

1 **Title**

2 Arabidopsis Root-Type Ferredoxin:NADP(H) Oxidoreductase 2 Is Involved in
3 Detoxification of Nitrite in Roots

4

5 **Running head**

6 Detoxification of nitrite by root FNR2

7

8 **Corresponding author**

9 Takushi Hachiya

10 RIKEN Center for Sustainable Resource Science, 1-7-22 Suehiro-cho, Tsurumi-ku,

11 Yokohama, Kanagawa 230-0045, Japan

12 Fax: +81-45-503-9609

13 e-mail: hachiya.takushi@h.mbox.nagoya-u.ac.jp

14

15 **Subject areas**

16 (2) Environmental and stress responses

17

18 **Number of**

19 Black and white figures: 2

20 Color figures: 3

21 Tables: 0

22 Number of supplementary materials: 5

23 **Title**

24 Arabidopsis Root-Type Ferredoxin:NADP(H) Oxidoreductase 2 Is Involved in
25 Detoxification of Nitrite in Roots

26 **Running head**

27 Detoxification of nitrite by root FNR2

28 **Author**

29 Takushi Hachiya^{1,2}, Nanae Ueda¹, Munenori Kitagawa³, Guy Hanke⁴, Akira Suzuki⁵,
30 Toshiharu Hase⁶ and Hitoshi Sakakibara^{1,2}

31 **Author's addresses**

32 ¹RIKEN Center for Sustainable Resource Science, 1-7-22 Suehiro-cho, Tsurumi-ku,
33 Yokohama, Kanagawa 230-0045, Japan, ²Department of Biological Mechanisms and
34 Functions, Graduate School of Bioagricultural Sciences, Nagoya University, Nagoya,
35 Aichi 464-8601, Japan, ³Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, Cold Spring Harbor, New York
36 11724, ⁴School of Biological and Chemical Sciences, Queen Mary University of London,
37 Mile End Road, 7 London E1 4NS, UK, ⁵INRA, Institut Jean-Pierre Bourgin, UMR1318,
38 ERL CNRS 3559, Saclay Plant Sciences, RD10, F-78026 Versailles, France, ⁶Laboratory
39 of Regulation of Biological Reaction, Institute for Protein Research, Osaka University,
40 Suita, Osaka, 565-0871 Japan

41 **Abbreviations**

42 FNR, ferredoxin:NADP(H) oxidoreductase; Fd, ferredoxin; G6PD, glucose-6-phosphate
43 dehydrogenase; GOGAT, glutamine-oxoglutarate aminotransferase; GS, glutamine
44 synthetase; GUS, β -glucuronidase; N, nitrogen; NiR, nitrite reductase; NO, nitric oxide;

45 NR, nitrate reductase; NRT, nitrate transporter; oxPPP, oxidative pentose phosphate
46 pathway; Q-PCR, quantitative reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction; RT-PCR,
47 reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction

48 **Footnotes**

49 The nucleotide sequence reported in this paper has been submitted to The Arabidopsis
50 Information Resource (TAIR) under accession numbers

51

52

53

54

55

56

57

58

59

60

61

62

63

64

65

66

67 **Abstract**

68 Ferredoxin : NADP(H) oxidoreductase (FNR) plays a key role in redox metabolism in
69 plastids. Whereas leaf FNR (LFNR) is required for photosynthesis, root FNR (RFNR) is
70 believed to provide electrons to ferredoxin (Fd)-dependent enzymes, including nitrite
71 reductase (NiR) and Fd-glutamine-oxoglutarate aminotransferase (Fd-GOGAT) in non-
72 photosynthetic conditions. In some herbal species, however, most nitrate reductase
73 activity is located in photosynthetic organs, and ammonium in roots is assimilated mainly
74 by Fd-independent NADH-GOGAT. Therefore, RFNR might have a limited impact on N
75 assimilation in roots grown with nitrate or ammonium nitrogen sources. *AtRFNRs* are
76 rapidly induced by application of toxic nitrite. Thus, we tested the hypothesis that RFNR
77 could contribute to nitrite reduction in roots by comparing *A. thaliana* seedlings of wild
78 type with loss-of-function mutants of *RFNR2*. When these seedlings were grown under
79 nitrate, nitrite or ammonium, only nitrite nutrition caused impaired growth and nitrite
80 accumulation in roots of *rfnr2*. Supplementation of nitrite with nitrate or ammonium as
81 N sources did not restore the root growth in *rfnr2*. Also, a scavenger for nitric oxide (NO)
82 could not effectively rescue the growth impairment. Thus, nitrite toxicity, rather than N
83 depletion or nitrite-dependent NO production, probably causes the *rfnr2* root growth
84 defect. Our results strongly suggest that RFNR2 has a major role in reduction of toxic
85 nitrite in roots. A specific set of genes related to nitrite reduction and the supply of
86 reducing power responded to nitrite concomitantly, suggesting that the products of these
87 genes act cooperatively with RFNR2 to reduce nitrite in roots. (249 words)

88 **Keywords:** ferredoxin:NADP(H) oxidoreductase, ferredoxin, nitrite reduction, root-type

89 isoform

90

91

92

93

94

95

96

97

98

99

100

101

102

103

104

105

106

107

108

109

110 **Introduction**

111 Ferredoxin : NADP(H) oxidoreductase (FNR) plays a key role in redox
112 metabolism in plastids (Hanke and Mulo 2013). In chloroplasts, FNR oxidizes the
113 reduced form of ferredoxin (Fd) to reduce NADP^+ , which in turn, supplies the Calvin
114 cycle with NADPH. In non-photosynthetic plastids, FNR reduces Fd using NADPH
115 derived from the oxidative pentose phosphate pathway (oxPPP), providing reducing
116 power for various biosynthetic processes such as assimilatory pathways of nitrogen (N),
117 sulfur and fatty acids. These opposing reactions are believed to be catalyzed by specific
118 FNR isoproteins, i.e. leaf FNR (LFNR) and root FNR (RFNR), respectively (Hanke et al.
119 2004, Hanke et al. 2005). In *Arabidopsis thaliana*, loss-of-function of *AtLFNRs* impaired
120 autotrophic growth and photosynthetic capacity, demonstrating their essential roles in
121 operating the electron flow *in vivo* (Lintala et al. 2009, Lintala et al. 2012). By contrast,
122 the physiological importance of RFNR remains to be investigated using knock-out
123 mutants.

124 N assimilation requires a large amount of reducing power. The Fd-dependent
125 enzymes in this pathway include nitrite reductase (NiR) and Fd-glutamine-oxoglutarate
126 aminotransferase (Fd-GOGAT). Given that expression of *AtRFNRs* (*RFNR1*; At4g05390,
127 *RFNR2*; At1g30510, see Hanke et al. 2005) are induced by application of either nitrate or
128 ammonium (Wang et al. 2000, 2003, Patterson et al. 2010), *AtRFNRs* could provide
129 reducing equivalents to N assimilation in roots. In some herbal species, however, nitrate
130 is reduced predominantly in shoots using the reducing equivalents derived from
131 photosynthesis (Scheurwater et al. 2002, Bloom et al. 2010). Nitrate reductase (NR)
132 activities of hydroponically grown *A. thaliana* were much higher in shoots than roots

133 (Rachmilevitch et al. 2004, Krapp et al. 2011). Thus, RFNR may play a minor role in N
134 reduction in roots grown with nitrate. Ammonium addition to *Arabidopsis* roots induced
135 *NADH-GOGAT* rather than *Fd-GOGAT* expression in a concentration-dependent manner
136 (Konishi et al. 2014). Moreover, analyses with loss-of-function mutants have suggested
137 that *NADH-GOGAT* is the major enzyme converting ammonium-derived glutamine to
138 glutamate in roots (Lancien et al. 2002, Konishi et al. 2014). It is therefore doubtful that
139 RFNR supports nitrogen assimilation by furnishing *Fd-GOGAT* with reduced Fd in roots
140 grown with ammonium.

141 Recently, nitrite has been attracting attention as the third inorganic N source
142 (Kotur et al. 2013). Nitrite availability varies in the soil worldwide depending on the
143 balance between nitrification and denitrification (Samater et al. 1998, Riley et al. 2001,
144 Shen et al. 2003). Although nitrite concentrations in the soil are generally low compared
145 with nitrate and ammonium, a few hundred μM of nitrite have been detected in some soils
146 (Jones and Schwab 1993, López Pasquali et al. 2007). Nitrite can be taken up via different
147 pathways in *A. thaliana* (Kotur et al. 2013). One is mediated via active transporters
148 including high-affinity nitrate transporter 2 (NRT2), and another is simple diffusion of
149 nitrous acid under low pH. It is noteworthy that micromolar concentrations of nitrite act
150 as a signal to rapidly alter a genome-wide expression of numerous transcripts in *A.*
151 *thaliana* (Wang et al. 2007). The existence of functional machineries for nitrite uptake
152 and signaling suggests that nitrite could be an important N source for plants in the field.
153 Nitrite must be reduced immediately after its uptake, because of its high toxicity to plants.
154 In fact, *AtRFNRs* and *NIR* can be induced by application of only 5 μM nitrite within 20

155 minutes (Wang et al. 2007). Therefore, we verified the hypothesis that RFNR could have
156 a major role in reducing environmental nitrite as N source using *A. thaliana* seedlings of
157 wild type (Col) and loss-of-function mutants of *RFNR*. Our results strongly suggest that
158 AtRFNR2 is essential for reduction and detoxification of nitrite absorbed by roots to
159 avoid accumulation of nitrite and the resultant defects in plant growth.

160

161

162

163

164

165

166

167

168

169

170

171

172

173

174

175

176 **Results**

177 *Identification of T-DNA insertion mutants of RFNR1 and RFNR2*

178 One T-DNA insertion allele for *RFNR1* (SALK_085009; *rfnr1*) and two
179 independent alleles for *RFNR2* (SAIL_527_G10.V1; *rfnr2-1*, SALK_133654; *rfnr2-2*)
180 were obtained from the European Arabidopsis Stock Centre (Fig. 1A). *rfnr1* and *rfnr2-1*
181 have T-DNA insertions in the second exon and in the first intron, respectively. An
182 insertion of T-DNA in *rfnr2-2* extends from the fourth exon to the fourth intron. We
183 checked mRNA levels of full-length *RFNRs* in roots of these lines with reverse
184 transcription PCR (RT-PCR) (Fig. 1B, Supplementary Fig. S1A). In *rfnr1* and *rfnr2-2*,
185 there was no transcript signal from the corresponding *RFNR* genes (Fig. 1B). On the other
186 hand, lower amounts of signals were detected in *rfnr2-1* than Col (Supplementary Fig.
187 S1A). A quantitative reverse transcription PCR (Q-PCR) analysis also revealed that
188 transcript levels of *RFNR2* in *rfnr2-1* accounted for about 18-25% of the transcript
189 amount in Col roots (Supplementary Fig. S1B). To determine protein content of *RFNRs*,
190 we conducted western analysis with the polyclonal antibody raised against a recombinant
191 maize *RFNR* (Onda et al. 2000). Two independent signals were observed in Col, where
192 the upper and lower bands correspond to *RFNR1* and *RFNR2*, respectively (Hanke et al.
193 2005). In *rfnr1*, no upper signal was detected, whereas, in *rfnr2-1* and *rfnr2-2*, the lower
194 signal was absent (Fig. 1C, Supplementary S1C). We concluded that *rfnr1* and *rfnr2-2*
195 are knockout mutants and that *rfnr2-1* is a knockdown mutant.

