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Permalink

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Journal

Environmental Microbiology, 21(10)

ISSN

1462-2912

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Publication Date

2019-10-01

DOI

10.1111/1462-2920.14741

Peer reviewed

Multi-omic analyses of exogenous nutrient bag decomposition by the black morel *Morchella importuna* reveal sustained carbon acquisition and transferring

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Summary

The black morel (*Morchella importuna* Kuo, O'Donnell and Volk) was once an uncultivable wild mushroom,

until the development of exogenous nutrient bag (ENB), making its agricultural production quite feasible and stable. To date, how the nutritional acquisition of the morel mycelium is fulfilled to trigger its fruiting remains unknown. To investigate the mechanisms involved in ENB decomposition, the genome of a culturable morel strain (*M. importuna* SCYDJ1-A1) was sequenced and the genes coding for the decay apparatus were identified. Expression of the encoded carbohydrate-active enzymes (CAZymes) was then analyzed by metatranscriptomics and metaproteomics in combination with biochemical assays. The results show that a diverse set of hydrolytic and redox CAZymes secreted by the morel mycelium is the main force driving the substrate decomposition. Plant polysaccharides such as starch and cellulose present in ENB substrate (wheat grains plus rice husks) were rapidly degraded, whereas triglycerides were accumulated initially and consumed later. ENB decomposition led to a rapid increase in the organic carbon content in the surface soil of the mushroom bed, which was thereafter consumed during morel fruiting. In contrast to the high carbon consumption, no significant acquisition of nitrogen was observed. Our findings contribute to an increasingly detailed portrait of molecular features triggering morel fruiting.

Introduction

Species in the fungal genus *Morchella*, commonly known as morels, are important gourmet mushrooms. Morels possess diverse ecological types including saprotrophic, pyrophilic and ectomycorrhizal, and the boundary of ecological types can be vague (Pilz *et al.*, 2004). Commercial demand for morel in world market is constantly growing, despite their high price (Tietel and Masaphy, 2018). Due to limited production of wild morels, attempts to cultivate morels artificially started over 130 years ago (Roze, 1882). Ascocarps (fruiting bodies) were once produced in walk-in growth chambers (Ower *et al.*, 1989), but further development of this method ceased, as repeating Ower's success by others has proven difficult (Masaphy, 2010). Although several

emerged in the last two decades (Liu *et al.*, 2018), morel cultivation industry was boosted only after the breeding of several black morel varieties with improved fruiting yield and stability (Peng *et al.*, 2016; Liu *et al.*, 2018), and more importantly, the development and widespread application of an appropriate organic substrate contained in the so-called exogenous nutrient bag (ENB), a special type of culture substrate enriched in plant polysaccharides. Thanks to the ENB technique, cultivation of black morel expanded rapidly in China from 200 ha in 2011 to over 1200 ha in 2015 (Liu *et al.*, 2016), which generated the exportation of dried fruiting bodies from 180 to 900 tons between 2011 and 2015 (Du *et al.*, 2015). Despite its widespread application, the decomposition mechanisms taking place in ENB remain to be determined.

Use of ENB is the key technique that allowed large-scale ascocarp formation from the *Morchella elata* clade (O'Donnell *et al.*, 2011). It was initially developed in 2000 as a prototype (Tan, 2016), improved later and evolved to the present form. The most prevalent ENB formulation today is a plastic bag filled with wheat grains plus rice husks, and then autoclaved. After piercing or cutting its bottom casing to allow colonization by morel mycelium from the soil, ENBs are placed on the surface of soil inoculated with black morel, the so-called mushroom bed (Fig. 1A and B). The mushroom bed is an outdoor soil ecosystem containing natural microbial inhabitants, rather than a quasi-sterile environment. The cultivation method for black morel is unique, very different from the cultivation of usual edible mushrooms such as *Pleurotus ostreatus*, *Lentinus edodes*, *Agaricus bisporus* (Chang and Hayes, 2013) and *Coprinus comatus* (Stojković *et al.*, 2013). For

unknown reasons, ENB is required for high-yield and stable fruiting of black morel. It is believed that ENB provides key organic nutrients,

(C) source for morel mycelium and is considered as a special type of mushroom culture substrate (Fig. 1C).

Wild morels are able to produce fruiting bodies on various types of substrates, such as post-fire forest soils (Larson *et al.*, 2016), plant debris as well as living roots (Pilz *et al.*, 2004; 2007). In post-fire soils, wild morels are unlikely to consume recent plant litter as primary C and nitrogen (N) sources (Hobbie *et al.*, 2016). Compared with the contingent fruiting in the wild, ENB provides a highly reproducible system which allows the black morel to complete its life cycle in an artificial environment. It is particularly helpful for studying physiological and biochemical processes driving the fruiting of soil saprotrophic mushrooms.

To investigate the mechanisms involved in ENB decomposition, genome of *Morchella importuna* was sequenced and genes coding for the decay apparatus were identified. Expression of the encoded carbohydrate-active enzymes (CAZymes) was then analyzed by metatranscriptomics and metaproteomics in combination with bioassays.

Results

Genome features

The Illumina-sequenced haploid genome of *M. importuna* SCYDJ1-A1, a cultivable strain from China, resulted in a 48.80 Mbp assembly, with an average read-depth coverage of 84x in 338 scaffolds (scaffold N50 = 27; Supporting Information Table S1). By using the JGI Annotation Pipeline (Grigoriev *et al.*, 2014), we identified 11 971 genes (Supporting Information Table S2). The assembly size of the haploid genome of an European wild strain, *M. importuna* CCBAS932, was 48.21 Mbp (Supporting Information Table S1), with a similar number of encoded genes

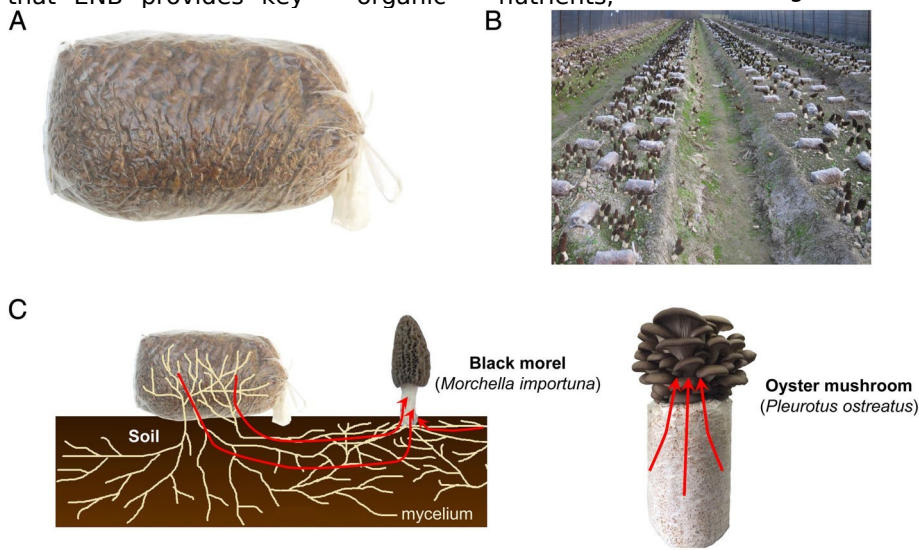


Fig. 1. A. ENB for morel cultivation. B. Large-scale morel cultivation showing ENB laying on the mushroom bed in a greenhouse. C. The method of cultivation of black morels using ENB differs from the cultivation methods used for other commercial mushrooms, such as the oyster mushroom (*P. ostreatus*), where fruiting bodies are produced directly from the

bag containing a lignocellulosic substrate. Red arrow means flow of organic nutrients. [Color figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com]

(11 600; Murat *et al.*, 2018). The completeness of genome assemblies of the two strains are similar (Supporting Information Table S1). Pairwise synteny of scaffolds between the two strains was estimated by the vista synteny tool (Martin *et al.*, 2004) available at JGI genome portals of *Morchella*. Almost every scaffold from the genome of strain SCYDJ1-A1 had a highly syntenic scaffold hit from the strain CCBAS932 (Supporting Information Fig. S1). The two strains share 9783 common genes as determined by BlastP Best Reciprocal Hit analysis (Supporting Information Table S3). Strains SCYDJ1-A1 and CCBAS932 possessed 9891 and 9873 core-genes, respectively, whereas strain-specific genes were 2080 and 1727 (Supporting Information Table S2). Most strain-specific proteins are small proteins with unknown functions or no PFAM domains. The results indicate that the two

M. importuna genomes are highly syntenic, whereas their gene repertoires are substantially divergent. Genome sequences, gene models and annotations of the two

M. importuna strains are publicly available from the JGI MycoCosm database (Grigoriev *et al.*, 2014). Their functional portraits (GO, KEGG and KOG) are very similar (available online from their JGI genome portals). The genomic information indicates that *M. importuna* SCYDJ1-A1 has the capacity to secrete a large repertoire of CAZymes, including glycoside hydrolases (GH), glycosyl transferases (GT), carbohydrate esterases (CE), polysaccharide lyases (PL) and several auxiliary activity enzymes (AA). Most of the CAZymes are plant cell wall degrading enzymes predicted to possess decomposition capabilities for plant polysaccharides such as cellulose, hemicellulose and pectins. Together, the results indicate the potential of *M. importuna* to degrade a large set of substrates found in decaying plant debris. To obtain experimental evidence for the hydrolytic capabilities of *M. importuna* SCYDJ1-A1 against plant polysaccharides, profiling of transcripts and proteins (see below) was performed on ENB extracts after 15, 45 and 75 days of growth.

