1 Pyrolyzed substrates induce aromatic compound metabolism in the

2 post-fire fungus, Pyronema domesticum

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21 ABSTRACT

22 Wildfires represent a fundamental and profound disturbance in many ecosystems, and their 23 frequency and severity are increasing in many regions of the world. Fire affects soil by removing 24 carbon in the form of CO₂ and transforming remaining surface carbon into pyrolyzed organic 25 material (PvOM). Fires also generate substantial necromass at depths where the heat kills soil organisms but does not catalyze the formation of PyOM. Pyronema species strongly dominate soil 26 27 fungal communities within weeks to months after fire. However, the carbon pool (i.e. necromass 28 or PyOM) that fuels their rise in abundance is unknown. We used a *Pyronema domesticum* isolate 29 from the catastrophic 2013 Rim Fire (CA, USA) to ask if P. domesticum is capable of metabolizing 30 PyOM. P. domesticum grew readily on agar media where the sole carbon source was PyOM 31 (specifically, pine wood PyOM produced at 750 °C). Using RNAseq, we investigated the response 32 of P. domesticum to PvOM and observed a comprehensive induction of genes involved in the 33 metabolism and mineralization of aromatic compounds, typical of those found in PyOM. Lastly, we used ¹³C-labeled 750 °C PyOM to demonstrate that *P. domesticum* is capable of mineralizing 34 35 PyOM to CO₂. Collectively, our results indicate a robust potential for *P. domesticum* to liberate 36 carbon from PyOM in post-fire ecosystems and return it to the bioavailable carbon pool. 37

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45 **IMPORTANCE**

46 Fires are increasing in frequency and severity in many regions across the world. Thus, it's critically 47 important to understand how our ecosystems respond to inform restoration and recovery efforts. 48 Fire transforms the soil, removing many nutrients while leaving behind both nutritious necromass 49 and complex pyrolyzed organic matter, which is often recalcitrant. Filamentous fungi of the 50 genus Pyronema strongly dominate soil fungal communities soon after fire. While Pyronema are 51 key pioneer species in post-fire environments, the nutrient source that fuels their rise in abundance 52 is unknown. In this manuscript, we used a P. domesticum isolate from the catastrophic 2013 Rim 53 Fire (CA, USA) to demonstrate that P. domesticum metabolizes pyrolyzed organic material, 54 effectively liberating this complex pyrolyzed carbon and returning it to the bioavailable carbon 55 pool. The success of Pyronema in post-fire ecosystems has the potential to kick-start growth of 56 other organisms and influence the entire trajectory of post-fire recovery.

58 **INTRODUCTION**

Wildfires can have substantial effects on nutrient cycling [1, 2] and community 59 60 composition both above- and belowground [3, 4], making them important drivers of ecosystem processes [5]. Furthermore, wildfires are increasing in frequency and severity in many regions of 61 62 the world [6]. Independent of soil type, wildfires have been shown to decrease the total amount of 63 carbon in surface soils through combustion, releasing it as carbon dioxide, while much of the 64 remaining carbon is transformed into black carbon, or pyrogenic organic matter (PyOM) [7–11]. PyOM encompasses a heterogeneous spectrum of compounds, but is predominantly composed of 65 66 aromatic and polyaromatic compounds, depending on the source material, the temperature, and 67 duration of pyrolysis [12–14]. PyOM is generally thought of as being relatively recalcitrant, with PyOM sometimes persisting for hundreds or thousands of years [9, 12]. While organic matter in 68 69 surface soils may be completely combusted or pyrolyzed during fire, in deeper soil layers, non-70 pyrolyzed organic carbon is released where the heat from fire was enough to kill cells, forming a 71 necromass zone, but not hot enough for combustion or to catalyze the formation of PyOM [8, 15]. 72 Thus, post-fire soils often contain surface layers infused with PyOM, and necromass zones with 73 abundant organic matter directly below. Early microbial colonizers of post-fire soils may exploit 74 either or both PyOM and necromass as a key carbon source. However, relatively little is known 75 about how the metabolism of these respective carbon sources may drive post-fire microbial 76 succession and community recovery.

77 Many microorganisms are able to metabolize polyaromatic compounds with similarities to 78 those found in PyOM, either completely or incompletely [16]. For example, white-rot fungi have 79 been particularly well-studied for their ability to metabolize the phenolic polymer lignin. These 80 fungi leverage a combination of peroxidases, laccases, and monooxygenases to initiate the degradation of lignin and other polyaromatic compounds [17–19]. Non-lignolytic fungi rely 81 82 primarily on monooxygenases, especially cytochrome P450 monooxygenases, coupled with 83 epoxide hydrolases to initiate the degradation of complex polyaromatic compounds [16, 19, 20]. 84 Several common soil fungi have also been shown to degrade polyaromatic compounds [18]. These 85 fungi include Neurospora crassa, which emerges from burned wood shortly after fire, and 86 Morchella conica, which is a relative of pyrophilous Morchella species that often co-occur with 87 Pvronema species [21-24].

