Fig. 3 and Dataset S1). The expression of both of 471 these transporters was reduced by more than 80-fold to an FPKM of less than 1 in 472 cells lacking *nit-2* as compared to wild type cells when exposed to proline, tryptophan, or isoleucine (Dataset S1). This dramatic reduction in expression may at 473

474 least partially explain the inability of $\Delta nit-2$ cells to grow on many amino acids as the sole nitrogen source. Previously posited to be regulated by NIT-2 (30, 31), the 475 476 uracil permease uc-5 (NCU07334) promoter was bound by and transcription of uc-5477 was activated by NIT-2. NIT-2 also directly regulated the purine permease pup-2478 (NCU06918) and the H+/nucleoside cotransporter NCU08148 (Fig. 3 and Dataset 479 S1). The regulation of these three nucleotide transporters may at least partially 480 explain the role of NIT-2 in utilizing nucleotides as a nitrogen source (6). Urea 481 uptake is also under the control of nitrogen catabolite repression (32); the urea 482 transporter *urt* (NCU09909) was directly regulated by NIT-2 (Fig. 3 and Dataset S1). 483 Consistent with its role in regulating the utilization of nonpreferred nitrogen sources 484 in the presence of preferred nitrogen sources such as ammonium (6), the 485 ammonium transporter tam-4 (NCU01065) was also directly regulated by NIT-2. 486 Additionally, NIT-2 regulated the expression and bound the promoters of the high 487 affinity nickel transporter trm-34 (NCU08225) and the MFS transporter NCU08407 488 (Fig. 3 and Dataset S1).

489 Four other genes downregulated in $\Delta nit-2$ cells as compared to wild type cells 490 during exposure to proline, tryptophan, and isoleucine and whose promoters were 491 bound by NIT-2 encoded enzymes important for amino and nucleic acid 492 degradation. Unlike AMN-1, which mainly regulated the expression of enzymes 493 important for utilizing a particular amino acid or class of amino acids, NIT-2 494 regulated the transcription of genes that encoded enzymes involved in more 495 general metabolic pathways (Fig. 3). These included the agmatinase put-3 496 (NCU01348), an enzyme involved in the catabolism of amino groups, and the 497 formamidase *fma-1* (NCU02361), which participates in glyoxylate and dicarboxylate 498 metabolism and may play a role in tryptophan metabolism. NIT-2 also directly

regulated two genes involved in nucleic acid metabolism: the thymine dioxygenase *uc-3* (NCU06416) and the uracil-5-carboxylate decarboxylase *uc-7* (NCU06417) (33,
34) (Fig. 3 and Dataset S1).

502 Nine genes whose promoters were bound by NIT-2 were differentially 503 expressed in a $\Delta nit-2$ mutant as compared to wildtype when exposed to one or two 504 amino acids as nitrogen sources (Fig. 3, 4D, and Dataset S1). Several of these 505 genes play a general role in amino acid utilization, including the general amino acid 506 permease pmg (NCU03509), the APC amino acid permease aap-9 (NCU07175) (35), 507 and the Glu/Leu/Phe/Val dehydrogenase am (NCU01195) (32, 36, 37). Two genes 508 played a role in purine catabolism: the allantoinase *aln-1* (NCU02296) and the uracil 509 phosphoribosyltransferase uc-8 (NCU06261) (38). Taken together these data 510 indicated that NIT-2 primarily functions to regulate genes, such as transporters, that 511 have a general effect on the metabolism of a variety of amino acids rather than 512 regulating genes directly involved in the utilization of specific amino acids.

513 NIT-2 regulation in response to nitrate

A large number of genes that did not have a direct connection to amino acid catabolism were directly regulated by NIT-2 in response to amino acids (Fig. 3 and Dataset S1). As NIT-2 regulates the utilization of nonpreferred inorganic nitrogen sources, such as nitrate (6), we hypothesized that the expression of these genes may also be activated by NIT-2 when cells are exposed to nitrate.