ENB affects morel yield

M. importuna SCYDJ1-A1 was cultivated in a pre-homogenized soil (Supporting Information Table S4), which was used as the mushroom bed in this study. During the entire cultivation course, the temperatures inside ENB fluctuated between 6°C

and 13°C (Supporting Information Fig. S2). ENB weight showed no significant change over the first 15 days (days 0-15) after contact with the mushroom bed [p -value = 0.727, by one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA)] but shrank progressively from day 15 to day 75 (day 45 < day 15, p -value = 8.50×10^{-6} ; day 75 < day 45, p -value = 9.15×10^{-5} , by one-way ANOVA; Fig. 2A). About 34% of the ENB dry weight was consumed during days 15-45, with an additional 23% during days

45–75, indicating a sustained consumption of organic nutrients. Indeed, total C content per ENB decreased at a slow rate during days 0–15 (p -value = 0.037, by one-way ANOVA), then at a higher rate during days 15–45 (p -value = 6.29×10^{-4} , by one-way ANOVA), before reaching a plateau during days 45–75 (p -value = 0.110, by one-way ANOVA) (Fig. 3A; Supporting Information Table S5), suggesting that ENB substrate was consumed majorly in the middle stage. In response to ENB decomposition, total organic C in the surface soil (Fig. 2B) was increased significantly during days 15–45 (p -value = 3.41×10^{-8} , by one-way ANOVA) and days 45–75 (p -value = 9.19×10^{-3} , by one-way ANOVA). After that, morel fruiting consumed a lot of the accumulated organic C, by comparing day 75 with the completion of fruiting body harvest (p -value = 1.09×10^{-7} , by one-way ANOVA). After harvest, organic C in the surface soil was still higher than the initial level before morel sowing ($6.04 \pm 0.05 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$) (p -value = 3.91×10^{-4} , by one-way ANOVA; Fig. 2B).

Total N in ENB increased significantly during days 0–15 (p -value = 0.023, by one-way ANOVA; Fig. 3A; Supporting Information Table S5), likely a result of ENB colonization by the morel mycelium and other microbes. In response, a temporary fall of inorganic ammonium N in the surface soil took place during days 0–15 (p -values between 4.06×10^{-4} and 5.68×10^{-4} , by one-way ANOVA). After 15 days, total N content in ENB decreased slowly until returned to its initial level (day 75 similar to day 0, p -value = 0.645, by one-way ANOVA). It suggests that N was not substantially exported from ENB to the surface soil.

Total C consumption in ENB was much higher than total N (Fig. 3A) (p -value = 1.41×10^{-6} , by t test), which is supported by strikingly high activities of amylases and lipases detected in ENB (Fig. 3B). The

imbalance between C and N consumptions resulted in a continuous decrease in C:N ratio, from 36.9 to 19.3 (Fig. 3A). Total P and total K were both consumed continuously from day 0 to day 75 (p -value = 8.31×10^{-5} and 1.66×10^{-7} , respectively, by one-way ANOVA).

The duration of ENB contact with the mushroom bed influenced fruiting body yield profoundly (Fig. 2A). Without ENB, no fruiting took place, confirming that the nutrients released by decaying ENB substrate are required for fruiting. Removing ENB at day 15 or day 45 stopped the increase in soil organic C (day 45 similar to day 15, p -value = 0.999; day 75 < day 45, p -value = 0.001, by one-way ANOVA) and also lowered the fruiting body yield significantly (p -value = 3.73×10^{-10} and 4.46×10^{-6} , respectively, by one-way ANOVA). It indicates that the consumed organic compounds from ENB were transferred to the underlying soil, while future experiments with nets to avoid mycelium colonization would be helpful to confirm

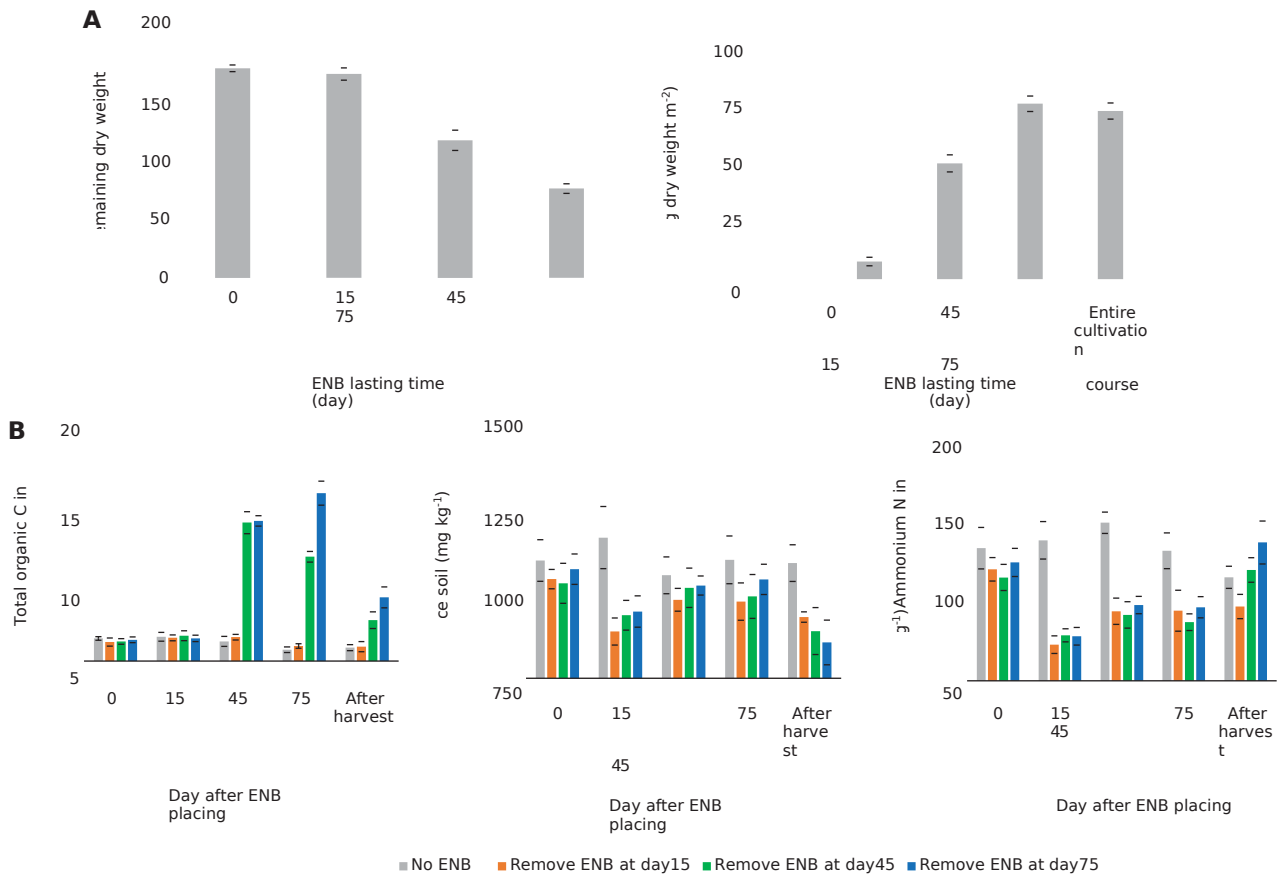


Fig. 2. A. The ENB substrate was consumed while the yield of morel fruiting body increased simultaneously. B. Time-course changes in total organic C, total N and ammonium N in the surface soil. The coloured columns show mean of three biological replicates, with standard deviation bars. Significant difference in multi-group comparison of an item at the three time-points was judged by one-way ANOVA. Significant difference in pairwise comparison of two items at the same time-point, or during the same period, was judged by *t* test. A full list of all *p*-values is provided in Supporting Information Table S8.

the translocation through mycelial networks. Keeping ENB until all fruiting bodies were harvested, the yield showed no significant difference with removing ENB at day 75 (*p*-value = 0.660, by one-way ANOVA; Fig. 2A). It means that keeping ENB on the mushroom bed for at least 75 days is essential to get as high yield as possible. Moreover, the duration of ENB contact with the mushroom bed also influenced the contents of total N, total proteins and free amino acids in morel fruiting bodies (Supporting Information Fig. S3).

Carbohydrate decomposition

A diverse array of CAZymes encoded by *M. importuna* were identified in decaying ENB and their expression strikingly varied along the time-course of decomposition (Fig. 4). Consequently, carbohydrates as the major fraction in ENB were

degraded and consumed rapidly. About 70% of total carbohydrates were lost in 75 days. Amylopectin, amylose and cellulose, consumed in large quantity (Fig. 3A), were the most prominent C source for metabolism. Over 90% of amylose was metabolized during days 0–75, whereas amylopectin was metabolized by 72%. The consumed proportion of amylose was higher than amylopectin (*p*-value = 8.73×10^{-5} , by *t* test), although the content of amylopectin in ENB was nearly

twice higher than amylose. The high degrading rates of amylopectin and amylose are supported by the high γ -amylase activity (Fig. 3B). A GH15 protein identified in ENB (Fig. 4) seemed responsible for the γ -amylase activity. Its upregulated expression [fold-change = 5.79 during days 15-45, p -value = 5.56×10^{-4} , by t test with false discovery rate (FDR) correction for multiple testing] was similar with the growing trend of γ -amylase activity observed during days 15-75 (day 45 > day 15, p -value = 0.002; day 75 > day 45, p -value = 1.84×10^{-5} , by FDR-corrected t test; Fig. 3B). In comparison, the other amylases involved in starch hydrolysis showed much lower activities (Fig. 3B). The GH13 proteins were annotated as starch-hydrolysis-related enzymes, including two α -amylases, an α -glucosidase, a branching enzyme and a debranching enzyme (Fig. 4). Like the γ -amylase, the upregulated expression of GH13_1 and GH13_m42 proteins (GH13_1: fold-change = 5.42 during days 15-45, p -value = 0.001; GH13_m42: fold-change = 5.06 during days 15-45 and 2.70 during days 45-75, p -value = 5.35×10^{-4} and 1.16×10^{-4} , respectively, by FDR-corrected t test) supports the observed increase in α -amylase activity (day 45 > day 15, p -value = 2.30×10^{-3} ; day 75 > day 45, p -value = 0.004, by FDR-corrected t test; Fig. 3B). As *M. importuna* genome lacks β -amylase gene (GH14), the observed

Fig. 3. Legend on next page.

