

1 **Title:**

2 **Co-cultivation with Azolla affects the metabolome of whole rice plant beyond canonical**
3 **inorganic nitrogen fertilization**

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49 **Running Title**

50 Azolla affects rice metabolome beyond nitrogen fertilization

51

52 **Highlights:**

53 The aquatic fern *Azolla* synthesizes and releases a broad range of growth promoting metabolites (i.e.
54 small peptides) that can be absorbed by the roots of co-cultivated rice plants

55 **Abstract**

56

57 Azolla spp. are floating ferns used for centuries as biofertilizers to enrich the soil with inorganic
58 nitrogen and improve rice yields. In this study, rice plants were grown together with Azolla by
59 maintaining a low and constant concentration of inorganic nitrogen. We employed a combination of
60 non-targeted metabolomics, chemometrics, and molecular networking to dissect the impact of Azolla
61 co-cultivation on the metabolome of rice roots- and leaves. Our analyses revealed that Azolla releases
62 a broad range of metabolites in the culture medium, mainly comprising small peptides and flavonoids.
63 Moreover, in rice co-cultivated with Azolla, we observed a systematic response in the upregulation
64 of metabolites that started from the roots and, over time, shifted to the leaves. During the early stages
65 of co-cultivation, Azolla led to the accumulation of small peptides, lipids, and carbohydrates in roots,
66 and flavonoid glycosides and carbohydrates in leaves of rice. Consistent with these results,
67 transcriptomics analysis of rice roots indicated significant changes in the expression of genes coding
68 for small peptide and lipid transporters, and genes involved in amino acid salvage and biosynthesis.
69 Overall, our study highlights novel growth-promoting effects of Azolla on rice which could facilitate
70 the development of sustainable techniques to increase yields.

71

72 **Keywords:** Azolla, rice, *Oryza sativa*, metabolomics, biostimulant, co-cultivation, small peptides

73

74 **Introduction**

75

76 The major challenge of the twenty-first century is to sustainably feed a world population expected to
77 reach ~9.7 billion by 2050 (United Nations, 2019). Climate change (Das Gupta, 2014) and concerns
78 about using chemical fertilizers and pesticides call for innovative strategies to achieve increased
79 yields while decreasing the environmental impact of global crop cultivation (Matson et al., 1997). A
80 strategy for the transition to a more sustainable agricultural production relies on the co-cultivation of
81 crops with companion plants and associated microbes that fix atmospheric nitrogen, thereby acting
82 as soil biofertilizers. An excellent example is the use of the *Anabaena (Trichormus)-azollae*
83 symbiosis system as a sustainable source of nitrogen in rice cultivation (Watanabe and Liu, 1992).
84 *Azolla* spp. is a small floating fern (Lumpkin & Plucknett, 1980) whose leaflets have cavities that
85 provide a microenvironment for the nitrogen-fixing filamentous cyanobacterium *Anabaena*
86 (*Trichormus*) *azollae* (Kumar et al., 2019). *Azolla-Trichormus*, hereinafter referred to as “Azolla”, is
87 a unique symbiotic system that persists throughout the fern’s life cycle and allows to double its mass
88 in 3-5 days. The Azolla nitrogen-fixing capacity, accounting for 30-40 kg N ha⁻¹ in two weeks when
89 growing in nitrogen-free solution (Watanabe et al., 1977), is higher than that achieved by the
90 symbiosis between legumes and Rhizobia and enables the fern to grow in waterlogged habitats poor
91 in nitrogen content (Bhuvaneshwari et al., 2015). Given the high growth rate and great N-fixing
92 potentials, Azolla can cover large water basins in a very short time and further enrich the soil with
93 nitrogen which is slowly released after plant death and decomposition (Mahanty et al., 2017). The
94 inorganic nitrogen released by Azolla and available to the companion crops, such as rice, is about
95 70% of that of ammonium sulfate (Watanabe et al., 1977). In Indian paddy soils, Azolla decomposed
96 in 8-10 days to benefit to the co-cultivated rice after 20-30 days (Singh 1977). For this reason, Azolla
97 has been used for centuries as biofertilizer in rice paddies in China and Vietnam (Singh, 1989;
98 Watanabe, 1982; Watanabe et al., 1989, Bhuvaneshwari et. al, 2012, 2013; van Hove and Lejeune,
99 2002), and it is still currently used either as green manure or intercropped with rice (Okonji et al.,
100 2012). Thus, the role of Azolla in supplying inorganic nitrogen to rice fields is well documented
101 (Peters and Meeks, 1989). In addition, it has been demonstrated that Azolla, following decomposition,
102 increases soil mineral content (N, P, K, Ca, Mg, and Na) and organic matter (Bhuvaneshwari et al.,
103 2013).