196

197 *Expression of RFNR1 and RFNR2 under different N growth conditions*

198 To determine steady-state transcript levels of *RFNR1* and *RFNR2* under

199 different N sources, we conducted Q-PCR analysis using Col grown with 0.2 mM of
200 nitrate (NA), nitrite (NI) or ammonium (A) as the sole N source for seven days (Fig. 2A).
201 This N concentration is within the conceivable range in the field (Miller et al. 2007, Kotur
202 et al. 2013), and was sufficient to grow plants without causing N depletion (see protein
203 contents in plants in Fig. 4E). Irrespective of N source, both *RFNRs* were expressed
204 predominantly in roots (Fig. 2A), where the copy numbers of *RFNR2* mRNA were more
205 than ten times those of *RFNR1*. In the roots of Col grown with nitrite, a western analysis
206 also showed that *RFNR2* had stronger signals than *RFNR1* (Fig. 1C). The transcript levels
207 of *RFNR1* were similar among N conditions both in shoots and roots, whereas those of
208 *RFNR2* attained the maximum level in the roots grown with nitrite.

209 Nitrate and nitrite application can induce expression of a large number of genes
210 in tens of minutes (Wang et al. 2003, Wang et al. 2007, Patterson et al. 2010). To analyze
211 the short-term N responses, we grew seedlings for seven days under ammonium
212 conditions and transferred them into fresh media containing nitrate, nitrite or ammonium
213 as the sole N source. *RFNR2* expression levels in roots were compared before and after a
214 30 minute incubation with each N source (Fig. 2B). *RFNR2* was significantly induced by
215 nitrite addition, but not by nitrate or ammonium. In the present study, we focused on
216 *RFNR2* as the major isoform responding to nitrite-supplied conditions.

217 To monitor a tissue-specific pattern of transcriptional activity for *RFNR2*, we
218 generated transgenic plants with β -glucuronidase (GUS) fused to the region between –
219 879 and +24 bp from the first ATG codon of *RFNR2* (For details, see Materials and
220 methods). The T₃ homozygous transgenic plants were grown for five days under nitrate

221 or nitrite, and blue GUS signals were observed with a stereoscopic microscope (Fig. 2C)
222 and an optical microscope (Fig. 2D, E). Under both N sources, the signals were localized
223 predominantly in roots, consistent with the Q-PCR observations (Fig. 2A, C). Basal
224 regions of primary roots had stronger signals than root tips (Fig. 2C). In the middle region
225 of the primary root, vascular bundles were remarkably stained, although the outer layer
226 of cells also showed weaker GUS signals (Fig. 2D). Strong signals were also observed in
227 the columella cells of root tips (Fig. 2E). Overall, the signal intensities of GUS were
228 higher under nitrite than nitrate (Fig. 2C-E), which also corresponded to the tendency
229 observed with Q-PCR (Fig. 2A, B). Both transcript levels of authentic *RFNR2* and
230 heterologous *GUS* driven by the *RFNR2* promoter were higher in 5-day-old roots under
231 nitrite (Fig. 2F), suggesting that the nitrite induction of *RFNR2* is under transcriptional
232 control.

233

234 *Root growth of rfnr2 mutants on different N sources*

235 Next, we compared root growth between Col and *rfnr2* mutants to elucidate
236 whether *RFNR2* could contribute to nitrite reduction (Fig. 3, Supplementary Fig. S1D-
237 F). In Col, the length of primary roots was slightly, but significantly, longer under nitrate
238 growth conditions than with nitrite or ammonium (Fig. 3A, B, Supplementary Fig. S1D,
239 E). Primary root growth of *rfnr2-2* decreased relative to Col under nitrite growth
240 conditions, whereas, under nitrate or ammonium condition, no significant difference was
241 observed. Also, in *rfnr2-1*, primary root length was shorter under nitrite, but not under
242 nitrate. The length of lateral roots was also longest in Col supplied with nitrate, followed

243 in order by nitrite and ammonium (Fig. 3A, C, Supplementary Fig. S1D, F). Relative to
244 Col, *rfnr2-2* showed remarkably stunted growth of lateral roots under nitrite growth
245 conditions, although the mutant also had a slight decrease in lateral root length under
246 nitrate conditions (Fig. 3C). In *rfnr2-1*, however, no significant decrease in lateral root
247 length was observed (Supplementary Fig. S1F).

248 We then investigated root growth in the knockout mutant, *rfnr2-2*, in detail. To
249 determine the effective concentration of nitrite that results in primary root defects in
250 *rfnr2-2*, we analyzed the concentration-dependence of primary root elongation on nitrate
251 or nitrite at 0, 0.04, 0.2 and 1 mM (Fig. 3D). Little difference in primary root length was
252 observed between Col and *rfnr2-2* under nitrate growth conditions at any concentration.
253 By contrast, nitrite caused primary root elongation defects in *rfnr2-2* plants at 0.04, 0.2
254 and 1 mM. The extent of this defect in root growth increased with the nitrite
255 concentration. It should be noted that primary root lengths in *rfnr2-2* were shorter under
256 nitrite than under no N condition, suggesting that the stunted root phenotype is primarily
257 due to a detrimental effect of nitrite on root growth, rather than an inability to assimilate
258 N in the roots.

259 A time-course analysis revealed that, on nitrite supply, daily primary root
260 elongation in *rfnr2-2* was severely suppressed at early stages of development (4-6 d), and
261 that the suppression tended to be mitigated at later stages (7-9 d) (Fig. 3E).

262 To validate whether the root growth defects of *rfnr2-2* plants grown on nitrite
263 persist, we transferred 4-day-old seedlings grown on either nitrate or nitrite to fresh
264 medium containing different N sources. The seedlings were grown for three further days,

265 and their primary root elongation during the period after transfer was determined (Fig.
266 3F). Irrespective of the N source before the transfer, the *rfnr2-2* transferred to nitrite
267 condition showed stunted primary root growth. On the other hand, the transfer from nitrite
268 to nitrate conditions restored the rate of primary root elongation. These data suggest that
269 the defective phenotype of the mutant is reversible.

270

271 *Exploring the causes of root growth defects in rfnr2*

272 If RFNR2 contributes to nitrite reduction in roots, its deficiency should cause
273 nitrite accumulation therein. To confirm this, we measured nitrite concentrations in roots
274 of 7-day-old plants grown under nitrate or nitrite (Fig. 4A). Under nitrite conditions, more
275 than 100 nmol g fresh weight⁻¹ of nitrite was determined in *rfnr2-2* roots, whereas nitrite
276 was not significantly detected in Col roots. Nitrite also accumulated in the roots of *rfnr2-*
277 *1*, although the extent was less than in *rfnr2-2* (Supplementary Fig. S1G). In roots of
278 plants grown with nitrate, no significant amount of nitrite was detected in either Col or
279 *rfnr2-2* (Fig. 4A), indicating that any contribution of RFNR2 to N assimilation in
280 Arabidopsis is redundant. Excess accumulation of nitrite is frequently accompanied by
281 nitric oxide (NO) biosynthesis via a side reaction catalyzed by nitrate reductase (NR)
282 (Rockel et al. 2002, Wang et al. 2007), which may inhibit primary root growth
283 (Fernández-Marcos et al. 2012). Thus, we checked whether a NO scavenger could restore
284 primary root growth in *rfnr2-2* roots grown with nitrite (Fig. 4B). However, application
285 of 200 μM of carboxy-PTIO did not affect the phenotype in *rfnr2-2*. Likewise, the
286 transcript level of an NO-inducible marker gene, *AOX1a* (Huang et al. 2002), was

287 unaffected by *RFNR2* deficiency (Fig. 4C). Furthermore, we could not detect NR activity
288 in nitrite-grown Col roots, whilst, in the shoots, 8.27 ± 1.53 nmol g FW⁻¹ min⁻¹ of NR
289 activity was measured (Fig. 4D). Taken together, the data contradict any contribution of
290 NO to root growth defects in the *RFNR2* mutants.

291 Severe N depletion decreases primary root growth in *A. thaliana* (Araya et al.
292 2014), providing another possible explanation for the *rfnr2* phenotype: *RFNR2* deficiency
293 may deplete total N assimilation when nitrite is supplied as the sole N source. We
294 therefore measured protein amounts in 7-day-old seedlings of Col and *rfnr2-2* (Fig. 4E),
295 but could not observe any significant decrease in protein content of *rfnr2-2* seedlings,
296 indicating that NiR activity in the leaves, supported by photosynthesis, is sufficient for N
297 assimilation. Moreover, additional application of 0.2 mM nitrate or 0.2 mM ammonium
298 to 0.2 mM nitrite (i.e. 0.4 mM N included in the media) did not restore the wild type root
299 phenotype in *rfnr2-2* (Fig. 4F, G). In addition, as demonstrated in Fig.3D, primary root
300 lengths in *rfnr2-2* were even shorter with nitrite than under no N growth conditions. These
301 observations suggest that toxicity of nitrite *per se* could suppress root growth in *rfnr2-2*,
302 and that the impairment of root growth is not due to N deprivation.

303

304 *Identification of genes acting with RFNR2 in nitrite detoxification*

305 To provide reducing power for efficient nitrite reduction in roots, NIR, RFNR,
306 Fd and oxPPP would have to respond to nitrite concomitantly (see Introduction). To
307 identify a set of additional, specifically relevant genes, we surveyed genes co-expressed
308 with *RFNR2* using the ATTED II program (Obayashi et al. 2014). Supplementary Table

309 S1 shows a list of genes within the ranking's top ten. This includes one *NIR* (*NIR*;
310 *At2g15620*), one root type *FD* (*FD3*; *At2g27510*) and one *FNR* (*RFNR1*; *At4g05390*). In
311 the oxPPP, two *GLUCOSE-6-PHOSPHATE DEHYDROGENASEs* (*G6PD2*; *At5g13110*,
312 *G6PD3*; *At1g24280*), two putative *6-PHOSPHOGLUCONATE DEHYDROGENASEs*
313 (*At1g64190*, *At5g41670*) and one *TRANSALDOLASE* (*TRA2*; *At5g13420*) were
314 identified. We analyzed whether *NIR*, *FD3*, *RFNR1*, *G6PD2*, *G6PD3*, *At1g64190* and
315 *At5g41670* could respond to different N sources in the same way as *RFNR2* (Fig. 5A, B).
316 Under steady-state growth conditions, all these genes were expressed predominantly in
317 roots, and their expression levels attained the maximum in roots grown with nitrite (Fig.
318 5A). On the other hand, expression of the reference gene *At4g34270* (Hong et al. 2010)
319 was not significantly different between N sources in shoots or roots (Fig. 5A). Short-term
320 analysis also revealed that induction of the above genes was consistently strongest
321 following nitrite application, whereas expression of *At4g34270* was not significantly
322 changed (Fig. 5B). This expression response pattern is similar to that of *RFNR2* (Fig. 2A,
323 B), suggesting that the products of these genes act cooperatively with *RFNR2* to form an
324 electron supply system for nitrite reduction in roots. If this hypothesis is correct, nitrite
325 induced expression of these genes would be enhanced in the *RFNR2* mutants as
326 compensation. As expected, the steady-state transcript levels were higher in *rfnr2-2* roots
327 under nitrite growth conditions (Fig. 5C), while *At4g34270* expression was affected little
328 by *RFNR2* deficiency. A similar tendency was found in *rfnr2-1*, although the extent of
329 compensation was less than in *rfnr2-2* (Supplementary Fig. S1H).

330

331 *Verifying the role of RFNR2 with nitrate or ammonium as N sources*

332 We found little difference in root growth between Col and *RFNR2* mutants
333 under nitrate or ammonium growth conditions (Fig. 3, Supplementary Fig. S1D, E). This
334 means that *RFNR2* may only play a minor role in N assimilation from these N sources,
335 as mentioned in the Introduction. In short, we assume that in *A. thaliana*, nitrate reduction
336 and the subsequent Fd-dependent steps occur mainly in shoots, and that ammonium
337 absorbed by the roots is assimilated into glutamine by GS in the roots, followed by its
338 conversion to glutamate mainly by NADH-GOGAT.

339 If nitrate was reduced predominantly in shoots, NR activity would be higher in
340 shoots than roots. Indeed, in seedlings grown with nitrate, an abundant activity of NR was
341 detected in shoots, but no significant activity was detected in roots (Fig. 6A, for
342 comparison, see Yu et al. 1998, Konishi and Yanagisawa 2011). In a NR double mutant
343 (*nr*) grown in the presence of nitrate, more nitrate was accumulated in shoots relative to
344 Col, but not in roots (Fig. 6B), confirming that nitrate reduction occurs mainly in shoots
345 *in vivo*. Furthermore, in Figure 4A, *RFNR2* deficiency did not affect nitrite concentrations
346 in roots under nitrate growth conditions, suggesting that nitrite was scarcely produced in
347 the roots grown with nitrate.