88 Fruiting bodies of the genus *Pyronema* are among the first macrofungi to emerge from 89 burned soil, doing so within weeks to months after fire [15, 24-26] (Figure 1 A&B). There are 90 currently only two described species of Pyronema: P. domesticum and P. omphalodes (= P. confluens), both of which rapidly dominate post-fire fungal communities [15]. A recent ITS 91 92 amplicon community analysis showed that Pyronema reads, which made up less than 1% of reads 93 (0.91%) prior to fire achieved a post-fire average relative abundance of 60.34% [15]. Both P. 94 domesticum and P. omphalodes were isolated from fruiting bodies that appeared within months after the catastrophic 2013 Rim Fire in Stanislaus National Forest, near the border with Yosemite 95 National Park (California, USA) [15]. In vitro, Pyronema has a rapid growth rate, but has 96 97 historically been considered a poor competitor with other soil fungi [27, 28]. Thus, a key question 98 is: what carbon source is used by Pyronema to achieve such high relative abundance post-fire? Does Pyronema simply exploit the available necromass, or do they have the ability to metabolize 99 100 PyOM as well? Given the dominant status and their early emergence after fire, Pyronema likely 101 play a critical role in the first steps of post-fire succession. Thus, the possibility that Pyronema 102 might contribute to the mineralization of PyOM has far-reaching implications for carbon cycling 103 within post-fire soil communities.

104 In this work, we investigated the hypothesis that early successional pyrophilous fungi such 105 as Pyronema metabolize PyOM. To do so, we measured biomass, sequenced the transcriptome 106 (RNAseq), and measured CO₂ efflux from P. domesticum grown on agar media with various 107 carbon sources, including PyOM and burned soil collected from a frequent and high-intensity 108 wildfire site [29]. When grown on media containing burned soil or PyOM, P. domesticum 109 produced significant biomass, activated a diverse suite of cytochrome P450 and FAD-dependent 110 monooxygenases, and comprehensively induced pathways for aromatic substrate utilization. 111 Lastly, we confirmed that P. domesticum mineralized PyOM by measuring CO₂ emissions of P. 112 domesticum grown on ¹³C-labeled PyOM. Collectively, our results demonstrate the potential for 113 P. domesticum to liberate carbon from PyOM, assimilate it into biomass, and mineralize it to CO₂. 114 Thus, pioneering organisms such as P. domesticum may play an important role in the short-term 115 reintegration of PyOM into biologically available carbon in post-fire ecosystems.

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117 MATERIALS AND METHODS

118 *Pyrogenic organic matter production*

119 PyOM was produced from *Pinus strobus* (L.) (eastern white pine) wood chips <2 mm at 750 °C in 120 a modified Fischer Scientific Lindberg/Blue M Moldatherm box furnace (Thermo Fisher 121 Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) fitted with an Omega CN9600 SERIES Autotune Temperature 122 Controller (Omega Engineering Inc., Norwalk, CT, USA). We modified the furnace and adapted 123 the PyOM production design developed by Güereña, et al. [30]. Briefly, the feedstock was placed 124 in a steel cylinder inside the furnace chamber and subjected to a continuous argon gas supply at a 125 rate of 1 L min⁻¹ to maintain anaerobic conditions during pyrolysis. The heating rate for production 126 of PyOM was kept constant at 5 °C min⁻¹. We held the temperature constant for 30 min once 750 127 °C was reached, after which the PyOM was rapidly cooled by circulating cold water in stainless 128 steel tubes wrapped around the steel cylinder. The PyOM was ground using a mortar and pestle 129 and sieved to collect PyOM with particle size $<45 \mu m$.

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131 Fungal strain and biomass quantification

Pyronema domesticum DOB7353 [15] was inoculated onto 1.5% agar media treatment plates overlaid with cellophane; Vogel's Minimal Medium [31] agar containing 20 g L⁻¹ sucrose ("sucrose"), 10 g L⁻¹ 750 °C PyOM agar ("PyOM"), 10 g L⁻¹ wildfire-burned soil agar ("soil"), and water agar ("water"). Burned soil was collected from 0-10 cm in Illilouette Creek Basin [29] via an ethanol-sterilized shovel, and homogenized in plastic zip-top bags. Burned soil was x-ray sterilized (Steris, Petaluma, CA) and both PyOM and soil were added to agar media after autoclaving.