β -amylase activity was likely produced by other microbes colonizing ENB.

The activity of endo-cellulase (endo- β -1,4-glucanase) increased slightly during days 15–45 (p -value = 0.612, by one-way ANOVA) and significantly during days 45–75 (p -value = 1.53×10^{-5} , by one-way ANOVA). The activities of exo-cellulase (exo- β -1,4-glucanase) and β -glycosidase were much lower than endo-cellulase (p -values between

5.03×10^{-7} and 9.90×10^{-7} , by one-way ANOVA; Fig. 3B). It suggests that cellulose in ENB might be shredded into short chains more readily than further hydrolysis into β -D-glucose, yet the highly active γ -amylase was able to produce β -D-glucose from starch. Hemicellulose-hydrolyzing enzymes displayed a pattern similar to cellulose-hydrolyzing enzymes, in that the enzymes for shredding hemicellulose into short chains were also more active than those detaching the short chains into free monosaccharide units.

During days 0–45, the content of protopectins decreased (p -value = 1.39×10^{-7} , by one-way ANOVA), whereas water-soluble pectins increased (p -value = 2.38×10^{-7} , by one-way ANOVA), and the sum of the two was similar (p -values between 0.133 and 0.770, by one-way ANOVA). It suggests that protopectins were solubilized but not eventually consumed during this period. Protopectins and water-soluble pectins both decreased greatly after 45 days (p -value = 2.35×10^{-4} and 1.31×10^{-6} , respectively, by one-way ANOVA), which means that a substantial catabolism of pectins took place. Four proteins of *M. importuna* were identified as pectin lyases, which appeared to participate in the observed pectin degradation.

Free disaccharides and monosaccharides except fructose accumulated over the first 45 days and then decreased (Fig. 3A; Supporting Information Table S5). The temporary accumulation might be due to very active shredding of polysaccharide chains while further catabolism was not fast enough to consume the intermediates.

Lipid degradation

Lipase activity was the second highest in ENB (Fig. 3B), suggesting that grain fats can act as a potential source of C. As lipases encoded by non-CAZy genes were absent from the metaproteomic profiles, the lipase activity detected in ENB was likely contributed by the CE5

proteins (Martinez *et al.*, 1994; Nakamura *et al.*, 2017) of *M. importuna* (Fig. 4). However, lipids were not a major C source in ENB, due to their low content. Crude fats and triglycerides both accumulated during days 15–45 (Fig. 3A; p -value = 2.86×10^{-6} and 3.93×10^{-6} , respectively, by one-way ANOVA), indicating that lipids were synthesized and stored in ENB temporarily. After 45 days, net consumptions of crude fats and triglycerides were both significant (p -value = 1.40×10^{-5} and 5.10×10^{-4} , respectively, by one-way ANOVA), suggesting that excess of C nutrients could be converted to lipid stock and consumed later. Noticeably, the triglyceride amount per ENB at day 75 was still higher than the start (day 75 > day 0, p -value = 0.001, by one-way ANOVA).

Lignin decomposition

Lignin decomposition took place rarely during days 0–15 (p -value = 0.963, by one-way ANOVA), slowly during days 15–45 (p -value = 0.019, by one-way ANOVA) and faster during days 45–75 (p -value = 4.98×10^{-6} , by one-way ANOVA; Fig. 3A). Over the 75 days, the ratios among total *p*-hydroxyphenyl (H), total syringyl (S) and total guaiacyl (G) units changed less than their free monomers (Supporting Information Table S5). The ratio of S:G (total units) decreased during days 0–45 and then increased during days 45–75 (Supporting Information Table S5). Free H and free G monomers as well as free ferulic acid were rapidly consumed during days 0–15 (p -value = 7.43×10^{-12} , 1.28×10^{-9} and 2.24×10^{-12} , respectively, by one-way ANOVA), unlike the significantly accumulated free S monomer (p -value = 1.06×10^{-10} , by one-way ANOVA). During days 15–75, free S and free G monomers both decreased (p -value = 4.76×10^{-11} and 0.002, respectively, by one-way ANOVA) (Supporting Information Table S5). The enzymes involved in oxidative breakdown of lignin showed low activities (Fig. 3B). Mn peroxidase (oxidizing Mn^{2+} to Mn^{3+}) and versatile peroxidase (oxidizing veratryl alcohol) had much lower activities than laccase (p -values between 3.63×10^{-6} and 8.56×10^{-4} , by one-way ANOVA).

Although the *M. importuna* SCYDJ1-A1 genome possesses several genes predicted as lignin-degrading enzymes, only a laccase-like multicopper oxidase (LMCO)

Fig. 3. A. Content change of major chemicals in ENB at day 0, 15, 45 and 75. The values of the chemical contents are mean of three biological replicates, with standard deviation bars. All the values, as well as pH and water content in ENB, are presented in the Supporting Information Table S5. B. Enzymatic activities in ENB, measured at the pH and temperature of ENB at the sampling date. A subset of the figure with the vertical axis zoomed in is shown to display low activity enzymes. Enzymatic activity which might be contributed by both CAZymes and non-CAZymes is labelled with empty diamond, whereas the activity completely unrelated with CAZymes is labelled with solid diamond. The activity level is mean of three biological replicates, with standard deviation bars. Significant difference in multi-group comparison of an item at the three time-points was judged by one-way ANOVA. Significant difference in pairwise comparison of two items at the same time-point, or during the same period, was judged by *t* test. A full list of all *p*-values is provided in Supporting Information Table S8.

Targeted substrate	Protein id	CAZymes domain (N ⁺ -C ⁻)	Predicted function	Transcript RPKM			Protein relative abundance			Predicted signal peptide
				day15	day45	day75	day15	day45	day75	
starch	646258	GH13_1	α-amylase	270	636	149	23	123	183	●
	340337	CBM48-GH13_8	Branching enzyme	2007	1764	210	118	147	63	●
	62383	GH13_25-GH133	Debranching enzyme	108	195	38	106	124	92	●
	609552	GH13_40	α-glucosidase	54	81	18	70	134	115	●
	574952	CBM21-GH13_m42	α-amylase or exo-maltohexochydrolase	292	580	97	17	84	297	●
	526999	GH15	γ-amylase	155	557	148	21	122	184	●
	526814	GH31		1384	419	78	37	126	165	●
	528478	GH31		4301	579	126	96	139	91	●
	585425	GH31	α-glucosidase or α-1,4-glucan lyase	121	142	44	111	111	99	●
	586758	GH31		314	174	61	34	129	163	●
	617985	GH1	β-glucosidase	59	275	91	47	150	128	●
	590021	GH3		58	4	7	70	93	133	●
	628736	GH3	β-glucosidase or β-xylosidase	131	47	8	34	116	172	●
	577932	GH5_5	Endo-β-1,4-glucanase	25	38	39	42	118	157	●
	605343	GH5_7		105	21	18	77	105	136	●
664343	GH5_7	Endo-β-1,4-mannanase	11	20	103	71	137	121	●	
533125	GH5_9	Exo-β-1,3-glucanase	415	149	55	30	139	160	●	
586074	GH5_15	Endo-β-1,6-glucanase	81	24	6	56	109	149	●	
577943	GH5_22		159	267	288	95	138	93	●	
611132	GH5_22	Endo-β-1,4-glucanase or β-xylosidase	64	94	175	67	113	147	●	
583213	GH6		39	35	56	49	109	156	●	
582120	CBM1-GH6	Cellulohydrolase, hydrolyzing from non-reducing end	9	101	105	16	106	206	●	
616336	GH7		35	53	235	24	137	165	●	
666717	GH7	Cellulohydrolase, hydrolyzing from reducing end	7	288	103	14	131	183	●	
527075	GH10		18	113	159	28	123	175	●	
567454	CBM1-GH10	Endo-β-1,4-xylanase	42	113	98	37	111	188	●	
58986	GH17	Exo-α-1,3-glucanase	182	70	83	83	125	118	●	
583072	GH27		58	26	6	35	138	157	●	
583600	GH27	α-galactosidase	1181	251	65	33	119	158	●	
573900	GH35	β-galactosidase	49	24	14	42	115	164	●	
584478	GH38	α-mannosidase	42	82	133	59	115	148	●	
543797	GH43		ND	ND	ND	52	125	147	●	
574852	GH43	Endo-α-1,5-arabinanase, α-L-arabinofuranosidase or β-xylosidase	28	29	22	67	99	142	●	
610409	GH43-CBM35		138	49	20	38	124	162	●	
609301	GH45	Endo-β-1,4-glucanase	7	102	82	29	117	179	●	
570217	GH47	α-1,2-mannosidase	35	104	39	44	101	175	●	
567856	GH55		48	163	110	34	99	191	●	
627330	GH55	Endo- or exo-β-1,3-glucanase	47	7	3	20	124	185	●	
587367	GH71	Endo-α-1,3-glucanase	480	322	129	45	138	147	●	
661191	GH74	Endo-β-1,4-glucanase, oligoxyloglucan reducing end-specific cellulohydrolase or xyloglucanase	10	5	11	54	119	156	●	
581074	GH76	Endo-α-1,6-mannanase	470	95	33	86	136	104	●	
583265	GH93	α-L-arabinofuranosidase	27	17	74	27	114	166	●	
pectins	581023	GH28	Polygalacturonase	62	27	3	71	122	131	●
	527926	PL1_4	Pectin lyase	67	15	4	75	108	129	●
	539857	PL3_2		215	134	68	20	118	189	●
	553571	PL3_2	Pectate lyase	892	304	30	152	101	83	●
591363	PL3_2		269	275	105	67	124	136	●	
chitins	632309	GH20	Exo-chitinase	71	27	36	24	123	177	●
	665006	CE4		32	50	30	53	143	126	●
	583602	CBM18-CE4	Chitin deacetylase	88	38	13	60	142	124	●
	605704	CBM18-CE4		1210	1487	233	37	143	153	●
584995	CBM18-CBM18-CE4		542	234	36	45	131	151	●	
lignin	571670	AA1_3	Laccase-like multicopper oxidase (with laccase activity)	89	36	40	59	117	145	●
	568632	CE5		291	222	158	32	122	172	●
lipids	616921	CE5	Cutinase or triacylglycerol lipase	5	361	752	35	109	181	●
	650463	CE5		4	454	459	21	117	191	●