348 *GLN1;2* is an ammonium-inducible isoform of GS expressed in the root
349 vasculature (Ishiyama et al. 2004, Konishi et al. 2014, Guan et al. 2015). Our Q-PCR
350 analysis revealed that *GLN1;2* was expressed predominantly in roots, and attained
351 maximum expression levels under ammonium growth conditions (Supplementary Fig.
352 S2A). On the other hand, transcripts of *GLN2*, the plastidic isoform of GS, were much

353 higher in shoots than roots. Total GS activities are almost comparable between shoots and
354 roots (Supplementary Fig. S2B). In roots, the highest activity was observed under
355 ammonium growth conditions, followed by nitrite and then nitrate conditions,
356 corresponding to the expression pattern of *GLN1;2* (Supplementary Fig. S2A, B). A
357 knockout of *GLN1;2* (*gln1;2*, Lothier et al. 2011) decreased root GS activity by ca. 35%
358 of Col (Fig. 6C). More ammonium was accumulated in the *gln1;2* roots grown with
359 ammonium than Col (Fig. 6D). Furthermore, *gln1;2* showed impaired lateral root growth
360 under ammonium (Supplementary Fig. S2C). These observations indicate that a
361 significant portion of ammonium absorbed by roots is normally assimilated in the root.
362 Following ammonium incorporation into glutamine, the subsequent conversion of
363 glutamine to glutamate can be catalyzed by Fd-GOGAT (*GLU1*, *GLU2*) or NADH-
364 GOGAT (*GLT*). Q-PCR analysis showed that, of these three genes, *GLU2* and *GLT* were
365 predominantly expressed in roots (Supplementary Fig. S2D). If *RFNR2* contributes to
366 glutamate biosynthesis under ammonium growth conditions, the contents of glutamine
367 and glutamate in the roots would be expected to change on *RFNR2* deficiency. The results,
368 however, show that there is no significant difference in either amino acid between Col
369 and *rfnr2-2* (Fig. 6E). Moreover, no compensatory induction of *RFNR1*, *FD3*, *G6PD3*,
370 *At5g41670*, *GLT* or *GLU2* expression occurred in *rfnr2-2* grown with ammonium
371 (Supplementary Fig. S2E). These results suggest that *RFNR2* does not make a significant
372 contribution to glutamate biosynthesis under ammonium growth conditions. Taken
373 together, we conclude that *RFNR2* has a significant role in N reduction/assimilation of
374 nitrite, rather than nitrate or ammonium.

375

376 **Discussion**

377 Plants use nitrate and ammonium as major N sources (Kiba and Krapp 2016).
378 Currently, these are recognized as not only substrates for protein synthesis but also signals
379 that alter gene expression and root morphology (Remans et al. 2006, Lima et al. 2010,
380 Patterson et al. 2010). To date, the components for their transport and signaling have been
381 comprehensively identified and characterized (Krapp et al. 2015). On the other hand, far
382 less information about nitrite is available, although measurable amounts of nitrite are
383 often present in the soil and can accumulate to high levels depending on pH (Shen et al.
384 2003, Kotur et al. 2013). Nitrite is actively taken up by specific transport systems and
385 used for N assimilation (Kotur et al. 2013). Plants can sense exogenous nitrite at
386 micromolar concentrations, and respond by altering their transcriptome (Wang et al.
387 2007). There is no doubt that nitrite is a third inorganic N source worthy of attention. NiR
388 is the sole enzyme for nitrite reduction and is completely dependent on the reduced form
389 of ferredoxin as an electron donor. In *NIR* antisense tobacco plants, growth is suppressed
390 with accompanying accumulation of nitrite to extremely high concentrations (Morot-
391 Gaudry-Talarmain et al. 2002). Our results suggest that in *rfnr2* mutants NiR can not
392 fulfill its physiological role in roots due to a limitation in electron supply.

393 The data presented here indicate that in Arabidopsis, both NO₃ and NH₄, but
394 not NO₂, are primarily transported to the shoot for assimilation. If such a mechanism
395 were also applied to NO₂, the plant would be subject to severe toxic effects. To avoid this,
396 NO₂ assimilation depends on an effective electron supply to NiR by RFNR in the root, in

397 order to reduce NO₂ to NH₄ before transport to the leaf.

398 Here we provide strong evidence supporting the hypothesis that *in vivo* the flux
399 rate of nitrite reduction is decreased in the *RFNR2* mutants as the system for supplying
400 reduced Fd to NiR is disrupted. However, testing this hypothesis directly is
401 experimentally problematic using the conventional method of assaying NiR activity. In
402 this method, maximum activity of NiR is measured with an excess amounts of electron
403 donors. Thus, it would not reflect *in vivo* flux rate of nitrite reduction, and any defect in
404 NiR reduction due to impaired electron supply would not be detected. It is therefore a
405 research priority to develop a new method for quantitative evaluation of the flux rate in
406 the future.

407 Primary root growth of two *RFNR2* mutants decreased relative to Col under
408 nitrite growth conditions, whereas only *rfnr2-2* showed the stunted growth of lateral roots
409 under nitrite. This phenotypic discrepancy may reflect the extent of genetic defects (i.e.
410 knockout in *rfnr2-2*, knockdown in *rfnr2-1*). We concluded that *RFNR2* deficiency
411 impacts on primary root growth when nitrite is supplied as the N source.

412 Given that nitrite is toxic, its conversion to organic N results in detoxification.
413 Since nitrite reduction occurs only in plastids, this toxic nitrite should be promptly
414 transported into plastids before its reduction. In *A. thaliana*, specific transporters for
415 nitrite uptake into plastids have been identified as *NITR2;1* and *NITR2;2* (Maeda et al.
416 2014). The promoter-directed GUS signal of *NITR2;2* was detected exclusively in roots.
417 An *in silico* survey for the genes co-expressed with *RFNR2* found that *NITR2;2* was
418 ranked 13th (Obayashi et al. 2014). *NITR2;2* may therefore be important for the

419 immediate reduction of nitrite taken up from the soil.

420 Our expression analysis confirmed that *AtRFNR1* was expressed at a lower
421 level than *AtRFNR2*, and *AtRFNR1* is a minor form (Fig. 1C, 2A). It is possible that
422 *RFNR1* has some redundant function with *RFNR2* in roots, because *RFNR1* showed a
423 similar expression pattern to *RFNR2* in response to different N sources (Fig. 5B) and
424 *RFNR1* was induced in *rfnr2-2* in a compensatory manner (Fig. 5C). Interestingly, the
425 suppression of primary root elongation in *rfnr2-2* was mitigated at its later growth stages
426 under nitrite growth conditions (Fig. 3E), indicating that *RFNR1* might partly alleviate
427 nitrite accumulation and its toxicity in *rfnr2-2*, although the compensation was not
428 sufficient to completely restore the root growth (Fig. 3). On the other hand, root growth
429 of a *RFNR1* knockout mutant was not impaired under nitrite growth conditions
430 (Supplementary Fig. S3A-C). The contribution of *RFNR1* to reduction of nitrite absorbed
431 by roots is therefore probably limited.

432 The genes coexpressed with *RFNR2* in Figure 5 have all been identified as both
433 nitrate- and nitrite-inducible genes (Supplemental Data in Wang et al. 2007). In this case,
434 we observed that nitrite induced much stronger effects on gene expression than nitrate
435 (Fig. 5A, B). A uniform response of the genes indicates strict control of expression by a
436 single mechanism that originates with nitrite perception. Both expression of *NIR* and
437 *NITR2;2* are under the control of the NIN-like protein (NLP) family of transcription
438 factors, responding to nitrate *per se* (Konishi and Yanagisawa 2013, Maeda et al. 2014).
439 A mutation of the nitrate sensor *CHL1/NRT1.1/NPF6.3* suppressed nitrate induction of
440 genes related to nitrite detoxification examined in Figure 5 (Supplemental Data in Wang

441 et al. 2009). Considering that over one-half of nitrite-responding genes overlap with
442 nitrate-responding genes (Wang et al. 2007) and that the molecular structure of nitrate
443 and nitrite is similar, it is possible that the same components could be involved in both
444 nitrate signaling and the nitrite induction of these genes.

445 In *A. thaliana*, chloroplasts purified from *LFNR1* knockout plants had enhanced
446 activities of nitrite reduction compared with those from Col (Hanke et al. 2008). This
447 implies a competition for reduced Fd between LFNR and NIR. Bloom et al. (2010) have
448 demonstrated that, in leaves, the conversion from nitrate to ammonium is suppressed
449 under elevated CO₂ with nitrate as an N source. This suggests that increased demand on
450 NADPH for CO₂ assimilation in the Calvin Benson cycle could deplete the reduced leaf
451 Fd available for NIR. Thus, some leaf localized Fd-dependent enzymatic reactions may
452 be limited by electron supply under high CO₂, which in turn, could necessitate a greater
453 contribution of root localized Fd-dependent reactions to bioassimilatory and biosynthetic
454 processes. Enhanced CO₂ assimilation under high CO₂ has been shown to increase
455 carbon partitioning to roots (Duan et al. 2014), providing more sugar for NADPH
456 production in the oxPPP. Reduction of root Fd by RFNR is a future research target worthy
457 of attention in the context of increasing CO₂ concentrations in the atmosphere.

458

459

460

461

462

463

464

465

466

467

468

469

470

471

472

473 **Materials and Methods**

474 *Plant materials and growth conditions*

475 *Arabidopsis thaliana* (L.) Heynh. accession Col and mutants *rfr1*-KO (SALK_085009),

476 *rfr2*-KO (SALK_133654), *rfr2*-KD (SAIL_527_G10), *gln1;2*-KO (SALK_102291,

477 Lothier et al. 2011) and *nial-1nia2-5* (*nr*), a *NITRATE REDUCTASE* double mutant

478 (Wilkinson and Crawford 1993) were used in our experiments. The seeds were purchased

479 from the European Arabidopsis Stock Centre. After surface sterilization, 10 seeds were

480 sown on plastic Petri dishes (length 140 mm, width 100 mm, depth 20 mm; Eiken Kagaku,

481 Tokyo, Japan) containing 50 ml of half-strength Murashige and Skoog-macro- and micro-

482 nutrient salts (except for N) with 0.05% (w/v) MES-H₂O, 1% (w/v) sucrose (Murashige

483 and Skoog 1962). For the media containing 0.2 mM of nitrate (NA), nitrite (NI) or

484 ammonium (A), 0.2 mM KNO₃ and 1.8 mM KCl, 0.2 mM KNO₂ and 1.8 mM KCl or 0.2

485 mM NH₄Cl and 2 mM KCl were added, respectively. The media were solidified with
486 0.5% (w/v) gerangum, and pH of the media was adjusted to 6.15 with KOH. After sowing,
487 the plates were kept at 4°C in the dark for three days. Plants were grown in a vertical
488 position on plastic dishes under a photosynthetic photon flux density of 100–120 μmol
489 m⁻² s⁻¹ (16 h light/8 h dark cycle) at 23°C. Ten seeds per plate were sown in all
490 experiments. For comparisons between Col and mutants, five seeds of each line were
491 placed on the same plate, if not specified. Further details are given in the Results and
492 figure legends.

493

494 *Root growth analysis*

495 For analysis of root growth, 7-day-old plants were harvested and scanned at
496 300 dpi resolution for measurement of root length according to Hachiya et al. (2014). The
497 root architecture was traced using Photoshop Elements 11 (Adobe Systems), and the
498 lengths of primary and lateral roots were measured from traced images using ImageJ
499 software (ver.1.47).