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140 *P. domesticum* was allowed to grow for four days until it completely covered the plate on each 141 agar media treatment described above (sucrose, PyOM, soil, and water). Biomass from each plate 142 was harvested, immediately weighed, and then mixed with 500 μ L 0.2 mM Methylene Blue 143 (M9140, MilliporeSigma) in a 1.5 mL microcentrifuge tube. We adapted Fisher & Sawers' 144 Methylene Blue (MB) biomass quantification protocol [32]. Briefly, tubes of MB-stained biomass 145 were heated at 80 °C for 5 minutes, then vortexed at maximum speed for 10 min, then heated again 146 at 80 °C for 5 min. Mycelia was pelleted by centrifugation for 10 minutes at maximum speed in a

147 standard microcentrifuge. 50 μ L of the supernatant was combined with 200 μ L ddH₂O and then 148 absorbance was measured at 660 nm. Blank wells, and wells containing 0.2 mM MB were included 149 as controls.

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151 RNA extraction and sequencing

152 Mycelia was harvested from a total of nine replicate plates for each treatment (as described above). 153 Mycelia from sets of three plates were pooled, resulting in three replicate samples for RNA 154 extraction and sequencing. Pooled mycelia were immediately flash frozen with liquid nitrogen. 155 Cells were lysed by bead-beating with 1 mL TRIzol [33]. Nucleosomes were removed by gently 156 shaking for 5 minutes at room temperature. 200 uL chloroform was added, briefly bead-beaten, 157 and then centrifuged to pellet cell debris. The aqueous phase was then used for RNA purification 158 with the Zymo Direct-zol RNA MiniPrep kit (Cat. No. R2050). The qb3 facility at University of 159 California, Berkeley quantified RNA quality and concentration via Bioanalyzer and then carried 160 out library preparation and sequencing on an Illumina NovaSeq 6000 Platform.

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162 *RNAseq data analysis*

163 Raw reads were manually inspected for quality using FastQC v0.11.5, and then trimmed and 164 quality filtered with Trimmomatic v0.36 [34]. HISAT2 v2.1.0 [35] mapped quality reads to the P. 165 domesticum DOB7353 v1.0 genome [15, 36]. Raw counts per gene were generated with HTSeq 166 v0.9.1 [37]. Raw counts were normalized, a PCA plot was generated, and differential expression 167 was calculated with DESeq2 v1.24.0 on R v3.6.1 [38, 39]. To determine whether expression 168 profiles were significantly different across treatments, we used PERMANOVA from the adonis() 169 function from the vegan package v2.5-7 [40]. Functional gene annotations were downloaded from 170 the Joint Genome Institute's Mycocosm portal [36]. Additional annotation of specific genes was 171 performed via protein-BLAST.

174 ¹³C-labelled 750 °C PyOM was produced from *Pinus strobus* as described above, except the biomass was from ¹³C-labelled seedlings. The ¹³C label was incorporated by pulse-labelling 2-175 176 year-old *P. strobus* seedlings with ¹³CO₂, resulting in a δ^{13} C value (relative to the standard vPDB) 177 of +833.11‰ in the PyOM. We incubated the *P. domesticum* on ¹³C-labelled 750 °C PyOM agar 178 (10 g L⁻¹ PyOM) in 118.29 mL Mason jars, fitted with gas-tight lines, connected to an automated 179 sample analyzer ("multiplexer") that automatically samples the jar headspaces at regular intervals 180 and quantifies the amount and isotopic signature of the headspace CO_2 in a Picarro cavity ringdown 181 spectrometer (multiplexer described in detail in Berry et al., in review). To conserve limited 182 labelled material while maintaining moisture in the media, we layered 10 mL PyOM media over 183 30 mL water agar in the Mason jars. P. domesticum was inoculated using a punch from an identical 184 ¹³C-labelled 750 °C PyOM agar plate. The jars were sealed and connected to the multiplexer, 185 where they were measured every 48-72 hours for 57 days. Between measurements, jar headspace 186 was flushed with a 20% O₂, 80% N₂, and 400 ppm CO₂ gas mix designed to represent atmospheric 187 conditions. Measurement frequency was such that jars did not become oxygen-depleted. We used 188 five replicates of P. domesticum-inoculated plates and five replicates of control uninoculated 189 plates.