To test this hypothesis, we transferred wild type and Δnit -2 cells to media containing nitrate and did RNAseq to measure global gene expression. The expression of 113 genes differed by at least 4-fold between wild type and Δnit -2 cells 4h post-shift to nitrate (Fig. 5A, *SI Appendix*, Fig. S9D, and Dataset S1). Functional analysis of these genes showed an enrichment for genes involved in

524 nitrogen metabolism and ribosome biogenesis (SI Appendix, Fig. S6D). Over 40% of 525 the genes regulated by NIT-2 during exposure to nitrate were also regulated by NIT-526 2 during exposure to proline, tryptophan, or isoleucine, including 13 genes that 527 encoded for transporters (Dataset S1). To distinguish between genes that NIT-2 528 directly, as opposed to indirectly, regulated in response to nitrate, we compared the 529 genes that were differentially expressed between wild type cells and cells lacking 530 nit-2 during exposure to nitrate with genes whose promoters were bound by NIT-2. 531 We identified 22 genes directly regulated by NIT-2 in response to nitrate, all of 532 which were downregulated in $\Delta nit-2$ cells as compared to wildtype (Fig. 3, 5A, SI 533 Appendix, Fig. S9D, Datasets S1, and S3). These 22 genes included 12 of the 13 534 genes that were differentially expressed in $\Delta nit-2$ cells in response to proline, 535 tryptophan, and isoleucine as compared to wild type cells and whose promoters 536 were bound by NIT-2, with only *fma-1* not represented. The promoter of an additional gene, aln-1 was bound by NIT-2, and aln-1 was differentially expressed 537 during exposure to nitrate, isoleucine, and tryptophan in $\Delta nit-2$ as compared to wild 538 type cells (Fig. 3, Datasets S1, and S3). 539





541 Fig. 5. NMR and NIT-4 activate genes during starvation conditions. A. 542 Differential expression analysis of $\Delta nit-2$ relative to wild type cells after a shift to 50mM nitrate. Green squares indicate genes whose promoters are bound by NIT-2. 543 544 Purple pentagons indicate genes predicted to encode nitrogen transporters. Dotted 545 lines indicate 4-fold change in expression. **B.** Heatmap of the expression level of the 546 60 genes that were at least 4-fold differentially expressed between wild type and 547 ∆*nmr* cells exposed to 25mM ammonium nitrate plus *nmr* itself. Upper heatmap includes genes repressed by NMR. Lower heatmap includes genes activated by NMR 548 plus *nmr* itself. Purple bars indicate genes whose promoters were bound by NIT-2. 549 550 Green bars indicate genes that were differentially expressed between *Anit-2* and 551 wild type cells exposed to 25mM ammonium nitrate. Yellow bars indicate genes that 552 were differentially expressed between $\Delta nit-2$ and wild type cells exposed to 50mM 553 nitrate. Numbers above each column indicate the total number of genes in each 554 category. **C.** Differential expression analysis of Δnmr relative to wild type cells after

555 a shift to nitrogen starvation. Green squares indicate genes whose promoters were bound by NIT-2. Red circles indicate genes whose promoters were bound by NIT-4. 556 557 Dotted lines indicate 4-fold change in expression. **D.** Differential expression analysis 558 of $\Delta nit-4$ relative to wild type cells after a shift to 50mM nitrate. Red circles indicate 559 genes whose promoters were bound by NIT-4. Dotted lines indicate 4-fold change in 560 expression. E. Heatmap of the expression level of the set of genes that were at 561 least 4-fold differentially expressed between wild type and $\Delta nit-4$ cells exposed to 562 nitrogen starvation. Upper heatmap includes genes repressed by NIT-4. Lower 563 heatmap includes genes activated by NIT-4. Green bars indicate genes whose 564 promoters were bound by NIT-4. Yellow bars indicate genes differentially expressed 565 between Δnmr and wild type cells exposed to nitrogen starvation. Numbers above 566 each column indicate the total number of genes in each category.