500

501 *Preparation for segmented plates*

502 A localized addition of nitrate or nitrite to plants was accomplished using
503 segmented plates where two patches were separated by an air gap (Remans et al. 2006).
504 For preparation of the segmented plate, basic nutrient media (as described above)
505 containing no N sources were solidified. The narrow gel split was eliminated with sterile
506 razors and forceps to create an air gap. Subsequently, concentrated potassium nitrate or

507 potassium nitrite were placed and spread on each patch of the media. To allow
508 homogenous diffusion of the N sources, the plates were prepared more than 48 h before
509 the experiments. Three 4-day-old Col and *rfr2-2* plants of each line grown on 0.2 mM
510 of ammonium medium were transferred onto the segmented plates. It should be noted that
511 shoots and roots were in contact with only the upper and lower patches, respectively. The
512 plants were grown for a further three days, and elongation of the primary root was
513 measured as described above.

514

515 *Extraction of total RNA, reverse transcription and real-time PCR*

516 For purification of total RNA, shoots or roots were harvested, immediately
517 frozen with liquid N₂ and stored at -80°C before use. All samples per plate were regarded
518 as one biological replicate. Frozen samples were ground with a TissueLyser II (QIAGEN,
519 Hilden, Germany) using 5 mm zirconia beads. Total RNA was extracted using RNeasy
520 plant mini kit (QIAGEN) according to the manufacturer's instructions with on-column
521 DNase digestion. Reverse transcription was performed with a ReverTra Ace qPCR RT
522 Master Mix (Toyobo Life Science, Tokyo, Japan) according to the manufacturer's
523 instructions. The synthesized cDNA was diluted 10-fold with distilled water for real-time
524 PCR.

525 Transcript levels were measured using a StepOnePlus Real-Time PCR System
526 (ThermoFisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). cDNA (2 µl) was amplified in the
527 presence of 10 µl of KAPA SYBR FAST qPCR Kit (Nippon Genetics Co., Ltd., Tokyo,
528 Japan), 0.5 µl of specific primers (0.2 µM final concentration) and 7.5 µl sterilized water.

529 Transcript levels were quantified using absolute or relative standard curve with *ACTIN3*
530 as the internal standard. Plasmid DNA containing the corresponding cDNAs or total
531 cDNAs were used as templates to generate standard curves. Primer sequences used for
532 the experiments are shown in Supplemental Table S2. Primers were designed with the
533 NCBI/Primer-BLAST program.

534

535 *Western analysis of RFNR proteins*

536 Roots were harvested, immediately frozen with liquid N₂ and stored at -80°C
537 before use. All samples per two plates were regarded as one biological replicate. Frozen
538 samples were ground with a TissueLyser II (QIAGEN) using 5 mm zirconia beads. Total
539 proteins were extracted with 10 volumes of sample buffer (NuPAGE LDS Sample buffer
540 and NuPAGE Reducing Agent, ThermoFisher Scientific) followed by incubation at 95°C
541 for 5 min. The extracts were centrifuged at 20,400 g at room temperature for 10 min. 10
542 µl of the supernatant was subjected to SDS-PAGE in a 15% (w/v) gel and transferred to
543 a PVDF membrane (Immobilon-P, Merck Millipore, Darmstadt, Germany) at 2 mA cm⁻²
544 for 1.5 h in transfer buffer (NuPAGE Transfer Buffer, ThermoFisher Scientific). The
545 membrane was incubated in blocking buffer containing ECL Prime Blocking Agent (GE
546 Healthcare, Little Chalfont, UK), 0.02% Tween-20, 20 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.4, 140 mM
547 NaCl for 1 h, and reacted with a 1/50000 dilution of the polyclonal antibody raised against
548 maize RFNR overnight (Onda et al. 2000). After rinsing, the antigen-antibody complex
549 was detected by 1/50000 dilution of horseradish peroxidase (HRP)-conjugated with goat
550 antibody against rabbit IgG (NA935, GE Healthcare) and visualized by chemiluminescent

551 detection (ECL Prime, GE Healthcare) using ImageQuant LAS 4010 (GE Healthcare).

552

553 *Determination of nitrate, nitrite, ammonium, glutamine, glutamate and protein*

554 Nitrate was extracted and determined according to Hachiya et al. (2012) with
555 slight modifications. Shoots or roots were harvested and dried at 80°C before use. All
556 samples per plate were regarded as one biological replicate. Nitrate was extracted with
557 10 volumes of water at 100°C for 10 min. 10 µl of supernatant was mixed with 40 µl of
558 reaction reagent (50 mg salicylic acid per one ml concentrated sulfuric acid), and the
559 mixture was incubated at room temperature for 20 min. For the mock treatment, 40 µl of
560 concentrated sulfuric acid only was added to 10 µl of supernatant. After an addition of 1
561 ml of NaOH to the mixture, absorbance at 410 nm was scanned. Nitrate content of the
562 supernatant was calculated based on standard curve with dilution series of potassium
563 nitrate.

564 For nitrite determination, roots were harvested, immediately frozen with liquid
565 N₂ and stored at -80°C before use. All samples per five plates were regarded as one
566 biological replicate. Frozen samples were ground with a TissueLyser II (QIAGEN) using
567 5 mm zirconia beads. Nitrite was extracted with 5 volumes of extraction buffer (50 mM
568 Hepes-KOH, pH7.6, 1 mM EDTA, 7 mM cysteine). The extracts were centrifuged at
569 20,400 g at 4°C for 10 min. The supernatant was mixed with equal volumes of 1% (w/v)
570 sulfanilamide solution in 1N HCl and 0.02% (w/v) N-1-Naphthylethylenediamine
571 dihydrochloride solution in H₂O. For detection of the nonspecific background, 1% (w/v)
572 sulfanilamide solution in 1N HCl was replaced by 1N HCl. The mixture was incubated at

573 room temperature for 15 min followed by scanning absorbance at 540 nm. Nitrite content
574 of the supernatant was calculated based on standard curve with dilution series of
575 potassium nitrite by subtracting the background values from the total values.

576 For ammonium determination, roots were harvested, immediately frozen with
577 liquid N₂ and stored at -80°C before use. All samples per plate were regarded as one
578 biological replicate. Ammonium was extracted and determined according to Bräutigam
579 et al. (2007) with slight modifications. Frozen samples were ground with a TissueLyser
580 II (QIAGEN) using 5 mm zirconia beads. 1 ml of 0.1 N HCl and 500 µl of chloroform
581 were added to the frozen powder. The mixture was rotated for 15 min at 4°C followed by
582 centrifugation at 12,000 g at 8°C for 10 min. The aqueous phase was further purified by
583 acid-washed activated charcoal (No. 035-18081; Wako, Osaka, Japan). Ammonium
584 content of the supernatant was spectroscopically determined using an ammonia test kit
585 (No. 277-14401, Wako) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

586 For determination of glutamine and glutamate, roots were harvested,
587 immediately frozen with liquid N₂ and stored at -80°C before use. All samples per five
588 plates were regarded as one biological replicate. Glutamine and glutamate were extracted
589 and determined according to Kamada-Nobusada et al. (2013). Frozen samples were
590 ground with a TissueLyser II (QIAGEN) using 5 mm zirconia beads. The powder was
591 mixed with 10 volumes of 10 mM HCl containing 0.2 mM methionine sulfone as an
592 internal control. The homogenate was centrifuged at 20400 g at 4°C for 5 min, and the
593 supernatant was filtered through Ultrafree-MC filters (No. UFC30GV00, Merck
594 Millipore). Amino acid contents in the resulting filtrate were determined using Pico-Tag

595 (Waters Corporation, Milford, MA, USA) with an HPLC System (Waters Alliance 2695
596 HPLC system/2475) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

597 Total protein was extracted as described above. 10 μ l of the extracts were
598 suspended into 500 μ l of H₂O, after which 100 μ l of 0.15 % (w/v) sodium deoxycholate
599 aqueous solution was added, and the mixture was incubated at room temperature for 10
600 min. Subsequent addition of 100 μ l of 72% (v/v) trichloroacetic acid was followed by
601 incubation at room temperature for 15 min. The mixture was centrifuged at 20,400 g at
602 room temperature for 10 min, and the precipitates were dried at room temperature and
603 used for protein determination by a BCA method (Takara BCA Protein Assay Kit No.
604 T9300A, Takara Bio Inc., Otsu, Japan) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

605

606 *Determination of activities of nitrate reductase and glutamine synthetase*

607 NR activity was determined according to Konishi and Yanagisawa (2011).
608 Shoots or roots were harvested, immediately frozen with liquid N₂ and stored at -80°C
609 before use. All samples per two plates were regarded as one biological replicate. Frozen
610 samples were ground with a TissueLyser II (QIAGEN) using 5 mm zirconia beads. The
611 powder was mixed with 5 volumes of extraction buffer (50 mM Hepes-KOH, pH7.6, 1
612 mM EDTA, 7 mM cysteine). The extracts were centrifuged at 20,400 g at 4°C for 10 min.
613 25 μ l of the supernatant was added to 75 μ l of assay buffer (50 mM Hepes-KOH, pH7.6,
614 100 μ M NADH, 2 mM EDTA, 5 mM KNO₃). After incubation at 30°C for 15 min, nitrite
615 produced was determined as mentioned above.

616 GS activity was determined as the ADP-dependent conversion rate of L-

617 glutamine to γ -glutamylhydroxamate according to Taira et al. (2004) and Li et al. (2012)
618 with slight modifications. Shoots or roots were harvested, immediately frozen with liquid
619 N₂ and stored at -80°C before use. All samples per two plates were regarded as one
620 biological replicate. Frozen samples were ground with a TissueLyser II (QIAGEN) using
621 5 mm zirconia beads. The powder was mixed with 10 volumes of extraction buffer (100
622 mM Tris-HCl, pH7.5, 1% (w/v) PVP-40, 1 mM EDTA, 1 mM MnCl₂, 0.5% (v/v) β -
623 mercaptoethanol, 0.1 mM APMSF). The extracts were centrifuged at 12,000 g at 4°C for
624 10 min. 45 μ l of assay buffer (40 mM imidazole-HCl, pH 7.0, 20 mM sodium arsenate,
625 0.5 mM ADP, 3 mM MnCl₂, 60 mM NH₂OH, 30 mM L-glutamine) was added to 5 μ l of
626 the supernatant, and the mixture was incubated at 30°C for 15 min. Reactions were
627 stopped by adding 30 μ l of FeCl₃-TCA-HCl solution (2.6% FeCl₃·6H₂O, 4%
628 trichloroacetic acid in 1N HCl). The products were measured by absorbance at 540 nm.

629

630 *Construction of ProRFNR2:GUS fusions*

631 The putative promoter region (-879 to +24 bp from the first ATG codon) was
632 amplified from *Arabidopsis* genomic DNA using PrimeSTAR GXL DNA Polymerase
633 (Takara Bio Inc.) and specific primers (see Supplemental Table 2). PCR products were
634 cloned into pENTR using pENTR/D-TOPO Cloning Kit (ThermoFisher Scientific)
635 according to the manufacturer's instructions, sequenced, and subcloned into pBA002a-
636 GW-GUS (Kiba et al. 2007) by LR reaction. The binary vector was transformed into
637 *Agrobacterium* strain EHA101. Transformants were selected on LB medium containing
638 100 mg L⁻¹ spectinomycin and positive clones were recovered. *Arabidopsis* plants

639 accession Col was transformed by the floral dip method (Clough and Bent 1998).
640 Transgenic seedlings were isolated on Murashige and Skoog medium containing 1%
641 sucrose and 5 mg L⁻¹ bialaphos sodium salt. Segregation ratios were analyzed to select
642 plants with one copy of T-DNA and to isolate homozygous plants. T3-homozygous plants
643 were used for experiments.