Color coding of expression patterns

(> : significantly up-regulated defined by fold-change > 2 plus p-value < 0.05; < : significantly down-regulated defined by fold-change < 0.5 plus p-value < 0.05; = : no significant up- or down- regulation)

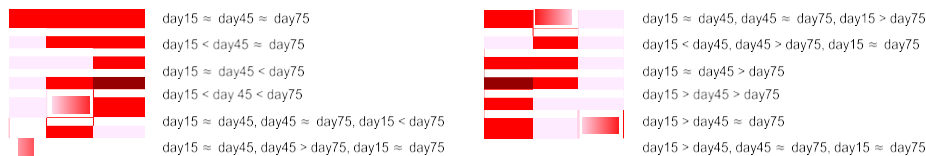


Fig. 4. Major CAZymes of *M. importuna* SCYDJ1-A1 involved in ENB decomposition. A supplemental figure showing all 88 CAZymes identified in ENB is provided in Fig. S5. Expression levels of transcripts and proteins were estimated by RNA-Seq and nanoLC-MS/MS respectively. Steady-state transcript level (in RPKM) and protein relative abundance are the mean of three biological replicates. ND, not detected. Functions of CAZymes were predicted according to their nearest analogues whose activities had been characterized in previous studies, as provided by the CAZy database. Fold-change in RPKM between time-points, together with *p*-value of pairwise comparison, was calculated by the Baggerly's proportion-based test (Baggerly *et al.*, 2003) with a FDR correction for multiple testing (Benjamini and Hochberg, 1995). Fold-change values of protein relative abundance between time-points, together with *p*-value of pairwise comparison, were calculated by *t* test with FDR correction. Significant upregulation and downregulation were judged by fold-change > 2 and fold-change < 0.5, respectively, whereas FDR-corrected *p*-value < 0.05. Fold-change values and *p*-values are provided in Supporting Information Table S8. [Color figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com]

of AA1_3 family was detected in the metaproteomic profiles (Fig. 4), supporting the observed enzymatic activity. The laccase activity of the AA1_3 LMCO protein has been verified by biochemical characterization of the purified enzyme (Zhang *et al.*, 2019). The activity levels at day 45 and day 75 were both higher than day 15 (p -value = 6.52×10^{-6} and 2.74×10^{-7} , respectively, by one-way ANOVA; Fig. 3B). This trend is consistent with the significant lignin degradation taking place during days 45-75 (p -value = 4.98×10^{-6} , by one-way ANOVA; Fig. 3A) and is also supported by increased abundance of the AA1_3 LMCO protein in ENB (Fig. 4).

N nutrition

Inorganic ammonium and nitrate represented a minor proportion in the total N (Supporting Information Table S5), most N being incorporated in organic compounds. The amounts of soluble proteins and free amino acids at day 75 were all higher than the start (p -value = 2.59×10^{-5} and 1.94×10^{-7} , respectively, by one-way ANOVA). Total proteins reached the highest content at day 15. Soluble proteins showed a continuous increase during days 0-45 (days 0-15: p -value = 9.95×10^{-4} ; days 15-45: p -value = 0.001, by one-way ANOVA). Free amino acids were initially consumed during days 0-15 (p -value = 0.001, by one-way ANOVA) and then accumulated after 15 days (day 45 > day 15, p -value = 6.84×10^{-4} ; day 75 > day 45, p -value = 2.59×10^{-7} , by one-way ANOVA). These results suggest that *M. importuna* mycelium colonizing ENB, possibly together with other microbes, used some of the free amino acids and borrowed some additional N from the environment in the early period, which was likely used to manufacture the large quantity of enzymes involved in substrate decomposition. This contention was confirmed by an elemental-tracing experiment with ^{15}N isotopic labeling of soil N, showing that ENB was indeed acquiring N from the underneath soil over the first 15 days, and the assimilated N was further enriched into the soluble proteins in ENB (Supporting Information Fig. S4). In the late period, lysis of dead microbial cells, as well as breakdown of proteins, might release free amino acids as well as ammonium into ENB substrate. Enzymes involved in N scavenging from proteins and chitins showed low activities in ENB (Fig. 3B), suggesting that degradation of proteins and

chitins seemed not very active.

Expression of CAZymes

ENB was colonized by *M. importuna* mycelium and a core of environmental microorganisms. *M. importuna*, together with 10 of the most abundant fungal genera (*Mortierella*, *Trichoderma*, *Monodictys*, *Peziza*, *Cladosporium*,

Neonectria, *Penicillium*, *Fusarium*, *Oliveonia* and *Plectosphaerella*), were defined as the major fungal taxa in ENB. They represented 96.5% of the fungal community, as determined by metabarcoding survey (see *Changes in the microbial community* section).

Enzymes broadly characterized as hemicellulases and pectinases (i.e., β -xylosidases, endo- β -1,6-glucanases, polygalacturonases, pectin lyases and mannanases) were among the most highly transcribed genes at day 15. Complete breakdown of ENB substrate requires joint efforts from multiple enzymes of GH, CE, PL and AA families. At day 45, genes coding for α - and γ -amylases, GH13_8 branching enzyme and α -glucosidase/ α -1,4-glucan lyase were transcribed at a higher level. Cutinase/lipase, lytic polysaccharide monooxygenases (LPMOs) and expansin-related proteins showed a higher transcription level at the later stage (Supporting Information Fig. S5).

A total of 1380 proteins belonging to *M. importuna* plus the other 10 major fungal taxa in ENB were identified by 2D nanoLC-MS/MS, among which 60% (833) were from *M. importuna*. The 833 proteins represented 7% of the 11 971 predicted genes in the morel genome. This set included 88 CAZymes (24% of a total of 360 CAZy-genes in the *M. importuna* SCYDJ1-A1 genome), and few were encoded by other fungi (Supporting Information Table S6). CAZymes expressed by *M. importuna* included 47 GH, 11 CE, 4 PL, 17 AA and 5 GT (Fig. 4). The diverse array of CAZymes, including hydrolytic and redox enzymes, pointed to the multiple pathways and degradative mechanisms involved in ENB decomposition. During days 15–45, 168 out of the 833 morel proteins were upregulated, whereas 5 were downregulated (Supporting Information Fig. S6). Over a half of the 88 CAZy-proteins were upregulated during this period, confirming a striking

activation of the decay apparatus in ENB. Eighty eight out of the 833 morel proteins were downregulated during days 45–75. It reflected the decline of *M. importuna* mycelium in ENB during the late period, as evidenced by the fungal community profiles (Fig. 5). However, an overwhelming majority

(86) of the 88 CAZy-proteins remained at a constant level during days 45–75 (Supporting Information Fig. S6).