567

568 We investigated the 9 genes whose promoters were bound by NIT-2 and 569 whose expression was regulated by NIT-2 in response to nitrate but not proline, 570 tryptophan, or isoleucine. Two of these genes were specifically involved in nitrate 571 utilization: the nitrite reductase *nit-6* and the nitrate transporter *nit-10* (6). The 572 promoter of the ammonium transporter tam-1 (NCU03257) was also bound by NIT-573 2, and *tam-1* expression was regulated by NIT-2 during exposure to nitrate. The 574 majority of the remaining genes were involved in functions relating to the ribosome 575 (Fig. 3 and Dataset S1). To our surprise, although previous studies identified NIT-2 576 binding sites in the *nit-3* promoter, we did not find NIT-2 bound to the *nit-3* 577 promoter using DAPseq (12, 39). Since DAPseq is an *in vitro* method of identifying 578 transcription factor binding sites, this may suggest that DNA modification or additional proteins are required to facilitate NIT-2 binding in some promoter regions. 579

580 Using the 38 NIT-2 binding sites in the promoters of these 33 directly 581 regulated genes, we identified a consensus binding motif for NIT-2 (HGATAAGV) that 582 had similarity to the binding motif identified in a broad survey of eukaryotic 583 transcription factors (NNGATHNN) as well as other GATA transcription factor motifs, 584 including the binding motif of the NIT-2 S. cerevisiae homolog Gln3 (28, 40-42) (SI 585 Appendix, Fig. S8B). Prior work investigating the nucleotide sequence of the NIT-2 586 binding site in specific promoters, rather than globally, suggested a highly similar 587 binding motif (43-45). This motif was present 804 times in the promoter regions of 588 N. crassa genes, indicating that NIT-2 did not bind to every HGATAAGV motif in the 589 genome (Dataset S4).

590 The transcriptional repressor NMR acts as an activator under nitrogen 591 starvation conditions

Regulation of nitrate utilization is accomplished through the interactions of NIT-2, NIT-4 and NMR (6) (Fig. 1). Previous work characterizing the regulation of the nitrate reductase gene *nit-3* showed that NIT-4 promotes expression of *nit-3* in the presence of nitrate (46). If nitrate is present in the absence of a preferred nitrogen source, NIT-2 also promotes expression of *nit-3*. However, when preferred nitrogen sources are present, the activity of NIT-2 is repressed by NMR (11), and *nit-3* is not expressed (6) (Fig. 1).

599 Our data showed that the expression of three genes required for nitrate 600 utilization, *nit-3*, the nitrite reductase gene *nit-6*, and the nitrate transporter *nit-10* 601 was negligible in wild type cells exposed to media containing the preferred nitrogen 602 source ammonium (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S10A and Dataset S1). Exposure of wild type 603 cells to media containing nitrate increased expression of *nit-3*, *nit-6*, and *nit-10* by 604 over 6-fold. Deletion of either *nit-2* or *nit-4* resulted in a more than 4-fold drop in

expression of *nit-3*, *nit-6*, and *nit-10* under nitrate conditions. Upon exposure to
media containing both ammonium and nitrate, expression of *nit-3*, *nit-6*, and *nit-10*dropped by nearly 2-fold as compared to exposure to nitrate alone in wild type cells
in an NMR-dependent fashion (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S10*A* and Dataset S1). These data
broadly supported the model of nitrate utilization developed using classical genetics
(Fig. 1).

611 To investigate the role of the nitrogen repressor, NMR, we exposed wild type 612 cells and cells lacking *nmr* to media containing both nitrate and ammonium. The 613 expression of 60 genes was at least 4-fold differentially expressed between wild 614 type and Δnmr cells (Fig. 5B, SI Appendix, Fig. S10B, and Dataset S1). Functional 615 analysis showed an enrichment for genes involved in the metabolism of a number of 616 amino acids, including arginine, proline, glycine, serine, threonine, phenylalanine, 617 tyrosine, alanine, aspartate, glutamate, β -alanine, and cyanoamino acids (SI 618 Appendix, Fig. S10C). As expected, all 10 genes bound by NIT-2 and differentially 619 expressed between wild type and Δnmr cells during exposure to ammonium nitrate 620 were more highly expressed in Δnmr cells, providing confirmation of the role of NMR 621 in repressing NIT-2 activity (Fig. 5B, SI Appendix, Fig. S10B, and Dataset S1). 622 Although NMR is canonically only thought to act through NIT-2, only 11 genes were 623 at least 4-fold differentially expressed between both wild type and Δnmr cells 624 exposed to ammonium nitrate and wild type and $\Delta nit-2$ cells exposed to nitrate, 625 suggesting that NMR may have another role in transcriptional regulation (Fig. 5B 626 and Dataset S1). For example, while many of the 60 genes regulated by NMR were 627 predicted to play a role in nitrogen metabolism, there were also a significant 628 number of genes involved in carbon metabolism, including genes encoding 629 carbohydrate active enzymes and sugar transporters (Dataset S1). These data

630 suggested a role for NMR in regulating carbon utilization as well as nitrogen631 utilization.