644

645 *GUS Staining*

646 Histochemical GUS staining was performed according to Jefferson (1987) with
647 slight modifications. Plants were incubated in 90% (v/v) acetone solution on ice for 15
648 min, and submerged into assay buffer (100 mM sodium phosphate, pH 7.4, 10 mM EDTA,
649 5 mM ferro/ferricyanide, 0.1% (v/v) Triton X-100, 0.5 mg mL⁻¹ X-Gluc), followed by
650 vacuum infiltration at room temperature for 15 min. Plants were incubated in the dark at
651 37 °C for 4.5 h. The stained plants were washed with 70 % (v/v) ethanol and bleached
652 with 6:1 (v/v) ethanol : acetic acid. The samples were mounted with chloral hydrate
653 solution (8:1:2 (w/v/v) chloral hydrate : glycerol : H₂O) and observed using a
654 stereoscopic microscope (Olympus SZX12, Olympus, Tokyo, Japan) and an optical
655 microscope (Olympus BX53).

656

657 *Statistical analysis*

658 All statistical analyses were conducted using the R software package (ver.
659 2.15.3). Details of analyses are given in the Results and in table and figure legends.

660

661

662

663

664

665

666

667

668 **Funding**

669 This work was supported by RIKEN Special Postdoctoral Researchers (SPDR)
670 fellowship to T.H..

671 **Disclosures**

672 Conflicts of interest: No conflicts of interest declared.

673 **Acknowledgements**

674 We are grateful to Prof. Crawford for the kind gifts of the mutant seeds. Prof. Terashima,
675 Prof. Noguchi and Dr. Kiba are thanked for important advice and for making available
676 the pBA002a-GW-GUS vector. We thank Ms. Akiko Suzuki for her technical assistance.

677

678

679

680

681

682

683

684

685

686

687

688

689 **References**

690 Andrew, M., Morton, J.D., Liefering, M. and Bisset, L. (1992) The partitioning of nitrate
691 assimilation between root and shoot of a range of temperate cereals and pasture grasses.
692 *Ann. Bot.* 70: 271-276.

693

694 Aoki, Y., Okamura, Y., Tadaka, S., Kinoshita, K. and Obayashi, T. (2016) ATTED-II in
695 2016: a plant coexpression database towards lineage-specific coexpression. *Plant Cell*
696 *Physiol.* Doi: 10.1093/pcp/pcv165.

697

698 Araya, T., Miyamoto, M., Wibowo, J., Suzuki, A., Kojima, S., Tsuchiya, Y.N., Sawa, S.,
699 Fukuda, H., von Wirén, N. and Takahashi, H. (2014) CLE-CLAVATA1 peptide-receptor
700 signaling module regulates the expansion of plant root systems in a nitrogen-dependent
701 manner. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* 111: 2029-2034.

702

703 Bloom, A.J., Burger, M., Asensio, J.S.R. and Cousins, A.B. (2010) Carbon dioxide
704 enrichment inhibits nitrate assimilation in wheat and *Arabidopsis*. *Science* 328: 899-903.

705

706 Bräutigam, A., Gagneul, D. and Weber, A.P.M. (2007) High-throughput colorimetric
707 method for the parallel assay of glyoxylic acid and ammonium in a single extract. *Anal.*
708 *Biochem.* 362: 151–153.

709

710 Clough, S.J. and Bent, A.F. (1998) Floral dip: a simplified method for *Agrobacterium*-
711 mediated transformation of *Arabidopsis thaliana*. *Plant J.* 16: 735-743.

712

713 Duan, Z., Homma, A., Kobayashi, M., Nagata, N., Kaneko, Y., Fujiki, Y. and Nishida, I.
714 (2014) Photoassimilation, assimilate translocation and plasmodesmal biogenesis in the
715 source leaves of *Arabidopsis thaliana* grown under an increased atmospheric CO₂
716 concentration. *Plant Cell Physiol.* 55: 358-369.

717

718 Fernández-Marcos, M., Sanz, L. and Lorenzo, O. (2012) An emerging regulator of cell
719 elongation during primary root growth. *Plant Signal. Behav.* 7: 196-200.

720

721 Guan, M., Møller, I.S. and Schjoerring, J.K. (2015) Two cytosolic glutamine synthetase
722 isoforms play specific roles for seed germination and seed yield structure in *Arabidopsis*.
723 *J. Exp. Bot.* 66: 203-212.

724

725 Hachiya, T., Watanabe, C.K., Fujimoto, M., Ishikawa, T., Takahara, K., Kawai-Yamada,
726 M. et al. (2012) Nitrate addition alleviates ammonium toxicity without lessening

727 ammonium accumulation, organic acid depletion and inorganic cation depletion in
728 *Arabidopsis thaliana* shoots. *Plant Cell Physiol.* 53: 577–591.

729

730 Hachiya, T., Sugiura, D., Kojima, M., Sato, S., Yanagisawa, S., Sakakibara, H.,
731 Terashima, I. and Noguchi, K. (2014) High CO₂ triggers preferential root growth of
732 *Arabidopsis thaliana* via two distinct systems under low pH and low N stresses. *Plant*
733 *Cell Physiol.* 55: 269–280.

734

735 Hanke, G.T., Kimata-Arigo, Y., Taniguchi, I. and Hase, T. (2004) A post genomic
736 characterization of *Arabidopsis* ferredoxins. *Plant Physiol.* 134: 255-264.

737

738 Hanke, G.T., Okutani, S., Satomi, Y., Takao, T., Suzuki, A. and Hase, T. (2005) Multiple
739 iso-proteins of FNR in *Arabidopsis*: evidence for different contributions to chloroplast
740 function and nitrogen assimilation. *Plant Cell Environ.* 28: 1146-1157.

741

742 Hanke, G.T. and Mulo, P. (2013). Plant type ferredoxins and ferredoxin-dependent
743 metabolism. *Plant Cell Environ.* 36: 1071-1084.

744

745 Hong, S.M., Bahn, S.C., Lyu, A., Jung, H.S. and Ahn, J.H. (2010) Identification and
746 testing of superior reference genes for a starting pool of transcript normalization in
747 *Arabidopsis*. *Plant Cell Physiol.* 51: 1694-1706.

748

749 Huang, X., von Rad, U. and Durner, J. (2002) Nitric oxide induces transcriptional
750 activation of the nitric oxide-tolerant alternative oxidase in *Arabidopsis* suspension cells.
751 *Planta* 215: 914-923.
752

753 Ishiyama, K., Inoue, E., Watanabe-Takahashi, A., Obara, M., Yamaya, T. and Takahashi,
754 H. (2004) Kinetic properties and ammonium-dependent regulation of cytosolic
755 isoenzymes of glutamine synthetase in *Arabidopsis*. *J. Biol. Chem.* 279: 16598-16605.
756

757 Jefferson, R.A. (1987) Assaying chimeric genes in plants: the GUS gene fusion system.
758 *Plant Mol. Biol. Rep.* 5: 387-405.
759

760 Jones, R.D. and Schwab, A.P. (1993) Nitrate leaching and nitrite occurrence in a fine-
761 textured soil. *Soil Sci.* 155: 272-281.
762

763 Kamada-Nobusada, T., Makita, N., Kojima, M. and Sakakibara, H. (2013) Nitrogen-
764 dependent regulation of de novo cytokinin biosynthesis in rice: the role of glutamine
765 metabolism as an additional signal. *Plant Cell Physiol.* 54: 1881–1893.
766

767 Kiba, T., Henriques, R., Sakakibara, H. and Chua, N.H. (2007) Targeted degradation of
768 PSEUDO-RESPONSE REGULATOR5 by a SCFZTL complex regulates clock function
769 and photomorphogenesis in *Arabidopsis thaliana*. *Plant Cell* 19 : 2516
770

771 Kiba, T. and Krapp, Anne. (2016) Plant nitrogen acquisition under low availability:
772 regulation of uptake and root architecture. *Plant Cell Physiol.* Doi: 10.1093/pcp/pcw052
773

774 Konishi, M. and Yanagisawa, S. (2011) The regulatory region controlling the nitrate-
775 responsive expression of a nitrate reductase gene, *NIA1*, in Arabidopsis. *Plant Cell*
776 *Physiol.* 52: 824-836.
777

778 Konishi, M. and Yanagisawa, S. (2013) Arabidopsis NIN-like transcription factors have
779 a central role in nitrate signaling. *Nat. Commun.* 4: 1617.
780

781 Konishi, N., Ishiyama, K., Matsuoka, K., Maru, I., Hayakawa, T., Yamaya, T. and Kojima,
782 S. (2014) NADH-dependent glutamate synthase plays a crucial role in assimilation
783 ammonium in the Arabidopsis root. *Physiol. Plant* 152: 138-151.
784

785 Kotur, Z., Siddiqi, Y.M. and Glass, A.D.M. (2013) Characterization of nitrite uptake in
786 *Arabidopsis thaliana*: evidence for a nitrite-specific transporter. *New Phytol.* 200: 201-
787 210.
788

789 Krapp, A., Berthomé, R., Orsel, M., Mercey-Boutet, S., Yu, A., Castaings, L., Elftieh, S.,
790 Major, H., Renou, J.-P. and Daniel-Vedele, F. (2011) Arabidopsis roots and shoots show
791 distinct temporal adaptation patterns toward nitrogen starvation. *Plant Physiol.* 157:
792 1255-1282.

793

794 Krapp, A. (2015) Plant nitrogen assimilation and its regulation: a complex puzzle with
795 missing pieces. *Curr. Opin. Plant Biol.* 25: 115-122.

796

797 Lancien, M., Martin, M., Hsieh, M.-H., Leustek, T., Goodman, H. and Coruzzi, G. (2002)
798 *Arabidopsis gtl1-T* mutant defines a role for NADH-GOGAT in the non-photorespiratory
799 ammonium assimilatory pathway. *Plant J.* 29: 347-358.

800

801 Li, G., Dong, G., Li, B., Li, Q., Kronzucker, H.J. and Shi, W. (2012) Isolation and
802 characterization of a novel ammonium overly sensitive mutant, *amos2*, in *Arabidopsis*
803 *thaliana*. *Planta* 235: 239-252.

804

805 Lindermayr, C., Saalbach, G. and Durner, J. (2005) Proteomic identification of S-
806 nitrosylated proteins in *Arabidopsis*. *Plant Physiol.* 137: 921-930.

807

808 Lima, J.E., Kojima, S., Takahashi, H. and von Wirén, N. (2010) Ammonium triggers
809 lateral root branching in *Arabidopsis* in an AMMONIUM TRANSPORTER1;3-
810 dependent manner. *Plant Cell* 22: 3621-3633.

811

812 Lintala, M., Allahverdiyeva, Y., Kangasjärvi, S., Lehtimäki, N., Keränen, M., Rintamäki,
813 E., Aro, E.-M. and Mulo, P. (2009) Comparative analysis of leaf-type ferredoxin-NADP⁺
814 oxidoreductase isoforms in *Arabidopsis thaliana*. *Plant J* 57: 1103-1115.

815

816 Lintala, M., Lehtimäki, N., Benz, J.P., Jungfer, A., Soll, J., Aro, E.-M., Bölder, B. and
817 Mulo, P. (2012) Depletion of leaf-type ferredoxin-NADP⁺ oxidoreductase results in the
818 permanent induction of photoprotective mechanisms in Arabidopsis chloroplasts. *Plant*
819 *J.* 70: 809-817.

820

821 López Pasquali, C.E., Fernández Hernando, P. and Durand Alegría, J.S. (2007)
822 Spectrophotometric simultaneous determination of nitrite, nitrate and ammonium in soils
823 by flow injection analysis. *Anal. Chim. Acta* 600: 177-182.

824

825 Lothier, J., Gaufichon, L., Sormani, R., Lemaître, T., Azzopardi, M., Morin, H., Chardon,
826 F., Reisdorf-Cren, M., Avice, J.-C. and Masclaux-Daubresse, C. (2011) The cytosolic
827 glutamine synthetase GLN1;2 plays a role in the control of plant growth and ammonium
828 homeostasis in *Arabidopsis* rosettes when nitrate supply is not limiting. *J. Exp. Bot.* 62:
829 1375-1390.

830

831 Maeda, S.-I., Konishi, M., Yanagisawa, S. and Omata, T. (2014) Nitrite transport activity
832 of a novel HPP family protein conserved in cyanobacteria and chloroplasts. *Plant Cell*
833 *Physiol.* 55: 1311-1324.