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191 CO₂ emissions were partitioned between sources using stable isotope partitioning and the 192 following equation [41]:

193 $f_A = (\delta_{Total} - \delta_B) / (\delta_A - \delta_B)$

where f_A is the fraction of total CO₂ emissions from source A, and δ represents the δ^{13} C signature 194 195 of the total (δ_{Total}), source A (δ_A), or source B (δ_B). To calculate the CO₂ that was released 196 specifically due to the presence of *P. domesticum*, we subtracted the effects of abiotic sorption of 197 CO_2 by PyOM (red diamonds in Figure 5) from the total CO_2 based on the emissions from the 198 uninoculated jars, adjusting the isotopic signature accordingly. To determine the portion of the 199 remaining biotic emissions that were derived specifically from PyOM, we then partitioned the 200 remaining CO₂ between PyOM and non-PyOM sources, using the δ^{13} C value of the PyOM and the 201 δ^{13} C value of media-derived CO₂ evolved from control, *P. domesticum*-inoculated water agar 202 plates.

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204 Data Availability

We have provided an Excel file in the supplemental materials associated with the article, which
details the results of our differential expression analysis and functional category assignment.
FASTQ raw RNAseq data is publicly available at SRA accession PRJNA662999. Lastly, full code
used for processing gas data is available at github.com/whitmanlab.

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210 **RESULTS**

211 *Pyrolyzed substrates induce a distinct transcriptional response*

212 We observed distinct differences in the macroscopic growth pattern of *P. domesticum* when 213 grown on four different agar media treatments; 750 °C Pinus strobus wood PyOM, wildfire burned 214 soil, sucrose minimal medium, and water agar (Figure 1C). After inoculating agar treatment plates 215 with equivalent amounts of mycelia, a substantial amount of biomass was produced on sucrose 216 (Figure 1 C&D, and Figure S1). Growth on PyOM and, to a lesser extent, burned soil both 217 produced an intermediate amount of biomass. Notably, P. domesticum has a tufted or fluffy 218 macroscopic morphology on sucrose and to a lesser extent, PyOM. Lastly, there was observable 219 growth on water agar, but biomass production was minimal (Figure 1 C&D, and Figure S1).

220 After four days of growth on each substrate, the biomass from each treatment was 221 harvested, and RNA was extracted for sequencing. Principal Component Analysis (PCA) of these 222 transcriptomes (Figure 2) illustrates the significant differences between treatments 223 (PERMANOVA, p = 0.001, n=3). Across PC2 (23% of variation), the transcriptomes from the 224 water and sucrose conditions fell at opposite ends, while transcriptomes from the PyOM and 225 burned soil were located at an intermediate point near the origin. A possible explanation for this 226 distribution is that PC2 describes the overall amount of bioavailable carbon and other nutrients. 227 Water agar representing starvation contains the least amount of nutrients, the PyOM and soil 228 containing intermediate amounts, and sucrose agar containing the most. Across PC1, which 229 explained 56% of the variance across our samples, the PyOM -associated transcriptomes were 230 located at one end of the axis while the water and sucrose conditions fell at the opposite end, with

the burned soil transcriptomes at an intermediate position near the sucrose and water conditions. One possibility is that PC1 reflects the amount of PyOM present in the medium, since the PyOM medium contained the most, burned soil contained less, and sucrose and water media lacked any at all. Together, these results indicate that the transcriptional response of *P. domesticum* to burned or pyrolyzed substrates is unique compared to either water or sucrose, and the response to PyOM is particularly distinct.

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238 Starvation stress induces a broad transcriptional response

239 Growth on water agar triggered a broad starvation stress response in P. domesticum 240 (Supplemental Data). Compared to sucrose, on water agar we observed significant upregulation of 241 318 genes (Figure 3A), including 31 transporters and 86 genes involved in the metabolism of 242 diverse substrates, including the catabolism of amino acids and nucleotides (adjusted p-value < 243 0.01, fold change > 4, n = 3; Supplemental Data). Several general stress response genes were also 244 induced on water agar compared to sucrose; specifically, seven different heat shock proteins and 245 two proteins involved in programmed cell death. Surprisingly, invertase, the enzyme that 246 hydrolyzes sucrose, was not significantly downregulated on water compared to sucrose (adjusted 247 p-value = 0.14, fold change = 1.8, n = 3). In contrast to the 318 genes that were upregulated on 248 water compared to sucrose, there were only 94 genes significantly upregulated on sucrose 249 compared to water, including a sugar:hydrogen symporter, and 23 genes involved in primary 250 metabolism, biosynthesis, and development (Supplemental Data). Taken together, these data 251 demonstrate that growth on water agar induces a stress response program that includes genes 252 involved in catabolism of macromolecules and scavenging for alternative nutrient sources. In 253 contrast, growth on sucrose allows for a more streamlined transcriptome focused on growth 254 powered by the metabolism of simple sugars.

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The transcriptional response to pyrolyzed substrates is characterized by genes involved in stress tolerance, metabolism, and growth.