632 Our data supported the role of NMR as a transcriptional repressor. Of the 60 633 genes that were differentially expressed by at least 4-fold between wild type and 634 △*nmr* cells, 43 were more highly expressed in cells lacking *nmr* (Fig. 5B SI Appendix, 635 Fig. S10B, and Dataset S1). However, the carbon catabolite repressor cre-1 636 (NCU08807) acts as a repressor when preferred carbon sources are available but as 637 an activator during carbon starvation (47). We hypothesized that *nmr* might 638 similarly function as an activator during nitrogen starvation. To test this hypothesis, 639 we performed RNAseg on wild type and Δnmr cells during exposure to media lacking 640 a nitrogen source. Seventy genes were differentially expressed (at least 4-fold) 641 between wild type and Δnmr cells, and of these, 60 were downregulated in cells 642 lacking *nmr* (Fig. 5*C*, *SI Appendix*, Fig. S10*D*, and Dataset S1). Two of the three 643 most highly downregulated genes were *nit-3* and *nit-6*, which were expressed more 644 than 32-fold higher in wild type cells than Δnmr cells during nitrogen starvation (SI 645 Appendix, Fig. S10A and Dataset S1). Other genes downregulated in the Δnmr 646 mutant during nitrogen starvation included the nitrate transporter *nit-10* and genes 647 involved in amino acid metabolism. Only nine genes were differentially expressed in 648 the Δnmr mutant as compared to wild type during nitrogen starvation and in media 649 containing ammonium nitrate (Dataset S1). This result could be because NMR plays 650 a role in regulating nitrogen metabolism overall, not simply the interplay between 651 nitrate and ammonium.

652 **NIT-4 directly activates genes necessary for nitrate utilization in response** 653 **to nitrate and nitrogen starvation**

654 Along with NIT-2, the transcription factor NIT-4 is required for expression of 655 genes necessary to utilize nitrate (Fig. 1) (6). We hypothesized that the interplay of 656 NIT-2 and NIT-4 may be similar to that of NIT-2 and AMN-1, with NIT-2 mainly 657 directly regulating genes involved in general nitrogen metabolism while NIT-4 658 directly regulates the enzymes required for nitrate utilization. To test this 659 hypothesis, we did RNAseq on wild type and $\Delta nit-4$ cells after a shift to media containing nitrate as the nitrogen source. The expression of 76 genes was at least 660 661 4-fold differentially expressed in $\Delta nit-4$ cells as compared with wildtype during 662 exposure to nitrate (Fig. 5D, SI Appendix, Fig. S11A, and Dataset S1). Functional 663 analysis of these 76 genes showed enrichment for genes involved in nitrate and 664 methane metabolism (SI Appendix, Fig. S11B).

665 NIT-4 is thought to act as a transcriptional activator (Fig. 1). However, only 21 666 of the 76 genes that were differentially expressed between wild type and $\Delta nit-4$ 667 cells during exposure to nitrate were downregulated in the $\Delta nit-4$ mutant (Fig. 5D, SI Appendix, Fig. S11A, and Dataset S1). To determine whether any of the genes 668 669 repressed by NIT-4 were directly regulated, we performed DAPseg on NIT-4 and 670 identified 29 NIT-4 binding sites within 3000 base pairs upstream of translational 671 start sites of 29 genes (Dataset S3). We compared the 29 genes with NIT-4 binding 672 sites in their promoters with the list of genes that were differentially expressed in 673 the *nit-4* deletion mutant during exposure to nitrate. Only eight genes whose 674 promoters were bound by NIT-4 were also differentially expressed in Δnit -4 cells as 675 compared to wildtype exposed to nitrate (Fig. 3, 5D, SI Appendix, Fig. S11A, and 676 Dataset S1). All eight of these genes were downregulated in $\Delta nit-4$ cells as 677 compared to wildtype, suggesting that the 54 genes that were upregulated in cells 678 lacking *nit-4* were indirectly regulated, perhaps in response to nitrogen starvation