834

835 Miller, A.J., Fan, X., Orsel, M., Smith, S.J. and Wells, D.M. (2007) Nitrate transport and
836 signaling. *J. Exp. Bot.* 58: 2297-2306.

837

838 Murashige, T. and Skoog, F. (1962) A revised medium for rapid growth and bio assays
839 with tobacco tissue cultures. *Physiol. Plant.* 15: 473-497.

840

841 Obayashi, T., Okamura, Y., Ito, S., Tadaka, S., Aoki, Y., Shirota, M. and Kinoshita, K.
842 (2014) ATTED-II in 2014: Evaluation of gene coexpression in agriculturally important
843 plants. *Plant Cell Physiol.* 55: e6(1-7).

844

845 Onda, Y., Matsumura, T., Kimata-Arigo, Y., Sakakibara, H., Sugiyama, T. and Hase, T.
846 (2000) Differential interaction of maize root ferredoxin:NADP⁺ oxidoreductase with
847 photosynthetic and non- photosynthetic ferredoxin isoproteins. *Plant Physiol.* 123: 1037-
848 1046.

849

850 Patterson, K., Cakmak, T., Cooper, A., Lager, I., Rasmusson, A.G. and Escobar, M.A.
851 (2010) Distinct signaling pathways and transcriptome response signatures differentiate
852 ammonium- and nitrate-supplied plants. *Plant Cell Environ.* 33: 1486-1501.

853

854 Rachmilevitch, S., Cousins, A.B. and Bloom, A.J. (2004) Nitrate assimilation in plant
855 shoots depends on photorespiration. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* 101: 11506-11510.

856

857 Remans, T., Nacry, P., Pervent, M., Filleur, S., Diatloff, E., Mounier, E., Tillard, P., Forde,
858 B.G. and Gojon, A. (2006) The *Arabidopsis* NRT1.1 transporter participates in the

859 signaling pathway triggering root colonization of nitrate-rich patches. *Proc. Natl. Acad.*
860 *Sci. USA* 103: 19206-19211.

861

862 Riley, W.J., Ortiz-Monasterio, I. and Matson, P.A. (2001) Nitrogen leaching and soil
863 nitrate, nitrite, and ammonium levels under irrigated wheat in Northern Mexico. *Nutr.*
864 *Cycl. Agroecosys.* 61: 223-236.

865

866 Rockel, P., Strube, F., Rockel, A., Wildt, J. and Kaiser, W.M. (2002) Regulation of nitric
867 oxide (NO) production by plant nitrate reductase *in vivo* and *in vitro*. *J. Exp. Bot.* 53: 103-
868 110.

869

870 Samater, A.H., Van Cleemput, O. and Ertebo, T. (1998) Influence of the presence of
871 nitrite and nitrate in soil on maize biomass production, nitrogen immobilization and
872 nitrogen recovery. *Biol. Fertil. Soils* 27: 211-218.

873

874 Scheurwater, I., Koren, M., Lambers, H. and Atkin, O.K. (2002) The contribution of roots
875 and shoots to whole plant nitrate reduction in fast- and slow-growing grass species. *J.*
876 *Exp. Bot.* 53: 1635-1642.

877

878 Shen, Q.R., Ran, W. and Cao, Z.H. (2003) Mechanisms of nitrite accumulation occurring
879 in soil nitrification. *Chemosphere* 50: 747-753.

880

881 Taira, M., Valtersson, U., Burkhardt, B. and Ludwig, R.A. (2004) *Arabidopsis thaliana*
882 *GLN2*-encoded glutamine synthetase is dual targeted to leaf mitochondria and
883 chloroplasts. *Plant Cell* 16 :2048-2058.
884

885 Wang, R., Guegler, K., LaBrie, S.T. and Crawford, N.M. (2000) Genomic analysis of a
886 nutrient response in *Arabidopsis* reveals diverse expression patterns and novel metabolic
887 and potential regulatory genes induced by nitrate. *Plant Cell* 12: 1491-1509.
888

889 Wang, R., Okamoto, M., Xing, X. and Crawford, N.M. (2003) Microarray analysis of the
890 nitrate response in *Arabidopsis* roots and shoots reveals over 1,000 rapidly responding
891 genes and new linkages to glucose, trehalose-6-phosphate, iron, and sulfate metabolism.
892 *Plant Physiol.* 132: 556-567.
893

894 Wang, R., Xing, X. and Crawford, N. (2007) Nitrite acts as a transcriptome signal at
895 micromolar concentrations in *Arabidopsis* roots. *Plant Physiol.* 145: 1735-1745.
896

897 Wang, R., Xing, X., Wang, Y., Tran, A. and Crawford, N.M. (2009) A genetic screen for
898 nitrate regulatory mutants captures the nitrate transporter gene *NRT1.1*. *Plant Physiol.*
899 151: 472-478.
900

901 Wilkinson, J.Q. and Crawford, N.M. (1993) Identification and characterization of a
902 chlorate-resistant mutant of *Arabidopsis thaliana* with mutations in both nitrate reductase

903 structural genes *NIA1* and *NIA2*. *Mol. Gen. Genet.* 239: 289-297.

904

905 Yu, X., Sukumaran, S. and Márton, L. (1998) Differential expression of the Arabidopsis

906 *Nia1* and *Nia2* genes. *Plant Physiol.* 116: 1091-1096.

907

908

909

910

911

912

913

914

915

916

917

918

919

920

921

922

923

924

925

926

927

928 **Legends to figures**

929 **Fig. 1** RFNR2 is the major RFNR isoform in roots grown on nitrite media. (A) Schematic
930 representation of *rfnr1* and *rfnr2* T-DNA insertion alleles. Boxes represent exons;
931 horizontal thin bars, untranslated region; horizontal thick bars, introns; ATG, initiation
932 codon; TGA, termination codon. (B) RT-PCR analysis using specific primers of *RFNR1*
933 and *RFNR2* transcript levels in roots of Col, *rfnr1* and *rfnr2-2* mutants grown under 0.2
934 mM nitrite for seven days (Supplementary Table S2). *ACT2* was used as the loading
935 control. (C) Immunodetection of RFNR1 and RFNR2 isoproteins with specific antisera
936 raised against maize RFNR following SDS-PAGE and western blotting in roots of Col,
937 *rfnr1* and *rfnr2-2* mutants grown under 0.2 mM nitrite for seven days. The position of the
938 nearest molecular weight marker is given on the left.

939

940 **Fig. 2** *RFNR2* is induced by nitrite. (A) Absolute transcript levels of *RFNR1* and *RFNR2*
941 in shoots and roots of Col grown under 0.2mM of nitrate (NA), nitrite (NI) or ammonium
942 (A) for seven days (Mean \pm SD, n = 3). (B) Relative transcript levels of *RFNR2* in 7 d
943 Col roots before (0 min) or after (30 min) the transfer to 0.2 mM nitrate, nitrite or
944 ammonium (Mean \pm SD, n = 3). (C) The tissue specific pattern of GUS activity in 5-day-
945 old *pRFNR2::GUS* seedlings grown under nitrate or nitrite. The arrowheads indicate root
946 tips. The scale bar denotes 10 mm. (D) GUS activity in the central portion of the primary

947 root. The scale bar denotes 100 μm . (E) GUS activity in the primary root tips. The scale
948 bar denotes 50 μm . (F) Relative transcript levels of *RFNR2* and *GUS* in the roots of 5 d
949 *pRFNR2::GUS* seedlings grown under nitrate or nitrite (Mean \pm SD, n = 4). Tukey-
950 Kramer's multiple comparison test was conducted at a significance level of $P < 0.05$ only
951 when a one-way ANOVA was significant at $P < 0.05$. Different letters denote significant
952 differences. Student's *t*-test was conducted ($*P < 0.05$).

953

954 **Fig. 3** *RFNR2* is essential for normal root growth on nitrite media. (A) Representative
955 photographs in 9-day-old Col and *rfnr2-2* grown on media containing 0.2 mM nitrate,
956 nitrite or ammonium. (B) Primary root length in 7-day-old Col and *rfnr2-2* grown on 0.2
957 mM nitrate (NA), nitrite (NI) or ammonium (A) (Mean \pm SD, n = 10). White and black
958 bars denote Col and *rfnr2-2*, respectively. (C) Lateral root length in 7-day-old Col and
959 *rfnr2-2* grown on 0.2 mM nitrate, nitrite or ammonium (Mean \pm SD, n = 10). (D)
960 Concentration dependency of primary root length in 7-day-old Col and *rfnr2-2* grown on
961 0, 0.04, 0.2 and 1 mM nitrate or nitrite (Mean \pm SD, n = 12-15). (E) Time-courses of
962 primary root elongation per day on 0.2 mM of each N source (Mean \pm SD, n = 15). (F)
963 Primary root elongation 3 days after the transfer from 0.2 mM nitrate or nitrite to 0.2 mM
964 of nitrate or nitrite in 4-day-old Col and *rfnr2-2*. "NA to NA" means the transfer from 0.2
965 mM nitrate to 0.2 mM nitrate (Mean \pm SD, n = 5). Tukey-Kramer's multiple comparison
966 test was conducted at a significance level of $P < 0.05$ only when a one-way ANOVA was
967 significant at $P < 0.05$. Different letters denote significant differences. NS means not
968 significant.

969

970 **Fig. 4** Impaired root growth of *RFNR2* mutant is due to nitrite accumulation. (A) Nitrite
971 contents in roots of 7-day-old Col and *rfnr2-2* grown on 0.2 mM nitrate (NA) or nitrite
972 (NI) (Mean \pm SD, n = 3). White and black bars denote Col and *rfnr2-2*, respectively. (B)
973 Primary root length in 7-day-old Col and *rfnr2-2* grown on 0.2 mM nitrite in the presence
974 or absence of the NO scavenger, cPTIO (Mean \pm SD, n = 10). (C) Relative transcript
975 levels of *AOX1a* in roots of 7-day-old Col and *rfnr2-2* grown on 0.2 mM nitrate or nitrite
976 (Mean \pm SD, n = 3). (D) NR activities (NRA) in shoots and roots of 7-day-old Col grown
977 on 0.2 mM nitrite (Mean \pm SD, n = 3). (E) Protein contents in plants of 7-day-old Col and
978 *rfnr2-2* grown on 0.2 mM nitrate, nitrite or ammonium (Mean \pm SD, n = 3). (F) Primary
979 root length in 7-day-old Col and *rfnr2-2* under 0.2 mM of nitrate, 0.2 mM nitrate plus 0.2
980 mM nitrite (i.e. 0.4 mM N in total), 0.2 mM nitrite, 0.2 mM nitrite plus 0.2 mM of
981 ammonium (i.e. 0.4 mM N in total) or 0.2 mM ammonium (Mean \pm SD, n = 10). (G)
982 Representative photographs in 7-day-old Col and *rfnr2-2* grown on 0.2 mM nitrate, 0.2
983 mM nitrate plus 0.2 mM nitrite or 0.2 mM nitrite. Tukey-Kramer's multiple comparison
984 test was conducted at a significance level of $P < 0.05$ only when a one-way ANOVA was
985 significant at $P < 0.05$. Different letters denote significant differences. ND and NS mean
986 not detected and not significant, respectively.

987

988 **Fig. 5** A specific set of genes related to nitrite reduction uniformly responds to nitrite. (A)
989 Relative transcript levels of *NIR*, *FD3*, *G6PD2*, *G6PD3*, *At1g64190*, *At5g41670* and
990 *At4g34270* (a reference gene, Hong et al. 2010) in shoots and roots of 7-day-old Col

991 grown on 0.2mM nitrate (NA), nitrite (NI) or ammonium (A) for seven days (Mean \pm SD,
992 n = 3). (B) Relative transcript levels of *NIR*, *FD3*, *G6PD2*, *G6PD3*, *At1g64190*,
993 *At5g41670*, *RFNR1* and *At4g34270* in 7-day-old Col roots before (0 min) or after (30
994 min) transfer to 0.2 mM nitrate, nitrite or ammonium (Mean \pm SD, n = 3). (C) Relative
995 transcript levels of *NIR*, *FD3*, *G6PD2*, *G6PD3*, *At1g64190*, *At5g41670*, *RFNR1* and
996 *At4g34270* in roots of 7-day-old Col and *rfnr2-2* grown on 0.2mM nitrite (Mean \pm SD, n
997 = 3). White and black bars denote Col and *rfnr2-2*, respectively. Tukey-Kramer's multiple
998 comparison test was conducted at a significance level of $P < 0.05$ only when a one-way
999 ANOVA was significant at $P < 0.05$. Student's *t*-test was conducted ($*P < 0.05$). NS
1000 means not significant.