Changes in the microbial community

The bacterial and fungal communities in ENB at 15, 45 and 75 days were surveyed, respectively, through metabarcoding of bacterial 16S ribosomal DNA (rDNA) and fungal internal transcribed spacer (ITS). The bacterial and fungal communities both showed a growing trend in their taxonomic richness (i.e., the observed number of operational taxonomic unit (OTU), ACE and Chao1) and diversity (i.e., the Shannon-Wiener and Inverse Simpson's indices) during ENB decomposition (Table 1). Richness of bacterial communities was higher than the fungal

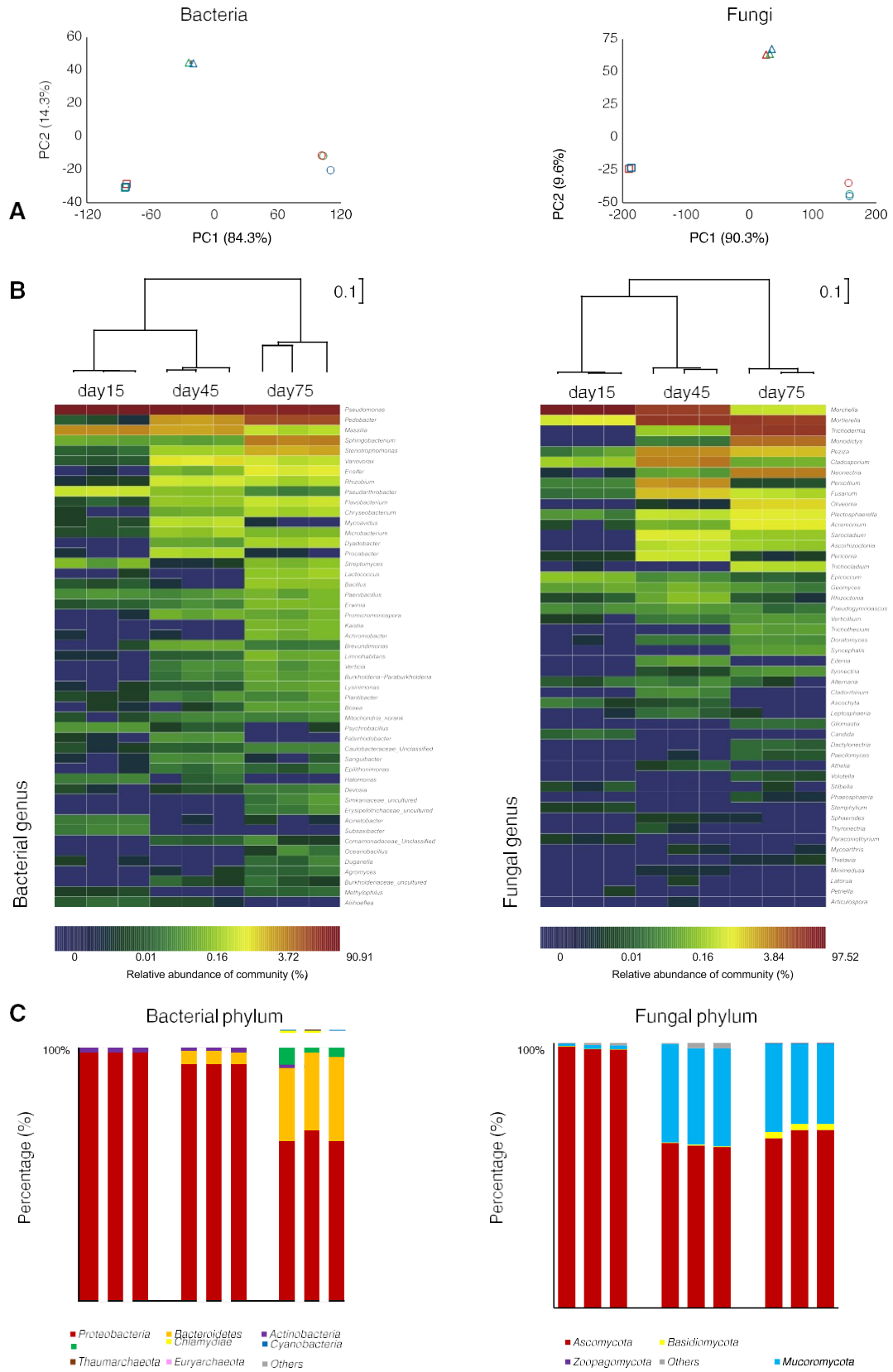


Fig. 5. Legend on next page.

communities at every time-point. Bacterial OTU richness was similar at day 15 and day 45 but increased significantly at day 75. The fungal OTU richness increased mostly during days 15-45, suggesting that an increasing number of fungal taxa colonized ENB at this stage.

PCA and hierarchical clustering showed that both bacterial and fungal communities were quite distinct between different time-points (Fig. 5A and B). Community composition at genus (Fig. 5B) and phylum (Fig. 5C) levels were both uneven in taxonomic abundance. *Pseudomonas* was always the overwhelmingly major bacterial group. As mentioned above, *M. importuna* and 10 other abundant genera (belonging to 15 OTUs) represented 96.5% of the fungal community in ENB. *M. importuna* was dominant at day 15 and was greatly overturned by *Trichoderma*, *Mortierella* and a few other taxa during days 45-75.

Discussion

Saprotrophic fungi can degrade soil polysaccharides using a versatile arsenal of catabolic enzymes including GH, CE, PL and AA, which are classified in the CAZy database (<http://www.cazy.org>) (Lombard *et al.*, 2014). Compared with the genomes of other taxonomically related Pezizomycetes (Fig. 6), the two strains of *M. importuna* were characterized by an under-represented set of CAZy-genes involved in lignin decomposition and an over-represented set of CAZy-genes degrading pectins. In comparison with commercially cultivated Basidiomycota mushrooms *L. edodes*, *P. ostreatus* and *A. bisporus*, *M. importuna* SCYDJ1-A1 genome encodes over-represented sets of CAZy-genes involved in lipid and pectin degradation and an under-represented set of CAZy-genes involved in lignin decomposition (Supporting Information Fig. S7A). Indeed, *L. edodes* (Gaitán-Hernández *et al.*, 2011; Cai *et al.*, 2017) and *P. ostreatus* (Isikhuemhen and Mikiashvilli, 2009) have been reported to produce high levels of laccase and Mn peroxidase activities thereby degrading lignin as one of their major C sources. In contrast, *M. importuna* grows on deeply decomposed plant biomass such as soil and plant-litter compost. It is supported by the results of biochemical assays, which revealed that *M. importuna* possesses decomposition capabilities adapted to polysaccharides over lignin.

In the genome of *M. importuna* SCYDJ1-A1,

cellulose- and hemicellulose-hydrolyzing enzymes are encoded by

over a dozen of GH genes, but the observed activities were not as high as amylases. In comparison, the single

M. importuna GH15 protein contributed to a higher level of γ -amylase activity. This finding suggests that gene copy number and proteomic profiling should be completed by measurements of enzymatic activities to provide a comprehensive portrait of the decomposition mechanisms. High amylase activity has been reported in saprotrophic moulds such as *Aspergillus* and *Mucor* (Saranraj and Stella, 2013; Gopinath *et al.*, 2017) but was rarely described in mushrooms. High activity levels of enzymes hydrolyzing lipids and pectins were also observed in ENB during the decomposition. Pectin solubilization could disintegrate lignocellulosic complex and enhance accessibility to microbes and enzymes (Shirkavand *et al.*, 2016).

The substantial expression of redox enzymes provides additional insight into ENB degradative processes. Compared with the Basidiomycota mushrooms *P. ostreatus* and *A. bisporus*, *M. importuna* SCYDJ1-A1 displayed a pattern of expressed

CAZy-proteins with obvious shortage in laccase (AA1), Mn peroxidase and versatile peroxidase (AA2), as well as glyoxal oxidase (AA5) essential for generating H₂O₂ (Supporting Information Fig. S7B), supporting the limited decomposition activities against lignin. Two copies of AA1_3 LMCO were identified in the

M. importuna SCYDJ1-A1 genome, but only one was expressed in ENB. Similar results were observed in the sclerotium in mushroom spawn, the surface-soil mycelium before and after contact with ENB as well as in primordium and fruiting body of *M. importuna* SCYDJ1-A1 (Zhang *et al.*, 2019). As laccase attacks mainly phenolic units while Mn peroxidase and versatile peroxidase are much more effective on non-phenolic units (Janusz *et al.*, 2017), the much higher laccase activity compared with Mn peroxidase and versatile peroxidase suggests that phenolic-unit components might be degraded faster than non-phenolic components. ENB decomposition by *M. importuna* caused the ratio of total S:G to increase initially and then fall, differs with *A. bisporus* that induced a continuous increase in the total S:G ratio during its entire vegetative growth in cultivation substrate (Kabel *et al.*, 2017). Concerning the other redox enzymes, Cu-dependent LPMO has been shown to stimulate the performance of endo- and exocellobiohydrolases (Vaaje-Kolstad *et al.*, 2010). The high transcription of benzoquinone reductase (AA6) during days 15–45 is consistent with a role of

Fig. 5. Changes in the microbial communities colonizing ENB.

A. PCA analyses of bacterial and fungal communities in ENB at day 15 (empty squares), day 45 (empty triangles) and day 75 (circles), with three replicates for each time-point coloured in red, green and blue respectively.

B. Relative abundance of bacterial and fungal genera, with hierarchical clustering tree constructed based on community similarity. Only the top 50 prominent genera are shown here.

C. Relative abundance of bacterial and fungal phyla in ENB at day 15, 45 and 75.

iversity of the bacterial and fungal communities in ENB at days 15, 45 and 75.

community	ampling time	OTU coverage	annon-Wiener diversity	erse Simpson's diversity
Fungal	Day 45	replicate	ACE richness	hao1 richness
	Day 75	identified OTU		
	Day 15			
	Day 45			
	Day 75			

samples had an OTU coverage above 0.999, showing that the sampling had sufficient scales. OTUs were clustered at 97% similarity. The 95% lower and upper confidence limits are presented in parentheses.

hydroxyl radicals in ENB decomposition (Cassagnes *et al.*, 2015). In addition to plant-polysaccharide degradation, chitin constructing fungal cell walls are likely a substrate for chitin deacetylases (CBM18-CE4). The high transcription of chitin metabolism-related genes at day 15 might reflect early colonization of ENB by morel mycelium. The

M. importuna SCYDJ1-A1 genome possesses two copies of GH131 gene, a hallmark of plant-tissue-colonizing fungi (Anasontzis *et al.*, 2019), but none was likely expressed as an enzymatic protein during ENB decomposition, although their transcriptions were indeed observed.