679 (Fig. 5D, SI Appendix, Fig. S11A). Indeed, many of the genes that were repressed by 680 NIT-4 in response to nitrate, were upregulated in wild type cells exposed to nitrogen 681 starvation (SI Appendix, Fig. S11A). The eight directly regulated genes included nit-682 3, nit-6, and nit-10 as well as the FMN-dependent 2-nitropropane dioxygenase npd-683 1, the flavohemoglobin protein *fhb-2* (NCU10051), and the cyanamide hydratase 684 NCU04466, which are all important in nitrogen metabolism. NIT-4 also bound and 685 regulated the HPP family protein NCU09160 (Fig. 3 and Dataset S1); HPP family 686 proteins have been reported to have nitrite transport activity in cyanobacteria (48). 687 We used the NIT-4 binding sites located in these eight genes to identify the 688 consensus binding motif KCCGCGGAGARAG for NIT-4, which shows some similarity 689 to NTCCGCGGVN, the NIT-4 binding motif identified in a survey of eukaryotic 690 transcription factors (28) (SI Appendix, Fig. S8C). The KCCGCGGAGARAG NIT-4 691 binding motif was present 1912 times in N. crassa promoters, indicating that NIT-4 692 did not bind every location in the genome where its binding motif was present 693 (Dataset S4).

694 A comparison of NIT-4- and NIT-2-regulated genes did not show as stark of a 695 contrast as when comparing NIT-2- and AMN-1-regulated genes. Half of the genes 696 that were regulated by NIT-4 in response to nitrate were also regulated by NIT-2 697 under ammonium nitrate, nitrate, proline, tryptophan, or isoleucine conditions 698 (Dataset S1). These coregulated genes included *nit-3* and *nit-6*, as well as the nitrate transporter nit-10 (Dataset S1). A closer examination showed that many 699 700 genes whose expression was activated by NIT-2 were repressed by NIT-4, including 701 three amino acid or oligopeptide transporters, suggesting that much of the overlap 702 in regulation may be due to the cell experiencing nitrogen starvation conditions (SI 703 Appendix, Fig. S9D, S11A, and Dataset S1).

704 Our data suggested that NMR, which lacks a DNA binding domain, functioned 705 as an activator during nitrogen starvation. However, it was not clear what 706 transcription factor(s) might act downstream of NMR. Since NIT-4 activated the 707 transcription of a number of genes that were upregulated in response to nitrogen 708 starvation, we asked whether NIT-4 might play a role in transcriptional activation 709 during nitrogen starvation by doing RNAseq on wild type and $\Delta nit-4$ cells. The 710 expression of 85 genes was at least 4-fold differentially expressed between wild 711 type and $\Delta nit-4$ cells during nitrogen starvation (Fig. 5E, SI Appendix, S11C, and 712 Dataset S1). Functional analysis showed an enrichment for genes involved in the 713 metabolism of a number of amino acids, including branched chain amino acids, 714 aromatic amino acids, glycine, serine, and threonine, as well as other genes 715 involved in nitrogen metabolism (SI Appendix, Fig. S11D). Over 3 quarters of these 716 genes were downregulated in $\Delta nit-4$ cells (Fig. 5E, SI Appendix, S11C, and Dataset 717 S1). Notably, all 7 genes whose promoters were bound by NIT-4 and were regulated 718 by NIT-4 in response to nitrogen starvation were downregulated in $\Delta nit-4$ cells, 719 including 5 of the 6 most highly downregulated genes (Fig. 5E, SI Appendix, S11C, 720 and Dataset S1). All 7 of these genes were also directly regulated by NIT-4 in 721 response to nitrate (Fig. 3). These data suggested that NIT-4 acts as a 722 transcriptional activator and may function downstream of NMR in response to 723 nitrogen starvation.

724 **DISCUSSION**

N. crassa is a saprotrophic fungus that gets the majority of its nutrients from
plant biomass. In this environment, nitrogen is a limiting nutrient (4). Genes
involved in nitrogen metabolism are regulated by the interplay of transcription
factors that respond to a particular nitrogen source and transcription factors that

729 activate genes involved in the utilization of nonpreferred nitrogen sources when no 730 preferred nitrogen sources are present (6). Through a combination of RNAseg and 731 DAPseq, we compared the genes regulated by pathway-specific transcription factors 732 and those regulated through nitrogen catabolite repression by NIT-2. Our data 733 indicate that pathway-specific transcription factors generally directly regulate genes 734 that encode for enzymes necessary for metabolism of a specific nitrogen source, 735 while NIT-2 directly regulates genes that encode for transporters and genes 736 necessary for the metabolism of a broad range of nitrogen sources.