1001

1002 **Fig. 6** RFNR2 is not essential for N reduction/assimilation when nitrate or ammonium
1003 are the sole N sources. (A) NR activities (NRA) in shoots and roots of 7-day-old Col on
1004 0.2 mM nitrate (Mean \pm SD, n = 4). (B) Nitrate contents in shoots and roots of 7-day-old
1005 Col and NR double mutant (*nr*) on 0.2 mM nitrate (Mean \pm SD, n = 3). White and dotted
1006 bars denote Col and *nr*, respectively. (C) GS activities in roots of 7-day-old Col and *gln1;2*
1007 grown on 0.2mM ammonium (Mean \pm SD, n = 4). White and diagonal bars denote Col
1008 and *gln1;2*, respectively. (D) Ammonium contents in the roots of 7-day-old Col and
1009 *gln1;2* grown on 0.2 mM ammonium (Mean \pm SD, n = 3). (E) Contents of glutamine and
1010 glutamate in roots of 7-day-old Col and *rfnr2-2* grown on 0.2 mM ammonium (Mean \pm
1011 SD, n = 3). White and black bars denote Col and *rfnr2-2*, respectively. Tukey-Kramer's
1012 multiple comparison test was conducted at a significance level of $P < 0.05$ only when a

1013 one-way ANOVA was significant at $P < 0.05$. Different letters denote significant
1014 differences. Student's t -test was conducted ($*P < 0.05$). ND and NS mean not detected
1015 and not significant, respectively.

Figure 1

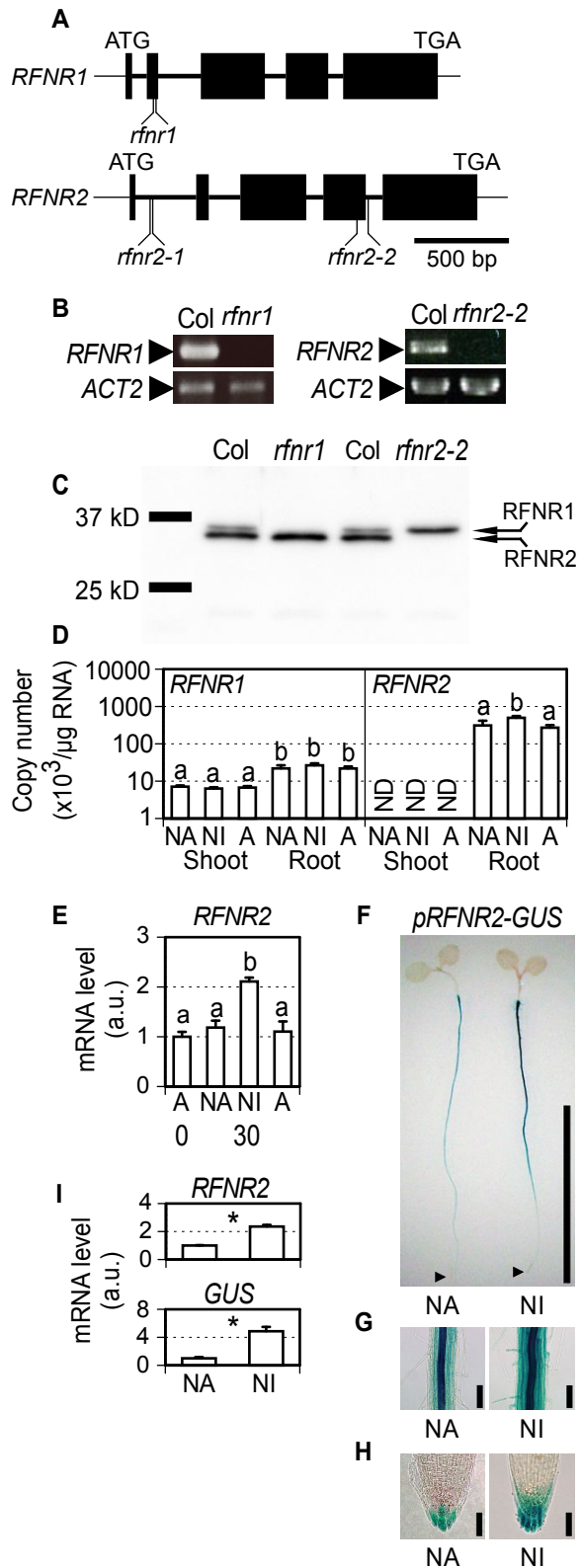


Figure 2

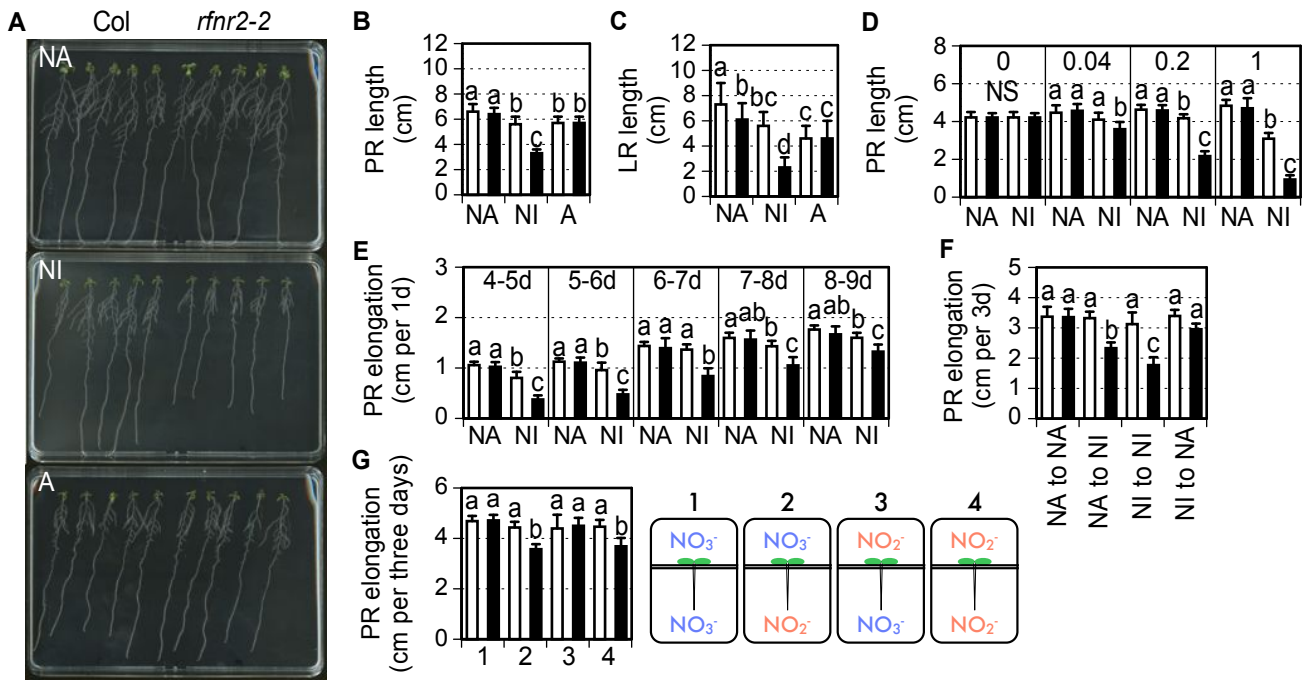


Figure 4

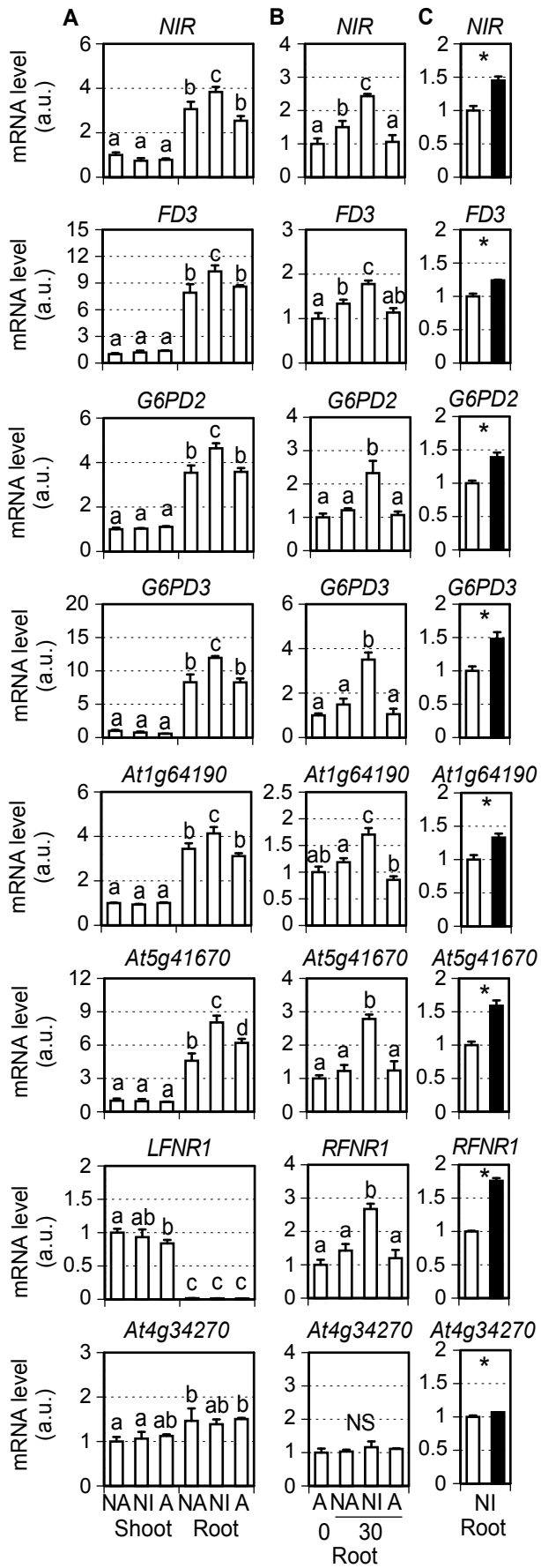


Figure 5

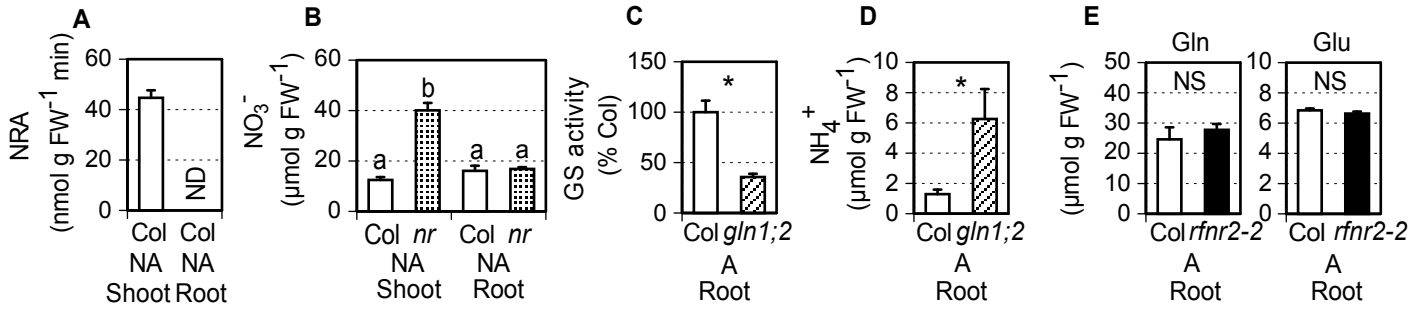


Table S1. A list coexpressed with RFNR2 by ATTED II (Obayashi et al. 2007)

| AGI No. | AGI No. | Gene name |
|----------------|----------------|----------------------|
| 1st | At1g24280 | <i>G6PD3</i> |
| 2nd | At5g41670 | <i>dehydrogenase</i> |
| 3rd | At5g13420 | <i>TRA2</i> |
| 4th | At4g05390 | <i>RFNR1</i> |
| 5th | At1g78050 | <i>PGM</i> |
| 6th | At5g13110 | <i>G6PD2</i> |
| 7th | At2g15620 | <i>NIR</i> |
| 8th | At1g63940 | <i>MDAR6</i> |
| 9th | At2g27510 | <i>FD3</i> |
| 10th | At1g64190 | <i>dehydrogenase</i> |