To examine the nutritional and metabolic response to burned or pyrolyzed substrates, we calculated differential expression of genes in each treatment compared to sucrose and used

260 functional gene annotations to categorize genes that were significantly upregulated at least 4-fold 261 (Figure 3, for downregulated genes see Figure S2). We observed the largest shift in gene 262 expression on PyOM with a total of 519 significantly upregulated genes (Figure 3A). 227 genes 263 were upregulated on burned soil, and the majority (189 genes) of those overlapped with genes 264 induced on PyOM and/or water (adjusted p-value < 0.01, fold change > 4, n = 3). We note that 265 invertase was significantly down-regulated on PyOM compared to sucrose (adjusted p-value = 266 1.17E-7, fold change = -9.9, n = 3), and to a lesser extent on soil compared to sucrose (adjusted p-267 value = 0.02, fold change = -5.7, n = 3).

268 The 171 genes that were induced on water and at least one of the two substrates containing 269 PyOM (burned soil and PyOM) characterized a stress response associated with decreased nutrient 270 availability. Among these 171 genes are nineteen transporters and four general stress response 271 genes including two heat shock proteins (Figure 3B, Supplemental Data). Additionally, we 272 observed signatures of nitrogen stress in the water, PyOM, and soil conditions compared to sucrose 273 minimal medium, which contains ammonium nitrate as a nitrogen source. These putative nitrogen 274 stress responsive genes include genes involved in ammonium production, nitrogen metabolism, 275 and a putative ortholog (gene 1304) of the conserved Aspergillus nidulans transcription factor 276 TamA (Supplemental Data). TamA is a conserved stress-responsive regulator of nitrogen 277 metabolism [42].

278 The 63 genes that were induced in common between PyOM and burned soil, excluding water, 279 characterize a common response to PyOM (Figure 3). In addition, 335 genes were uniquely 280 upregulated in response to PyOM, and the 38 genes uniquely upregulated on burned soil were 281 almost entirely annotated as hypothetical proteins (Supplemental Data). After 'hypothetical', the 282 next category with the most genes was that of metabolism, which we address in the subsequent 283 section. We note that PyOM-responsive genes included nine Cytochrome P450 monooxygenases 284 and four FAD monooxygenases. Cytochrome P450 oxidation of aromatic compounds often results 285 in the formation of toxic epoxides and reactive oxygen species (ROS). On both substrates 286 containing PyOM we observed upregulation of genes involved in ROS protection (Figure 3B). 287 However, neither of the two epoxide hydrolases annotated in the P. domesticum genome exhibited 288 any significant changes across our treatments (Supplemental Data). Lastly, we observed an 289 enrichment of genes involved in biosynthesis (e.g., synthesis of amino acids, fatty acids, membrane

lipids), development, and signaling that were upregulated specifically in the presence of PyOM.
Taken together, these data indicate that, as expected, growth on PyOM is more stressful than
growth on sucrose. Beyond a general stress response, the *P. domesticum* response to burned or
pyrolyzed substrates includes the activation of a large set of genes, including those involved in
metabolism, oxidation of aromatic substrates, and protection from ROS.

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*PyOM induces a coherent set of metabolic pathways for aromatic compound degradation in P.*domesticum

298 The results in the previous section indicate that PyOM may prompt a restructuring of 299 metabolism in *P. domesticum*. In Figure 4 we mapped the significantly upregulated genes in *P.* 300 *domesticum* (adjusted p-value < 0.01, fold change > 2, n = 3) onto the canonical pathways for 301 aromatic compound degradation and assimilation into central metabolism and other biosynthetic 302 pathways. All PyOM is enriched for aromatic carbon compounds because incomplete combustion 303 of organic matter results in the formation of aromatic and polyaromatic carbon compounds [12]. 304 PyOM produced at temperatures greater than $\sim 400^{\circ}$ C generally has a carbon composition that is 305 >90% aromatic [12, 43]. Here we propose that the large cohort of cytochrome P450 and FAD 306 monooxygenases that were induced on PyOM-containing media (compared to growth on sucrose) 307 are the primary method that P. domesticum uses to initiate the degradation of polyaromatic and 308 aromatic carbon compounds. FAD monooxygenases oxidize compounds with a single aromatic 309 ring, whereas cytochrome P450 monooxygenases can oxidize complex polyaromatic compounds 310 [19, 44].

311 One cytochrome P450 gene (gene 2648) that was upregulated on both PyOM and burned soil 312 was identified via protein-BLAST as a putative ortholog of the *bapA* gene in *A. nidulans*, which 313 was recently shown to oxidize the polyaromatic hydrocarbon benzo-[a]-pyrene [19]. An additional 314 five upregulated FAD monooxygenase genes and one cytochrome P450 monooxygenase gene 315 have specific predicted substrates (salicylic acid, phenol, and benzoate). Lastly, fifteen cytochrome 316 P450 monooxygenase genes were induced at least 2-fold on PyOM-containing media that have 317 currently unknown substrates (Figure 4, Supplemental Table). Nearly half of these genes were 318 strongly induced on PyOM; gene 10112, encoding a cytochrome P450 was strongly upregulated 319 on both PyOM compared to sucrose (fold change = 1910.9) and on PyOM compared to water (fold

change = 891.4), and six other cytochrome P450 genes were also upregulated at least 8-fold on
PyOM compared to sucrose.