737 amn-1 encodes a zinc binuclear cluster transcription factor that is required 738 for amino acid utilization

739 Although pathway-specific transcription factors regulating nitrogen utilization 740 have been characterized for a few nitrogen substrates, including nitrate and purine 741 catabolism, regulation of the catabolism of many nonpreferred nitrogen sources is 742 poorly understood in filamentous fungi. Our data indicate that AMN-1 plays a role in 743 directly regulating genes involved in the catabolism of proline, aromatic amino 744 acids, and branched chain amino acids (Fig. 3, SI Appendix, Fig. S4). Interestingly, 745 AMN-1 also indirectly regulates the expression of genes in response to mannose, 746 although AMN-1 is not required for mannose utilization (SI Appendix, Fig. S1 and 747 S2).

AMN-1 is conserved amongst ascomycete fungi (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S12). Although AMN-1 is required for the utilization of a number of amino acids, homologs of AMN-1, such as Aro80 in *S. cerevisiae*, are required only for aromatic amino acid utilization (49) (Fig. 2*A*, *SI Appendix*, Fig. S5*A* and S5*B*). In the human pathogens *Aspergillus fumigatus* and *Penicillium marneffei*, the *amn-1* homolog *hmgR* regulates a gene cluster required for tyrosine catabolism (50, 51). While the

homologs of these genes are not contained in a gene cluster in the *N. crassa* genome, AMN-1 binds the promoters of all but 1 of the 6 genes in the *A. fumigatus* cluster. The *P. marneffei* gene cluster contains an additional 2 genes, one of which encodes for a putative α -1,2-mannosidase (51). This observation may indicate a conserved role for AMN-1 regulation of genes involved in mannose or mannan utilization across ascomycete fungi.

760 Unlike Aro80 and HmgR, AMN-1 also plays a role in regulating genes involved 761 in branched chain amino acid and proline metabolism (Fig. 3, SI Appendix, Fig. S4). 762 In fungi, both branched chain and aromatic amino acids can be catabolized through 763 the Ehrlich pathway (52). However, proline is catabolized through a separate 764 pathway and regulated by Put3/PrnA in S. cerevisiae and A. nidulans, respectively 765 (53, 54). The prnA gene in A. nidulans is part of a proline utilization gene cluster 766 containing 4 genes required for proline utilization (55). AMN-1 binds the promoters 767 of orthologs of 3 of these 4 genes, although they are not clustered in the N. crassa 768 genome.

769 The majority of genes whose promoters are bound by AMN-1 are regulated in 770 response to mannose rather than proline, aromatic amino acids, or branched chain 771 amino acids (Fig. 3, SI Appendix, Fig. S4). Many of the amino acids available for N. 772 crassa utilization in the wild are likely part of proteins secreted either from plant or 773 fungal cells and are likely to be glycosylated. We postulate that N. crassa may use 774 mannose as a signal to indicate the presence of glycosylated proteins to activate 775 genes involved in amino acid catabolism. Further work will be necessary to 776 investigate the connection and conservation of mannose and amino acid catabolism 777 in filamentous fungi.

778 Nitrogen catabolite repression regulates transporters, while pathway-

779 specific transcription factors regulate catabolic enzymes

780 In *N. crassa*, nitrogen catabolite repression is regulated by NIT-2 (7). 781 Utilization of nonpreferred nitrogen sources requires the activity of both NIT-2 and 782 pathway-specific transcription factors (6). Prior studies suggested that binding of 783 NIT-2 and a pathway-specific transcription factor is required for activation of gene 784 transcription (12, 19). Here, a global analysis of NIT-2 promoter binding sites 785 combined with the promoter binding sites of the pathway-specific transcription 786 factors AMN-1 and NIT-4 indicated that while there are isolated incidences of gene 787 co-regulation by NIT-2 and either NIT-4 or AMN-1, the set of genes whose promoters 788 were bound by NIT-2 was broadly separate from the set of genes whose promoters 789 were bound by the pathway-specific transcription factors NIT-4 and AMN-1 (Fig. 3).