104 Studies on free-living extracts of Azolla have indicated that this fern has the potential to produce
105 hormones, vitamins, and other growth-promoting substances that enhance crop growth (Misra &
106 Kaushik, 1989a, 1989b; Wang et al., 1991; Mofiz et al. 2023). Moreover, the growth-promoting
107 effect of Azolla starts early, before the end of its life cycle, suggesting that molecules stimulating

108 plant growth are released by the Azolla into the surrounding environment while it is still alive.
109 Evidence has shown an increase in rice plant height and number of tillers in rice following addition
110 of Azolla to the soil (Bhuvaneshwari et al., 2015). It has also been shown that co-cultivation of rice
111 with Azolla and associated cyanobacteria boosts rice growth at an early stage by increasing root and
112 shoot growth and, ultimately, enhancing the rice grain weight and protein content (Venkataraman and
113 Neelakantan 1967; Singh and Trehan 1973 Bhuvaneshwari, 2012). Thus it has been postulated that
114 Azolla may be a source of growth-promoting compounds released into the water (Wagner 1997),
115 although no report has been published to confirm it. However, the molecular mechanisms by which
116 Azolla exerts its growth-promoting effects on co-cultivated crops remain unclear, and farmers still
117 prefer to rely on chemical fertilizers to control rice yield (Marzouk et al., 2023).

118

119 Moving from the companion study by Cannavò et al. (2024, Preprint), which demonstrated the
120 morphological and transcriptional changes in rice induced by co-cultivation with Azolla, here we
121 employed non-targeted metabolomics to investigate the alterations in the rice plant metabolome
122 triggered by the fern. Specifically, our objectives were to: i) study the Azolla-induced changes of the
123 metabolomes in leaves and roots of rice plants at two time points following the onset of Azolla-rice
124 co-cultivation; ii) to identify the metabolites released by Azolla into the growth medium and evaluate
125 their potential role in influencing rice phenotype and growth.

126 **Materials and methods**

127

128 *Plant material and experimental setup*

129 *Azolla filiculoides* Lam. employed in this study were collected, characterized, and grown under
130 controlled conditions in Watanabe solution (Table S1; Watanabe et al., 1992) as reported in Costarelli
131 et al., (2021). To set the co-cultivation experiments rice (*Oryza sativa* cv. Kitaake) seeds were
132 sterilized and germinated in Petri dish as reported in Cannavò et al. (2024, Preprint). Rice plants were
133 grown hydroponically in Yoshida solution (Table S2; Yoshida et al., 1976) by employing expanded
134 clay balls (Atami, Netherlands) as plant support, and grown under controlled environmental
135 conditions in 50x33x11 cm (length/width/depth) boxes filled with 6 L solution and placed in a
136 climatic chamber with a temperature of 25/20°C (day/night), photosynthetic photon flux density
137 (PPFD) of 220 $\mu\text{moles m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ provided by fluorescent tubes (Philips, Netherlands) and a 10-h
138 photoperiod.