322 We identified two pathways by which aromatic carbon may be assimilated into central 323 metabolism: via the protocatechuate and shikimate/quinate pathway and the via the catechol and 324 3-oxoadipate (=beta-ketoadipate) pathway. Six of seven core genes in the shikimate/quinate 325 pathway were upregulated on PyOM compared to sucrose. In contrast, two of the five genes in the 326 3-oxoadipate pathway were upregulated on PyOM compared to sucrose. Notably, we observed 327 strong upregulation on PyOM compared to sucrose of the four genes necessary to connect aromatic 328 protocatechuate to central metabolism. These four genes encode DHS dehydrase (fold change = 329 36.8), DHQase (fold change = 4.6), DHQ synthase (fold change = 955.4), and DAHP synthase 330 (fold change = 8.0). These three genes were similarly strongly upregulated on PyOM compared to 331 water (Supplemental Data). In contrast, the genes that encode the proteins necessary for the 3-332 oxoadipate pathway were relatively modestly upregulated on PyOM compared to sucrose (fold 333 change = 2.8, adjusted p-value < 0.01, n = 3).

We also observed that genes for the breakdown and metabolism of the three aromatic amino acids were induced differentially across all tested conditions. It is notable that upregulation of monophenol monooxygenase genes (i.e., tyrosinases) were also enriched on burned or pyrolyzed substrates and water compared to sucrose. Upregulation of central metabolism genes was generally enriched on sucrose, however some genes involved in glycolysis and gluconeogenesis were also upregulated on water, PyOM, and soil.

In summary, when *P. domesticum* was grown on PyOM, we observed upregulation of an extensive set of monooxygenases that may initiate degradation of the aromatic components of PyOM. We also observed comprehensive induction of the shikimate/quinate and 3-oxoadipate pathways, though the shikimate/quinate pathway was much more strongly induced. These data indicate that the aromatic intermediates liberated by monooxygenases may be funneled into central metabolism and mineralized via the shikimate/quinate and 3-oxoadipate pathways in *P. domesticum*.

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348 P. domesticum mineralizes PyOM-derived carbon to CO₂

349 To conclusively determine whether *P. domesticum* was able to mineralize PyOM carbon, we cultivated it on agar plates supplemented with ¹³C-labelled 750 °C PyOM and quantified CO₂ 350 351 emissions (Figure 5). In the headspace of gas-tight jars inoculated with P. domesticum (n = 5), we 352 observed a cumulative increase in the production of both total CO₂ (Figure 5A) and ¹³C-labelled 353 PyOM-derived CO₂ (Figure 5B) over several days of observation. This result indicates that P. 354 domesticum mineralized some of the PyOM by converting the carbon from 750 °C PyOM into CO_2 . We also observed an accumulation of non-¹³C-labelled CO_2 in the inoculated jars, indicating 355 356 that *P. domesticum* was also mineralizing carbon from non-PyOM sources. In uninoculated control 357 jars, we observed a net sorption of CO₂ by the PyOM agar medium. Taken together, these results 358 indicate that mineralization of carbon from both PyOM and non-PyOM sources in the media by P. 359 domesticum was greater than the effect of abiotic CO₂ sorption by PyOM media.

360

361 **DISCUSSION**

362 Fungi in the genus Pyronema are pioneer species that rapidly dominate fungal communities 363 in post-fire soils [15]. Thus, Pyronema have the potential to directly influence the trajectory of 364 post-fire community succession and associated nutrient cycling dynamics. Here we investigated 365 the transcriptional response of Pyronema domesticum on four different agar treatments: 750 °C 366 PyOM, wildfire burned soil, sucrose minimal medium, and water. Our results indicate that burned 367 or pyrolyzed substrates induce transcription of a comprehensive set of genes that together function 368 to metabolize aromatic and polyaromatic compounds found in PyOM. Additionally, we 369 demonstrated the mineralization of PyOM into CO₂ by *P. domesticum*, consistent with the notion 370 that this organism is capable of directly metabolizing PyOM.