790 The pathway-specific transcription factors AMN-1 and NIT-4 generally 791 regulated genes that encode enzymes involved in the catabolism of a particular 792 nitrogen source, while NIT-2 regulated genes that encode for proteins required for 793 utilization of all nitrogen sources. In particular, NIT-2 directly regulated the 794 expression of a number of transporters that import nitrogen sources, including 795 amino acids, nucleic acids, ammonium, nitrate, and urea, into the cell (Fig. 3). This 796 role is similar to that of the carbon catabolite repressor CRE-1, which binds the 797 promoters of genes encoding a number of transporters involved in importing 798 different carbon sources into the cell (17). Regulation of transporters by major 799 transcriptional regulators of both carbon and nitrogen catabolite repression 800 indicates that controlling import of nutrients into the cell is one of the major mechanisms by which fungi prioritize the utilization of preferred nutrient sources 801 802 over nonpreferred nutrient sources.

803 Nitrogen utilization genes are activated by NMR and NIT-4 in response to 804 starvation

805 The role of regulators of carbon and nitrogen catabolite repression has mainly 806 been explored in conditions in which nutrients are present (6, 56). However, major 807 regulators of carbon and nitrogen catabolite repression also appear to play a role in 808 gene regulation during starvation conditions. In A. nidulans, the NIT-2 ortholog AreA 809 activates the expression of target genes during nitrogen starvation (57). CRE-1, 810 canonically thought of as a transcriptional repressor, activates the expression of 811 genes required for utilization of nonpreferred carbon sources during carbon 812 starvation (47). In a similar fashion, the nitrogen catabolite repressor NMR activated 813 the expression of genes necessary to utilize nonpreferred nitrogen sources during 814 nitrogen starvation (Fig. 5C, SI Appendix, Fig. S10D). Unlike CRE-1, NMR does not 815 have a DNA binding domain, so NMR must work through transcription factors, such 816 as NIT-2, to activate the expression of downstream targets (58). Our work suggests it may also act upstream of NIT-4 during nitrogen starvation. It will be the role of 817 818 future studies to investigate potential biochemical interactions between NMR, NIT-4, 819 and other downstream transcription factors.

Characterizing the regulatory network through which fungal cells control nitrogen utilization is important in understanding how fungi interact with their environment, including how saprophytic fungi recycle nutrients and the mechanisms by which fungi infect both plants and animals (1-3). Transcriptional profiling combined with transcription factor promoter binding data is a powerful tool to help elucidate regulatory networks, as it enabled us to make and test hypotheses addressing the role of transcription factors in nutrient sensing. We used these

genomic tools to describe a network of transcription factors that regulate genes inresponse to changes in nitrogen conditions.

829 Studies in *S. cerevisiae* have shown that additional transcription factors, such 830 as Gcn4, which regulates genes in response to amino acid starvation, are also 831 involved in regulating nitrogen catabolite repression (59). Although we did not see 832 evidence of direct regulation of the GCN4 ortholog, cpc-1 (NCU04050), by NIT-2, 833 NIT-4, or AMN-1 in the conditions tested here, we expect future studies to place cpc-834 1 and other nitrogen regulators in the nitrogen sensing network. Additionally, our 835 data indicating a role for AMN-1 in regulating genes involved in both mannose and 836 amino acid utilization suggest a connection between nitrogen and carbon 837 metabolism (Fig. 4, SI Appendix, Fig. S1). Previous studies have suggested that NIT-838 2 and its ortholog AreA may also play a role in plant cell wall deconstruction (60, 839 61). Future studies dissecting the connections between carbon and nitrogen sensing 840 networks will elucidate how fungal cells respond to and utilize nutrient sources in a 841 variety of environments.