The microbiota in ENB showed low OTU richness as well as low diversity, as compared with soil environmental samples (Tan *et al.*, 2013; Calderón *et al.*, 2016), composts (Wang *et al.*, 2018), water (Thaler *et al.*, 2017) and guts (Griffin *et al.*, 2017). It means that the decaying ENB hosted a microbiota of limited complexity, comparable to that of seed endophytic microbiota (Barret *et al.*, 2015), with a similar feature that their relative abundances of microbial taxa were quite uneven. For instance, the overwhelmingly high proportion of pseudomonads in the bacterial communities in ENB lasted for the entire course of morel cultivation. Biofilms of soil-borne pseudomonads around hyphae are known for several mushrooms, such as *P. ostreatus* (Cho *et al.*, 2003), *Laccaria bicolor* (Deveau *et al.*, 2007), *A. bisporus* and *Tuber borchii* (Frey-Klett *et al.*, 2011). Farming of *P. putida* by *M. crassipes* has been reported (Pion *et al.*, 2013). *M. importuna* might tend to enrich pseudomonad cohabitants as well.

Decline of *M. importuna* mycelium in ENB during days 45–75 was reflected by its relative abundance in the fungal communities, but the CAZy-proteins produced by *M. importuna* mycelium were durable enough to retain in ENB until day 75, given that most of the expressed CAZy-proteins were quantified similarly at day 45 and day 75. This is also supported by the patterns of enzymatic activities, all of which not decreased from day 45 to day 75. The increase in surface soil total organic C as well as increased fruiting body yield, during the 45 to 75 days period (Fig. 2A), indicated that ENB still had a positive effect on fruiting in the late phase. Only by retaining the ENBs to contact with the mushroom bed for at least 75 days, can

the dry weight of fruiting body yield reach the average level in agricultural production reported previously (Liu *et al.*, 2018). The compounds resulting from ENB decomposition are likely exported to the mushroom bed via mycelial networks, as well as free diffusion and running-off. Besides creating a surface soil with enhanced organic C content, ENB caused N level in the mushroom bed to fall temporarily during days 0-15 and restore later. Interestingly, decaying plant litter had similar effects to

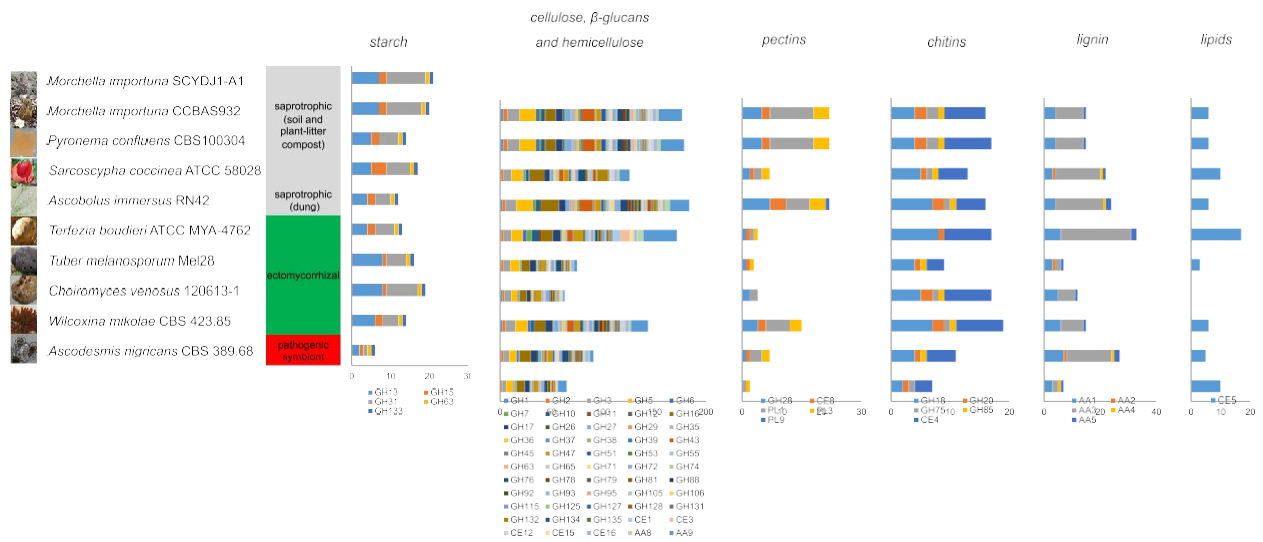


Fig. 6. Distribution and occurrence of genes coding for CAZymes involved in decomposition of plant polysaccharides, lignin and lipids. The genomes of the two *M. importuna* strains SCYDJ1-A1 and CCBAS932 are compared with taxonomically related Pezizomycetes. The CAZY- genes are sorted in categories according to their known targeted substrate. Significant over-representation and under-representation of CAZY- genes in different categories of targeted substrates were estimated by Fisher's exact test, with the statistical data shown in Supporting Information Table S7. Pictures of the fungi are derived from the homepages of the species in the JGI genome portals.

enhance soil organic C content and induce a migration of soil N towards the decaying plant litter (Hori *et al.*, 2018). In this context, the man-made ENB in contact with the mushroom bed plays a role that could mimic

the effects of plant litter, which is often abundant in natural ecosystems such as forests and grasslands. Interpretation of ENB decomposition by *M. importuna* might provide insights into the mechanisms triggering

Decomposition mechanisms triggering morel

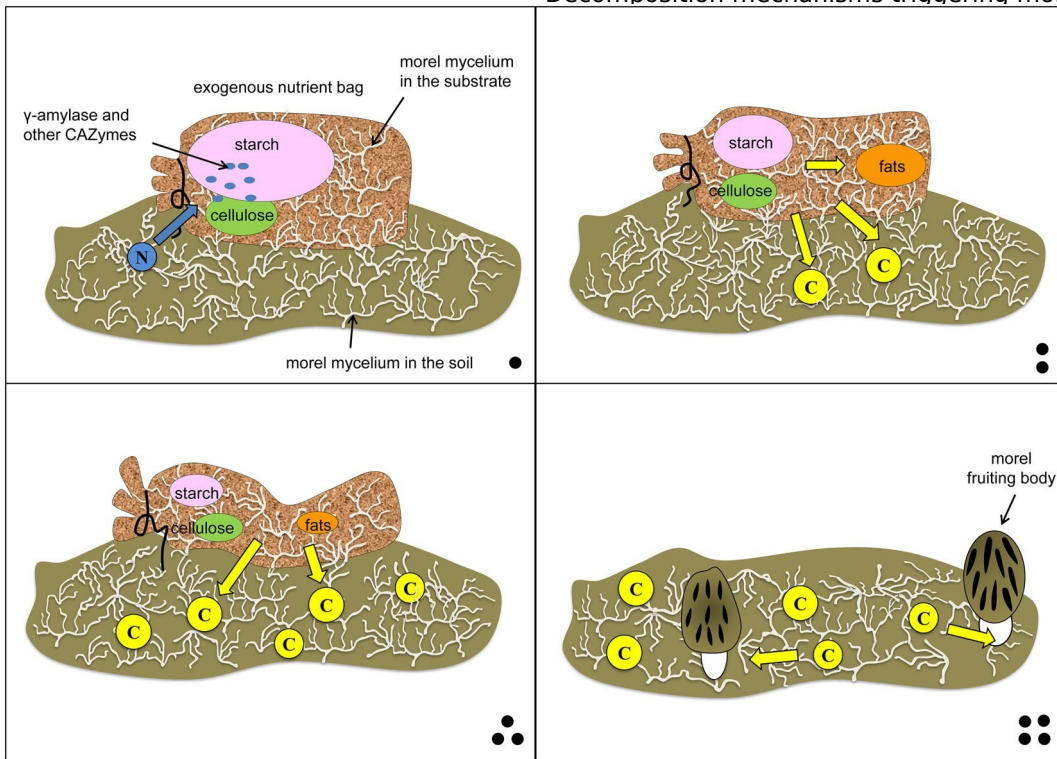


Fig. 7. Schematic diagram of ENB decomposition by *M. importuna* SCYD1-A1.

wild saprotrophic mushrooms fruiting from soils, which might advance potential attempts to domesticate more species of wild saprotrophic mushrooms to artificial cultivation.

Conclusions

During *M. importuna* cultivation, the vegetative mycelium colonizing ENB substrate releases a complex set of degradative CAZymes to efficiently decompose and metabolize polysaccharides, such as starch and cellulose from wheat grains and rice husks (Fig. 7). The metabolites released by this decay mechanism are exported to the adjacent surface soil of the mushroom bed, triggering and sustaining fruiting of morels.

Experimental procedures

Morel strain

The cultivable black morel strain, *M. importuna* SCYDJ1-A1, is a diploid strain as used in commercial application. It was bred from an ancestor originally collected in 2011, from the hilly terrain of Muerda village (31.6° N, 103.4° E, altitude 2100 m), Lixian county, Sichuan province, China. The site belongs to the eastern part of the Qinghai-Tibetan plateau, which has a cold climate all through the year and had no forest fire for at least 10 years. The forest ecosystem from which the fruiting body was collected had a vegetative cover composed of mainly willow and shrub. The fruiting body grew in a nearly-bare soil with very little coverage of plant litter. The wild strain *M. importuna* CCBAS932 was collected from an oak forest in France. The fruiting body grew directly from a plant-litter compost without much soil. Haploid cultures of monosporal isolates from the SCYDJ1-A1 and CCBAS932 strains were used for genome sequencing.