Pyronema are barely detectable in soil before fire, become prevalent soon after fire, and then rapidly decline within weeks [15, 25]. The form taken by *Pyronema* between fire events is largely obscure. *Pyronema* may simply exist as dormant ascospores or sclerotia that require the heat and/or chemical changes associated with fire to trigger germination [27, 45]. One recent hypothesis suggests that pyrophilous fungi may live as endophytes for the majority of their life history, abandoning their plant hosts after they are killed by fire [46]. Regardless of how *Pyronema* live pre-fire, post-fire *Pyronema* are clearly poised to take full advantage of an open niche. Past

work has shown that *Pyronema* are poor competitors, and they are also capable of growing rapidly
on a diversity of substrates (i.e. burned soil, steam-treated soil, several different soil types, heattreated plaster, and agar media containing various nutrients) [27, 28]. These data point toward the
notion that *Pyronema* are generalists.

382 During intense forest fires, the organic material in the topmost layer of soil is heavily 383 pyrolyzed, ultimately containing a significant amount of PyOM composed of complex aromatic 384 and polyaromatic carbon compounds. A secondary layer of soil beneath the top layer is heated to 385 a point that causes widespread death of the resident microbial/invertebrate soil fauna, leading to a 386 layer rich in necromass that is not pyrolyzed. Carbon found in either layer could be targeted by 387 Pyronema. The notion of Pyronema as generalists might suggest that they would be most likely to 388 exploit the readily available carbon in the necromass layer. However, the metabolic restructuring at the transcriptional level, and production of ¹³C-labeled CO₂ from labeled PyOM that we 389 390 observed in this study, strongly indicate that P. domesticum readily metabolizes PyOM. 391 Specifically, this restructuring includes the activation of an array of cytochromes P450 and FAD 392 monooxygenases which likely target aromatic substrates for oxidation, in addition to activation of 393 the shikimate/quinate and 3-oxoadipate pathways for assimilating the resulting substrates into 394 central metabolic pathways. Thus, our results indicate that *Pyronema* may in fact be well-adapted 395 as broad generalists able to capitalize on both necromass and abundant PyOM in post-fire soils, 396 further explaining their rapid takeover of these communities.

397 Although their dominance is relatively short-lived in the post-fire community, *Pyronema* 398 grow rapidly post-fire, producing abundant biomass in the form of ascocarps and mycelia [15, 24-399 26]. Competition may explain the short-lived dominance of *Pyronema* as it appears to be a weak 400 competitor in isolation [28]. Even if Pyronema are outcompeted and simply senesce, their DNA 401 could linger in post-fire soil and continue to be detected via sequencing methods [47-49]. 402 However, both *Pyronema* ascocarps and their DNA decline rapidly after they peak in abundance 403 following fire [15]. This rapid decline of Pyronema DNA could be explained by the starvation 404 response that we observed on water agar (Figure 3), in which P. domesticum may fuel outward 405 expansion perceived as growth by recycling macromolecular building blocks such as nucleotides 406 and amino acids into a diffuse biomass aimed at exploration of environments with sparse nutrients 407 [50, 51]. This turn-over of biomass may explain the non-PyOM-derived CO_2 mineralized by P.

domesticum (Figure 5B). Alternatively, *P. domesticum* may simply be mineralizing other carbon
sources that were present in the agar medium, such as the agar itself. To our knowledge, terrestrial
fungi lack agarases that degrade agarose, but the genomes fungi such as *P. domesticum* do contain
a suite of pectinases, some of which may target agaropectin [52].

412 Another explanation for the rapid decline of Pyronema DNA in post-fire soils is that Pyronema 413 biomass, either living or recently senesced, is consumed by other organisms [47, 48]. Thus, 414 abundant Pyronema biomass may provide a critical nutrient source for secondary colonizers of 415 post-fire soils, thereby laying the foundation for succession within post-fire communities. 416 Importantly, the ability of P. domesticum to convert PyOM into biomass could directly facilitate 417 the growth of organisms that lack the ability to metabolize PyOM. Thus, Pyronema may provide 418 an important mechanism for rapidly assimilating some portion of newly formed PyOM back into 419 more readily bioavailable forms of carbon in post-fire environments. Additionally, it is possible 420 that *Pyronema* function to favorably transform the post-fire soil environment in other ways, such 421 as affecting pH or accessibility of other nutrients. Nevertheless, the mineralization of PyOM by 422 the dominant early-successional fungus *P. domesticum* is likely to have broad impacts on post-fire 423 succession and recovery in soil microbial communities.