842 MATERIALS and METHODS

843 N. crassa strains and culturing

844 Strains used in this study are listed in Table S2 (SI Appendix). All strains were 845 derived from the wild type reference strain FGSC 2489 using standard genetic 846 techniques and confirmed by PCR and DNA sequencing (62, 63). N. crassa cultures were grown on Vogel's minimal medium (VMM) (64). In all experiments where the 847 848 nitrogen source was not ammonium nitrate, Vogel's salts (64) were made without 849 ammonium nitrate, and nitrogen sources were added as described in Table S1 (SI 850 Appendix). Thus, the indicated nitrogen source was the only nitrogen source 851 present in the experiment. Nitrogen starvation indicates that Vogel's salts were

852 made without ammonium nitrate and no nitrogen source was added. Carbon 853 sources were added at 2% weight/volume and nitrogen sources were added at 854 50mM unless otherwise noted. Specifics of the carbon and nitrogen sources used 855 can be found in Table S1 (SI Appendix). Cells were grown from freezer stocks on 856 VMM + sucrose + 1.5% agar (Fisher Scientific) slants for 2 days at 30°C in the dark 857 and 4-8 days at 25°C in constant light prior to inoculation into the indicated media 858 at 10⁶ conidia/ml. All chemicals were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich unless 859 otherwise noted.

860 Gene expression analysis, RNA sequencing, and transcript abundance

861 RNA extraction, library preparation, and sequencing were modified from Wu 862 *et al* (2020) (17). Quantitative reverse transcription PCR (qRT-PCR) was performed 863 using the EXPRESS One-Step SYBR GreenER kit (Life Technologies). For details see 864 SI Materials and Methods (*SI Appendix*).

865 Statistical significance tests

866 For RNAseq data, experiments had at least 3 biological replicates and 867 statistical significance was determined using Cufflinks v2.2.1 (65). The exact 868 number of replicates for all RNAseq experiments is shown in Dataset S1 and Table 869 S3. For all growth and gRT-PCR experiments at least 3 biological replicates were 870 done. The exact number of replicates for all growth and qRT-PCR experiments is 871 shown in Dataset S2. Biological replicates refer to independent cultures inoculated 872 on the same or independent days. Statistical significance was determined using a 2-873 tailed homoscedastic (equal variance) Student's t-test with a Benjamini-Hochberg 874 multiple hypothesis correction. In bar graphs, bars indicate the mean of biological 875 replicates and dots indicate individual biological replicates.

876 **DAPseq**

BAPseq was done as described in Wu *et al* (2020) (17). For details see SI
Materials and Methods (*SI Appendix*).

879 DNA binding consensus motif generation

880 Motif discovery was performed using MEME v5.1.0 (66). Identification of motif 881 locations was performed using FIMO v5.2.0 (67). For details see SI Materials and 882 Methods (*SI Appendix*).

883 Mycelial dry weight

884 10⁶ conidia/ml were inoculated in liquid VMM with the indicated carbon or nitrogen source either in 100ml cultures in 250ml flasks or 3ml cultures in round-885 886 bottomed 24-well plates. Media in which the carbon source is specified had 25mM 887 ammonium nitrate as the nitrogen source. Media in which the nitrogen source is 888 specified had 2% sucrose as the carbon source. Cells were grown at 25°C in 889 constant light with constant shaking at 200rpm. The mycelial cell mass was 890 harvested onto Whatman Grade 1 filter paper and dried by vacuuming away the 891 media. Mycelial cell masses were then further dried in a 65°C drying oven for 2 days 892 prior to weighing the dried mycelia. 893 Functional Enrichment Analysis and Gene Annotation 894 Functional enrichment analysis was done using the FungiFun2 online

895 resource tool (<u>https://elbe.hki-jena.de/fungifun/</u>) with Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes

and Genomes (KEGG) as the classification ontology (21, 24). The gene to category

897 associations were tested for over-representation using hypergeometric distribution

898 with Benjamini-Hochberg correction for false discovery rate.

Gene annotations were pulled from FungiDB (<u>https://fungidb.org</u>) or inferred
from homology to characterized genes in related fungi.

901 Data availability

902 RNAseq data used in this study were deposited in the Gene Expression 903 Omnibus (GEO) at the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) and are accessible through GEO series accession number GSE150256. Processed RNAseg 904 905 data are available in Dataset S1. DAPseq data used in this study were deposited in 906 the NCBI Sequence Read Archive (SRA) and are accessible through SRA series 907 accession number PRJNA436200. Processed DAPseq data are available in Dataset 908 S3. The numerical values used to generate all mycelial dry weight and gRT-PCR 909 graphs are shown in Dataset S2. Strains constructed in this study are available from 910 the Fungal Genetics Stock Center (www.fgsc.net).

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