Table S2. Primer sequences

| AGI No. | Gene name | Purpose | Primer 1 (5'->3') | Primer 2 (5'->3') | Reference |
|-----------|------------------|-----------------------|-------------------------------|----------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| AT4G05390 | <i>RFNR1</i> | gPCR for SALK_085009 | TAACAACGAATTTGGCTTTGG | GGGATTCTCACCTACGAGTC | This paper |
| AT1G30510 | <i>RFNR2</i> | gPCR for SAIL_527_G10 | CCAACTACTCGCTCCACAGAG | TCGGTTCAGGAAAATGATTTG | This paper |
| AT1G30510 | <i>RFNR2</i> | gPCR for SALK_133654 | TCAATAGACTTCAACGTGCCAC | CTCTGTGGAGCGAGTAGTTGG | This paper |
| AT3G18780 | <i>ACT2</i> | RT-PCR/gPCR | TGCTCCTCACTTTCATCAGC | CATCAATTCGATCACTCAGAGC | This paper |
| AT4G05390 | <i>RFNR1</i> | RT-PCR/gPCR | CACCATGGCTCTCTCAACTACTCCTTC | TCAATACACTTCAACATGCCACTGC | This paper |
| AT1G30510 | <i>RFNR2</i> | RT-PCR/gPCR | CACCATGTCTCACTCTGCTGTTTC | TCAATAGACTTCAACGTGCCACTG | This paper |
| AT3G53750 | <i>ACT3</i> | Q-PCR | GGCTAACCGTGAGAAGATGA | CGACCTGCAAGATCAAGACG | Watanabe et al. (2014) |
| AT3G22370 | <i>AOX1a</i> | Q-PCR | CCGATTTGTTCTCCAGAGG | GCGCTCTCTCGTACCATTTC | Escobar et al. (2004) |
| AT1G64190 | <i>At1g64190</i> | Q-PCR | GCACTATCCCGAATCGGTCTC | AGGCGAGGTTTTGGCCCAT | This paper |
| AT4G34270 | <i>At4g34270</i> | Q-PCR | CATTTCACTCTATCTGCGAAAGGGTATCC | CACCACAATAAGTCAGTGGAGTAACTCCTTAC | Hong et al. (2010) |
| AT5G41670 | <i>At5g41670</i> | Q-PCR | GAGTCAGTAAAGCATGGACACAGT | AGCTGAAACAATTTGTTTTCGTGTCT | Gonzali et al. (2006) |
| AT2G27510 | <i>FD3</i> | Q-PCR | GCAGCTGAAGAGGCAGGAGT | AAGTAGAACACGCACCGGCT | This paper |
| AT5G13110 | <i>G6PD2</i> | Q-PCR | CCCTGGTTTAGGAATGAGAT | TAAGAGAAACCCCTTTGGTT | Wakao and Benning (2005) |
| AT1G24280 | <i>G6PD3</i> | Q-PCR | TGGTTTATGGAACTTTCTTTCCG | AGGGTGGCAAGAATAGGGTA | Ruffel et al. (2011) |
| AT1G66200 | <i>GLN1;2</i> | Q-PCR | AGCCAAGCTTCTCGATCGCC | TGGAATGGAGCTGGTGCTCA | This paper |
| AT5G35630 | <i>GLN2</i> | Q-PCR | TTGACCAGTTCTCATGGGGC | TTAGATGCTGGACGGCGATC | This paper |
| AT5G53460 | <i>GLT</i> | Q-PCR | TTGGACCTGAGCCAACACTTG | CATCATCCGTTTTGGTGAGGA | Potel et al. (2009) |
| AT5G04140 | <i>GLU1</i> | Q-PCR | ATCATTCAAGAGCAGGTTGT | GACAGTTGAAAGCAGTTATT | Potel et al. (2009) |
| AT2G41220 | <i>GLU2</i> | Q-PCR | TACACATTTGATCGTGTTT | AATCGAAAACCCCTTTCTTAA | Potel et al. (2009) |
| - | <i>GUS</i> | Q-PCR | GAAAGCGCGTTACAAGAAAG | GACGTTGCCCGCATAATTAC | Tanabe et al. (2015) |
| AT5G66190 | <i>LFNR1</i> | Q-PCR | CTGCAGTCTCTTACCTTCTCC | GACAACAATCCCTTCTCCTGTTTC | Lintala et al. (2009) |
| AT2G15620 | <i>NIR</i> | Q-PCR | CATGGGATGCTTAACACGAG | AATGGAACCAACTCCGTGAC | Konishi and Yanagisawa (2011) |
| AT4G05390 | <i>RFNR1</i> | Q-PCR | CAATGCCAAACCCGGCGATA | CCTTCCAGATGGACCGGTGA | This paper |
| AT1G30510 | <i>RFNR2</i> | Q-PCR | CGGGCTTTGAATCACATAGG | TGTGATTCTCCAGGTGAGA | This paper |

Figure S1

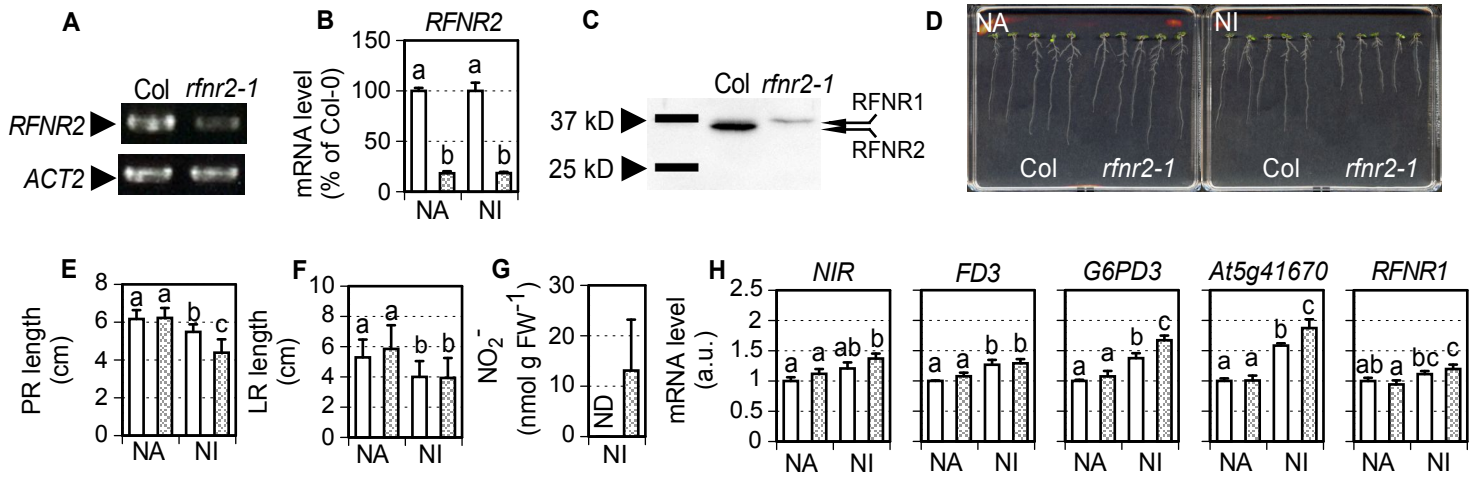


Figure S2

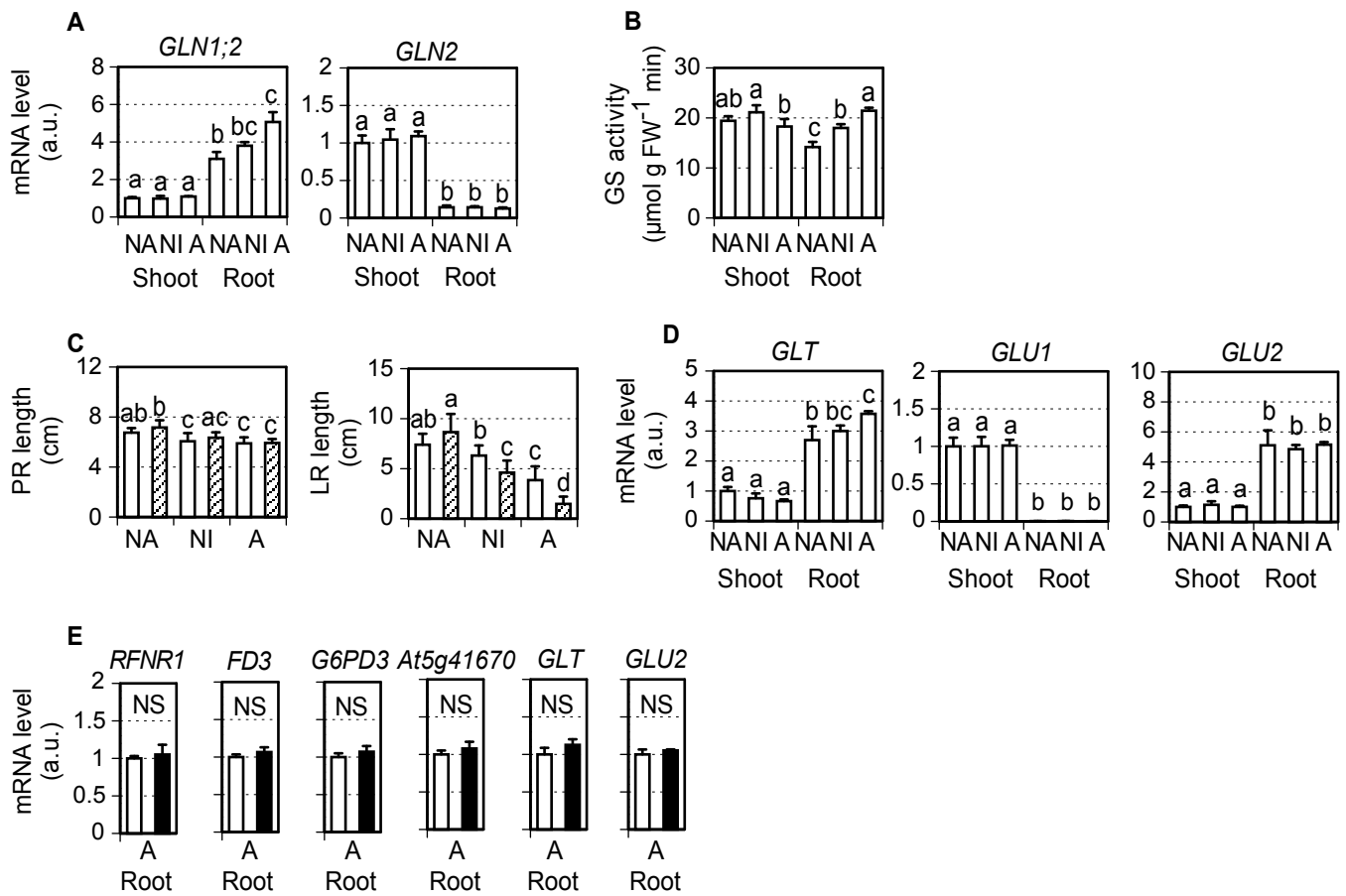


Figure S3