139 A set of 6 boxes were prepared to grow 4 rice plants each in Yoshida solution: 3 boxes containing a
140 total of 12 rice plants were co-cultivated with *Azolla* (+AZ), and 3 boxes containing other 12 rice
141 plants that were cultivated without *Azolla* (-AZ) (Fig. 1a). All the boxes were wrapped and darkened
142 with aluminum foil to prevent the development of algae. The pH of Yoshida solution was adjusted
143 with NaOH 1M to pH=5.0 and completely replaced every 2 weeks. Leaves and roots of (+AZ) and (-
144 AZ) rice plants were sampled 40 and 60 days from the onset of hydroponic co-cultivation (doc). The
145 roots and leaves were sampled from three different rice plants from each of the 6 boxes. All samples
146 were flash-frozen in liquid nitrogen, freeze-dried, and stored (at 4°C) for non-targeted metabolomics
147 analysis. To investigate the metabolites exchanged between rice and *Azolla* since the early phase of
148 their interaction but when rice plants were already well acclimated to the hydroponic condition, the
149 liquid culture medium was sampled 15 days from the onset of hydroponic cultivation, by collecting
150 10 ml from each (+AZ) and (-AZ) boxes. This 15-day time point coincides with the morphological
151 and molecular analyses performed on the same rice plants in the companion study (Cannavò et al.
152 2024, Preprint). In addition, 10 mL of liquid culture medium was collected from the 3 boxes where
153 *Azolla* was grown alone on Watanabe solution, under the environmental conditions described above,
154 and from fresh Watanabe solution as control, and dried with speed vac (Thermo-Fisher scientific,
155 USA).

156

157 *Non-targeted metabolomics analysis by UPLC-UHR-QqToF-MS*

158 The extraction of metabolites followed the protocol described in Bertić et al. (2021). Homogenized
159 and powdered (+AZ) and (-AZ) rice leaf (L), root (R) samples, and lyophilized culture media samples

160 were extracted with cold methanol:2-propanol:H₂O (1:1:1, v/v/v) solution containing 50 $\mu\text{L L}^{-1}$ of
161 internal standard mixture (Table S3). The chemicals (LC-MS hyper grade) methanol/H₂O were
162 purchased from Merck (Darmstadt, Germany) and 2-propanol/acetonitrile from Honeywell
163 (Puchheim, Germany). Due to plant material limitations, we extracted 25 mg of rice leaf with 1000
164 μL of solvent and 12.5 mg of rice root with 500 μL of solvent, i.e., using the same material-to-solvent
165 ratio. Samples were mixed for 1 min inside a 2 mL polypropylene tube and sonicated in an ultrasonic
166 bath for 10 min at 5°C. The solution was then centrifuged for 10 min at 10,000 rpm at 5°C. Four-
167 fifths of the initial extraction volume was recovered and dried by SpeedVac (Univapo 150H,
168 Uniequip, Planegg, Germany). The residue was dissolved in 350 μl of 50% (v/v) acetonitrile in water,
169 mixed for 1 min, centrifuged for 10 min at 10,000 rpm at 5°C and the supernatant was ready for
170 metabolic analysis. Culture media samples were directly dissolved in acetonitrile/water.

171 We strictly followed our established non-targeted metabolomics analysis (Ghirardo et al., 2020;
172 Bertić et al., 2021) based on measurements with Ultra Performance Liquid Chromatography (UPLC)
173 Ultra High resolution (UHR) tandem quadrupole/Time-of-Flight (QqToF) Mass Spectrometry (MS).
174 The LC-MS instrument is composed of an Ultimate 3000RS UPLC (Thermo Fisher, Bremen,
175 Germany), a Bruker Impact II (QqToF) and an Apollo II ESI source (Bruker Daltonic, Bremen,
176 Germany). Each sample was measured twice, both on a reversed-phase liquid chromatography
177 (RPLC) column and on a hydrophilic interaction liquid chromatography (HILIC) column (Bertić et
178 al., 2021) to obtain an optimal separation of nonpolar and polar metabolites, respectively (Saba et al.,
179 2001). We analyzed each sample with both RPLC and HILIC columns with MS operated both in
180 positive and negative electrospray ionization modes (for details on chromatography and MS
181 parameters, see Bertić et al., 2021). Data analysis followed Bertić et al. (2021). In short, raw data
182 obtained from LC-MS were manually checked using the software Compass® Data Analysis 4.2
183 (Bruker Daltonik) for quality control, and corrupted chromatograms were discarded from the analysis.
184 Data were further processed using Metaboscape 4.0 (Bruker) to perform isotope filtering, mass
185 calibration, peak peaking, alignments, and peak-groupings based on peak-area correlation. Sample
186 groups (i.e., +AZ and -AZ treatment, 40 and 60 duration of the treatment, L and R plant organ) were
187 created in Metaboscape and only mass-features with >60 % presence at least in one group were
188 retained for analysis. Intensity threshold and recursive counts were defined in Compass® and details
189 on processing parameters can be found in Table S4.