424

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558 FIGURES & FIGURE LEGENDS



560 Figure 1: Pyronema growth on natural and laboratory substrates. (A) Pyronema sp. fruiting 561 on burned soil six months after the 2018 Camp Fire began near Paradise, California, USA. (B) 562 Pyronema domesticum DOB7353 ascocarps on the edge of a water agar plate. (C) P. domesticum 563 DOB7353 growing on four different agar media treatments: water agar with no added nutrients 564 ("Water"), wildfire-burned soil collected near the original isolation site for P. domesticum 565 DOB7353 ("Soil"), 750 °C White Pine wood char ("PyOM"), or Vogel's minimal medium with 566 sucrose as a carbon source ("Sucrose"). All plates were inoculated in the center of the plate 567 (bottom-right corner of photo) with mycelium from a 6mm-diameter punch of an actively growing 568 P. domesticum colony. Scale bar = 1cm. (D) Average amount of P. domesticum DOB7353 biomass 569 on one full plate as show in C, quantified by measuring the amount of Methylene Blue (MB) stain 570 remaining after absorption by *P. domesticum* hyphae. All treatments are significantly different 571 from each other (ANOVA + Tukey's test, p < 0.0001, n = 5, error bars = standard deviation). The

572 "No hyphae" control is pure 0.2mM MB without any biomass treatment. The "No MB" control is



574





Figure 2. Pyrolyzed substrates induce expression of distinct sets of genes in *P. domesticum*.
Principal Component Analysis plot illustrating the variation between each sample transcriptome
(normalized expression values). Prior to RNA extraction, *P. domesticum* DOB7353 was grown in
triplicate on four different agar media treatments.



582 Figure 3. Pvrolvzed substrates induce expression of genes involved in stress response and 583 **PyOM metabolism.** (A) Venn diagram showing the number of significantly upregulated genes in 584 each treatment compared to sucrose (adjusted p-value < 0.01, fold change > 4, n = 3). (B) Number 585 of significantly upregulated genes compared to expression on sucrose in each functional gene category (adjusted p-value < 0.01, fold change > 4, n = 3). Functional gene categories were 586 587 determined via KEGG, GO, and pfam annotations. Stacked black and orange bars indicate the 588 number of genes upregulated on PyOM alone (black) or the overlap between PyOM and soil 589 (orange and black). We defined stress-response genes as those which are upregulated on water 590 agar. Blue bars indicate the number of genes that are upregulated on both water and burned or 591 pyrolyzed substrates for each functional category.



Figure 4. Metabolic map highlighting aromatic compound metabolism induced by growth
on pyrolyzed substrates. Significantly upregulated genes mapped onto the canonical pathways

596 for aromatic compound metabolism (adjusted p-value < 0.01, fold change > 2, n = 3). Bolded 597 arrows indicate a fold change > 8 on PyOM compared to sucrose. Each gene is indicated as a 598 black-outlined box, and the proteins encoded by these genes are indicated as purple text. The color 599 fill of the box indicates the condition(s) in which the gene was upregulated. Multi-colored boxes 600 are slightly larger than mono-color boxes to increase visibility of the colors and to highlight genes 601 that are induced in more than one condition. Diagonal parallel lines within a box and associated 602 dashed lines indicate genes that were expressed, but not differentially expressed under the tested 603 conditions.



Figure 5. Cumulative mean CO₂ emissions from *P. domesticum* growing on ¹³C-labeled 750°C PyOM. (A) Mean cumulative CO₂ measured over time from the enclosed headspace of jars containing either sterile (uninoculated, red diamonds) 750 °C PyOM agar, or identical plates inoculated with *P. domesticum* (inoculated, dark grey squares) (n = 5, error bars = standard error). (B) Mean cumulative CO₂ from *P. domesticum* inoculated jars, normalized by the uninoculated

- 611 controls, and then partitioned into PyOM-derived C (black squares) and non-PyOM-derived C
- 612 (light grey squares) using 13 C partitioning (n = 5, error bars = standard error).

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614 SUPPLEMENTAL FIGURES



616 Supplemental Figure 1: *P. domesticum* biomass wet weight on agar media treatments.

617 Prior to Methylene Blue staining, *P. domesticum* biomass was harvested and immediately weighed.

618 Error bars indicate standard deviation (n = 5).

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621 Supplemental Figure 2. Down-regulated genes on pyrolyzed substrates in *P. domesticum*.

622 (A) Venn diagram showing the number of significantly downregulated genes in each treatment 623 compared to sucrose (adjusted p-value < 0.01, fold change < -4, n = 3). (B) Number of significantly 624 downregulated genes compared to expression on sucrose in each functional gene category 625 (adjusted p-value < 0.01, fold change < -4, n = 3). Functional gene categories were determined via 626 KEGG, GO, and pfam annotations. Black bars indicate the number of genes downregulated on 627 PyOM alone (total = 206). Orange bars indicate the number of genes downregulated in both PyOM 628 and soil (total = 25). Blue bars indicate the number of genes downregulated on water that also 629 overlap with soil and/or PyOM (total = 57).