Experimental treatments and morel cultivation

Morel cultivation in this study was carried out in a farm in Tianjiaba Village (30.5° N, 104.5° E, Yangma town, Jianyang city, Sichuan province, China). A total of 123 grids of nursery bed were built in a vegetable greenhouse. Each grid was 1.5 m² in area, built with bricks and separated with each other. A sandy loam soil was collected from a farm

nearby, thoroughly mixed to homogeneity, and evenly loaded into all the grids. Physiochemical background of the pre-homogenized soil was characterized (Supporting Information Table S4).

Fifteen grids out of the 123 were randomly selected for five treatments. In the five treatments, ENB contacted with the mushroom bed for 0, 15, 45 and 75 days or for the entire course (i.e., staying on the mushroom bed until

all fruiting bodies were harvested) respectively. Each treatment included three individual grids as three biological replicates. *M. importuna* strain SCYDJ1-A1 was cultivated in the 15 grids, using mushroom spawn produced by Jindi-Tianlingjian company (Sichuan, China; see Supporting Information). The mushroom spawn is free from any bacterial or fungal contamination.

ENB was made by filling 350 g fresh weight of soaked wheat grains and rice husks, with a dry weight ratio of 85:15, into polypropylene casing. ENB was autoclaved at 121°C for 3 h, which inactivated potential decomposition enzymes from cereal ingredients. Ten ENBs were placed in each grid. The ENBs were pierced in the bottom casing and tightly pressed on the surface of the inoculated soil (mushroom bed) 15 days after the morel sowing. The 15 grids consisted of five different treatments of ENB last-ing time with three individual replicates for each treatment. For the 0 day treatment, ENBs were not placed on the soil. For the 15, 45 and 75 day treatments, ENBs were removed and sampled at day 15, day 45 and day 75 after contact with the mushroom bed respectively. Temperature inside ENB was measured with electronic thermometer sensors, recorded every 30 min, and stored automatically, throughout the entire cultivation course (Supporting Information Fig. S2).

More details about the procedures for making mushroom spawn and ENB, morel sowing and field managements are provided in the Supporting Information.

Sampling

For each experimental grid, 10 ENBs were sampled at 0, 15, 45 and 75 days after contact with mushroom bed, snap frozen in liquid nitrogen, pooled and homogenized (but not

milled) to generate a replicate sample. Surface soil of 0–2 cm depth was collected for chemical analysis. Soil cores (2 cm × 2 cm × 2 cm) were collected using a sterile blade, from 20 random points in each experimental grid, and pooled as a replicate. Soils of 0, 15, 45 and 75 day treatments, as well as after completion of morel harvest, were sampled respectively. For each treatment, fruiting bodies were harvested when their size reached the size-request (height, 5–8 cm; pileus length, 3–5 cm) for a commercial product in the international trade.

Biochemical assays

Chemical components in ENB substrate, fruiting body and soil samples (Supporting Information Table S5) were quantified with classical analytical methods based on spectrophotometry or high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC). The activity of selected decomposition enzymes was measured using crude soluble proteins extracted from ENB. To investigate enzymes involved in

substrate decomposition, mostly extracellular, proteins were extracted by a soaking method (Zhu *et al.*, 2016) aimed to maximize extracellular enzyme sampling (see Supporting Information), although potential contamination from intracellular proteins cannot be ruled out. Activity of enzymes listed in Fig. 3B was measured with colorimetric or HPLC method (Supporting Information Table S9). Enzymatic activity was measured as the ability to catalyze substrate conversion (in milligram) per minute by the protein extracts from per gram (dry weight) of ENB. Phosphate buffer for enzymatic reaction had the same pH of the correspondent ENB sample, whereas assay temperature was set at the average temperature at the sampling date.

Genome sequencing, assembling and gene annotation

The genome of a monosporal haploid culture from *M. importuna* SCYDJ1-A1 was sequenced using a combination of Illumina fragment (270 bp insert size) and 4 kb long mate-pair libraries, assembled using ALLPATHS-LG (Gnerre *et al.*, 2011) and annotated using the JGI Annotation Pipeline (Grigoriev *et al.*, 2014), as described by Murat and colleagues (2018).

RNA-Seq

Total RNA extraction, cDNA library construction and sequencing, RNA-Seq reads assembling, bioinformatic procedures for transcript profiling as well as statistical analyses in upregulation and downregulation of transcript level were carried out as described by Morin and colleagues (2019). In brief, 1–3 µg of total RNA was extracted from the combined contents of all 10 ENBs from each experimental grid, using the RNeasy Plant Mini RNA Extraction Kit (Qiagen, Germany), and stored at –80°C until further analysis. cDNA library construction and sequencing were performed at the sequencing facility of Beijing Genomics Institute (BGI, in Wuhan branch, China) according to standard Illumina protocols. Raw reads from paired-end sequencing were quality controlled, trimmed and mapped to the *M. importuna* SCYDJ1-A1 reference transcripts (<https://genome.jgi.doe.gov/Morimp1/Morimp1.download.html>, Folder: Annotation\Filtered Models

\Transcripts) to extract a *M. importuna* subset from the metatranscriptome of the target fungal community (Supporting Information Table S10), using the software pipeline of the CLC Genomics Workbench 11 (Qiagen, Germany). Low-quality reads with Phred-quality score < 20 or length < 50 bp were discarded. Illumina-adapter strings were removed. Alignment was performed with stringent settings (similarity and length read mapping criteria at 98% and 95%, respectively; maximum 10 hits for a read on different genes). Details about the RNA-Seq libraries, including the counts of mapped RNA-Seq reads in the ENB

metatranscriptomes at the three time-points, as well as mapping rates were presented in Supporting Information Table S11. The assembled metatranscriptomes were further analyzed using the CLC Genomics Workbench. Total mapped paired-end reads for each gene were calculated and total read counts were normalized as reads per kilo-base of gene model per million fragments mapped (RPKM; Mortazavi *et al.*, 2008), which was used to estimate transcript level of each gene. Fold-change values of the RPKM of each transcript between different time-points, together with *p*-value of pairwise comparison, were calculated by the Baggerly's proportion-based statistical test (Baggerly *et al.*, 2003) implemented in the CLC Genomic Workbench. It is a weighted t-type test designed for comparison proportion of sequence counts, with a FDR correction for multiple testing (Benjamini and Hochberg, 1995). Significant upregulation and downregulation were judged by fold-change > 2 and fold-change < 0.5, respectively, while FDR-corrected *p*-value < 0.05.

Shotgun metaproteomics

ENB proteins were analyzed by two-dimensional nano-liquid chromatography coupled with tandem mass tags labelling mass spectrometry (2D nanoLC-MS/MS) on a Q-Exactive system (Thermo Fisher Scientific) in Luming Biotechnology, Shanghai, China. Crude protein extracts were purified by trichloroacetic acid precipitation and acetone washing, re-solubilized with urea and quantified as previously described (Hori *et al.*, 2018). The proteins were digested with trypsin and labelled with isotopic tags as previously described by Wisniewski and colleagues (2009). Nine different tags were assigned to the 3 × 3 individual replicate samples. Peptide fragments were first separated by reverse-phase

HPLC using an Agilent Zorbax Extend C18 column on an Agilent 1100 HPLC system (Agilent Technologies) with a flow rate at 300 $\mu\text{l min}^{-1}$. Wavelength of UV-detector was 210 and 280 nm. Phase A: acetonitrile-H₂O (2%:98%, v/v). Phase B: acetonitrile-H₂O (90%:10%, v/v). Gradient elution steps: 0–8 min, 98% A; 8–8.01 min, 98%–95% A; 8.01–38 min, 95%–75% A; 38–50 min, 75%–60% A; 50–50.01 min, 60%–10% A; 50.01–60 min, 10% A; 60–60.01 min, 10%–98% A; 60.01–65 min, 98% A. The eluted products during 8–50 min were collected with 1 min interval into centrifuge tubes until the end of the gradient. Further separation was carried out using an Acclaim Pepmap RSLC analytical column (C18, 2 μm , 100 \AA , 75 $\mu\text{m} \times 15 \text{ cm}$, Dionex) with a flow rate at 300 nl min^{-1} . Phase A: H₂O-FA (99.9%:0.1%, v/v). Phase B: acetonitrile-H₂O-FA (80%:19.9%:0.1%, v/v/v). Gradient elution steps: 0–55 min, 8% B; 55–79 min, 30% B; 79–80 min, 50% B; 80–90 min, 100% B. The eluted fragments were scanned in MS1 with resolution 70 000 and *m/z* range 300–1800,

followed by MS/MS fragmentation of 10 most intense peptide fragments detected in the MS1. The MS/MS fragmentation was scanned with resolution 17 500, dynamic exclusion time 30 s.

Raw data were loaded into Proteome Discoverer software v2.2 (Thermo Fisher Scientific) for protein identification and quantification, with an FDR < 1%. A total of 6030 peptide fragments were obtained in the MS/MS spectra, mapped to the user-defined reference genomes (Supporting Information Table S10). Protein hits belonging to wheat and rice, which are ingredients of ENB substrate (wheat grains and rice husks), were identified as substrate background to be manually removed. The identified proteins must have a Sequest HT score > 0 and unique peptide \geq 1, as the criteria previously adopted by Zhu and colleagues (2016) and Cai and colleagues (2017). Fold-change values of protein relative abundance between time-points, together with *p*-value of pairwise comparison, were calculated by *t* test with FDR correction. Significant upregulation and down-regulation were judged by fold-change > 2 and fold-change < 0.5, respectively, while FDR-corrected *p*-value < 0.05.

Microbiome metabarcoding

Metabarcoding survey on microbial diversity in ENB was carried out using PCR amplicons of 16S rDNA V4-V5 region for bacterial community and ITS region for fungal community. Total microbial DNA in ENB was isolated with a CTAB extracting method (Tan *et al.*, 2013). V4-V5 region of bacterial 16S rRNA gene fragment was amplified with primers 515F (5⁰-GTGCCAGCMGCCGCGG-3⁰) and 907R (5⁰-CCGTC AATTCMTTTRAGTTT-3⁰; Jiang *et al.*, 2017). Fungal ITS region was amplified with primers ITS1-F (5⁰-CTTGGTCATTTAGAGGAAGTAA-3⁰) and ITS2-R (5⁰-GCTGCGTTCTTCATCGATGC-3⁰) (French *et al.*, 2017).

Sequencing library was constructed from the PCR amplicons, with index codes added, using NEB NextUltra DNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina (NEB) following manufacturer's recommendations. The libraries were sequenced on an Illumina MiSeq platform at the sequencing facility of BGI (Wuhan, China) according to standard Illumina protocols. The paired-end reads were quality controlled, merged by overlapping and analyzed with the QIIME pipeline (Caporaso *et al.*, 2010), as described in previous

studies (Barret *et al.*, 2015; Awasthi *et al.*, 2017). Bacterial and fungal OTUs were clustered at 97% similarity threshold respectively. Rarefaction curve of OTU was drawn to estimate sequencing coverage (Supporting Information Fig. S7). SILVA (Release 132) database of full-length sequences and taxonomy references was used for bacterial OTU clustering. UNITE v7.2 (Full UNITE+INSD dataset) was used for fungal OTU clustering.

Accessibility of strain and data

Cultures from *M. importuna* SCYDJ1-A1 are available (for non-commercial research only) on request to Jindi-Tianlingjian company, Sichuan, China. The genome of

M. importuna SCYDJ1-A1 is available at the corresponding MycoCosm genome portal at DOE Joint Genome Institute (<https://genome.jgi.doe.gov/Morimp1/Morimp1.home.html>) and also at NCBI BioProject PRJNA334370 (Genbank accession number SSSH00000000.1). RNA-Seq data: NCBI BioProject PRJNA503787. Shotgun metaproteomic data: PRIDE Archive identifier PXD012086. High-throughput sequencing of bacterial 16S rDNA V4-V5 and fungal ITS: NCBI Sequence Read Archive SRP162892.

Acknowledgements

This research was mainly supported by the Sichuan Science and Technology Program (Applied Fundamental Research Project, 2018JY0637, HT), the Special Fund for Agro-scientific Research in the Public Interest (201503137, ZH), the Innovative Improvement Projects of Sichuan Province (2016ZYPZ-028, WP; 2019LWJJ-009, HT; 2016LWJJ-007, HT), the Key Breeding Project of Sichuan Province (BW), and the Laboratory of Excellence ARBRE (ANR-11-LABX-0002-01, FMM), Region Lorraine, European Regional Development Fund. Isolation of the monosporal haploid culture from *M. importuna* SCYDJ1-A1, preparation of genomic DNA, as well as total mRNA for Expressed Sequence Tag (EST) survey were supported by the SAAS International Cooperation Fund 2015 (HT). Special thanks to Ms Lu Xiong (internship MSc student from Sichuan Agricultural University) for her participation in the extraction and purification of the DNA and EST-RNA samples. Library construction, sequencing, assembly, and annotation of the *M. importuna* SCYDJ1-A1 genome were performed within the framework of the 1000 Fungal Genomes project by the U.S. Department of Energy Joint Genome Institute, a DOE Office of Science User Facility, and supported by

the Office of Science of the U.S. Department of Energy under Contract No. DE-AC02-05CH11231. We are grateful to farmer Dafu Tian's family for providing the field experiment site and to all field technicians for their contribution. Commercial use of *M. importuna* SCYDJ1-A1 is currently under protection by Jindi-Tianlingjian company, Sichuan, China.

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Supporting Information

Additional Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article at the publisher's web-site:

Appendix S1: Supporting information

Fig. S1. Pairwise synteny of scaffolds between the genomes of *M. importuna* strains SCYDJ1-A1 (X-axis) and CCBAS932 (Y-axis). The VISTA program (Martin et al., 2004) integrated in the JGI Annotation Pipeline was used for pairwise alignment of scaffolds as well as visualization of the alignment results. Threshold of sequence length with continuous high homology was set at 50 bp cut-off. The dot-plot figure was extracted from the JGI MycoCosm genome portal of *M. importuna* SCYDJ1-A1.

Fig. S2. ENB temperature measured by electronic thermometer sensors inserted into three testing ENBs. Values are mean of three replicates.

Fig. S3. Time-course changes in the content of organic compounds and mineral elements in fruiting bodies. The

coloured columns indicate mean of three biological replicates, with standard deviations. Significance of difference was judged by one-way ANOVA. A full list of all *p*-values is provided in Table S8.

Fig. S4. Enrichment of ¹⁵N in ENB which were placed on the mushroom bed of a ¹⁵N-labeled soil, indicating that decomposition of ENB by *M. importuna* led to assimilation of N from soil towards ENB, during the first 15 days. Significant difference between day 0 and day 15 was judged by *t* test. Samples with a significantly increased level of ¹⁵N relative abundance are labeled with asterisks. The *p*-values are provided in Table S8.

Fig. S5. All the 88 CAZy-proteins of *M. importuna* SCYDJ1-A1 identified in ENB. Expression levels of the transcripts and proteins were estimated by RNA-Seq and nanoLC-MS/MS, respectively. Steady-state transcript level (in RPKM) and protein relative abundance are mean of three biological replicates. ND: not detected. Functions of the CAZymes were predicted according to their nearest analogs whose activities had been characterized in previous studies, as provided by the CAZy database. Significant up- or down-regulation was judged by fold-change > 2 or fold-change < 0.5, respectively, while FDR-corrected *p*-value < 0.05. Fold-change values and *p*-values are provided in Table S8.

Fig. S6. Counts of proteins showing significant up-regulation (fold-change > 2 and *p*-value < 0.05), significant down-regulation (fold-change > 0.5 and *p*-value < 0.05) or no significant shift, during days 15-45 or during days 45-75, respectively. Proteins of the metaproteomes of the major fungal taxa in ENB (*M. importuna* SCYDJ1-A1, *Mortierella*, *Trichoderma*, *Monodictys*, *Peziza*, *Cladosporium*, *Neonectria*, *Penicillium*, *Fusarium*, *Oliveonia*, *Plectosphaerella*), or those belonging to

M. importuna SCYDJ1-A1 only, were counted respectively. Subset panels show expressing regulation in the CAZymes of *M. importuna* SCYDJ1-A1. Areas of the circular sectors are all proportional to gene counts.

Fig. S7. A. Distribution of occurrence of genes coding for CAZymes involved in decomposition of plant polysaccharides, lignin and lipids, compared between the genomes of the commercially cultivated mushrooms *M. importuna* SCYDJ1-A1, *A. bisporus*, *P. ostreatus* and *L. edodes*. B. Presence of CAZymes in the proteomic profiles of *M. importuna* SCYDJ1-A1, *P. ostreatus* and *A. bisporus*. The CAZy-genes are sorted in categories according to their targeted substrates. Significant over-representation and under-representation were judged by Fisher's exact test shown in Table S7. The number of expressed CAZy-proteins of *P. ostreatus* and *A. bisporus* are calculated

from available previous studies (Patyshakuliyeva *et al.*, 2015; Fernández-Fueyo *et al.*, 2016), while *M. importuna* SCYDJ1-A1 is from this study.

Fig. S8. Rarefaction curves of bacterial 16S (a) and fungal ITS (b) sequences. ENB at day 15, 45 and 75 are shown by solid lines, dash lines and dot lines, respectively. The three replicates of each time-point are coloured in red, green and blue.

Table S1. Genome completeness and assembly metrics of *M. importuna* SCYDJ1-A1 and CCBAS932 strains.

Table S2. Comparison of gene-model characteristics between *M. importuna* SCYDJ1-A1 (red) and CCBAS932 (blue) strains.

Table S3. 9783 common genes shared by the SCYDJ1-A1 and CCBAS932 strains of *M. importuna*, determined by BlastP Best Reciprocal Hit analysis. The table is of big size, and is therefore provided as an individual Excel file available online: TableS3.xls.

Table S4. Initial state of physiochemical characteristics of the pre-homogenized soil used as the mushroom bed for morel cultivation.

Table S5. Content of chemicals in ENB at day 0, 15, 45 and 75.

Table S6. Proteins identified in the metaproteomes, with relative abundance of the three replicates at day 15, 45 and 75. The table is of big size, and is therefore provided as multiple working-sheets in an individual Excel file available online: TableS6.xls.

Table S7. Crosstabs showing all the results of Fisher's exact test conducted in this study. Significant over-representation is judged by adjusted residual value

> 1.96 (upper limit of 95% confidence of +1), and significant under-representation by adjusted residual value <

-1.96 (lower limit of 95% confidence of -1), as the criteria proposed by MacDonald and Gardner (2000). The table is of big size, and is therefore provided as multiple working-sheets in an individual Excel file available online: TableS7.xls.

Table S8. *p*-values of all the statistical comparisons (except for Fisher's exact test) in this study. The table is of big size, and is therefore provided as multiple working-sheets in an individual Excel file available online: TableS8.xls.

Table S9. Methods for enzymatic activity estimation.

Table S10. User-defined reference metagenome.

Table S11. Mapping rate of RNA-Seq reads.