190 Metabolite annotation was achieved by library comparison (Bertić et al., 2021), and we reported the
191 non-annotated and non-classified metabolites as mass-features (MFs), giving the measured mass-to-
192 charge ratio (m/z). For those MFs that were not found in databases, we used the recently developed
193 multi-dimensional stoichiometric compound classification (MSCC) method, which classifies

194 compounds based on their elemental composition in the chemical categories of proteins-related,
195 amino sugars, lipids, carbohydrates, secondary metabolites (Rivas et al., 2018). Elemental
196 composition of MF was calculated based on the exact measured mass and the sum formula was
197 computed by the ‘SmartFormula function’ of Metaboscope. Molecular formulas were further used to
198 calculate H:C, O:C, C: N, C:P, S:C, N:P ratios to depict Van Krevelen diagrams. It should be noted
199 that multiple MF may relate to a single metabolite. Moreover, based on the chemical formula,
200 metabolites were tentatively annotated by using the PubMed open database
201 (<https://pubchem.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/>) and National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST)
202 Chemistry WebBook, SRD 69 (<https://doi.org/10.18434/T4D303>). Systematic classification of
203 tentatively annotated compounds and unknown metabolites were achieved by SIRIUS4 (Dührkop et
204 al., 2019; 2020) using the tools CANOPUS (Djoumbou et al., 2016), CSI:FingerID and COSMIC
205 (Dührkop et al., 2015; Kim et al. 2021; Hoffmann et al., 2022) on molecules that possessed
206 fragmentation spectra (MS/MS) and were found to be statistically significant (adj. p-value < 0.05)
207 between the comparison groups.

208 Molecular networks were created using the online workflow ([https://ccms-
209 ucsd.github.io/GNPSDocumentation/](https://ccms-ucsd.github.io/GNPSDocumentation/)) on the GNPS website (<http://gnps.ucsd.edu>) (Wang et al.,
210 2016). The data were filtered by removing all MS² fragment ions within ± 10 Da of the *m/z* of the
211 precursor. MS² spectra were window-filtered by choosing only the first 6 fragment ions in the ± 50
212 Da window across the spectrum. The precursor ion mass tolerance was set to 0.05 Da and the MS²
213 fragment ion tolerance to 0.05 Da. Networks were then created in which edges were filtered to have
214 a cosine score greater than 0.70 and more than 6 corresponding peaks. Furthermore, edges between
215 two nodes were retained in the network when each of the nodes appeared in the respective top 10
216 most similar nodes. Finally, the maximum size of a molecular family was set to 100 and the lowest
217 scoring edges were removed from the molecular families until the molecular family size was below
218 this threshold. The network spectra were then searched in the GNPS spectral libraries. The library
219 spectra were filtered in the same way as the input data. All matches maintained between the network
220 and library spectra had to have a score above 0.7 and at least 6 matching peaks.

221

222 *RNA sequencing*

223 For RNA isolation, three pools of rice root tips (up to 1 cm from apices) were collected 15 days after
224 the onset of hydroponic cultivation from both control and Azolla co-cultivated rice plants. RNA
225 isolation, cDNA library preparation, and RNAseq analyses were conducted as reported in Cannavò
226 et al. (2024, Preprint).

227

228 *Statistics*

229 All analyses of metabolomic data were performed on 3-6 independent replicates. Multivariate Data
230 Analysis (MDA) was performed according to Bertić et al., (2021) and by using the software SIMCA-
231 P v13.0.3.0 (Umetrics, Umeå, Sweden). Prior to analysis, data were always centered, transformed
232 logarithmically (log10) and Pareto scaled (Eriksson, 1999; van den Berg et al., 2006). Orthogonal
233 Partial Least Squares Discriminant Analysis (OPLS-DA) models were calculated using as Y-
234 variables the rice plant treatment (+AZ and -AZ) and (40 and 60 doc) duration of the treatment
235 (excluding plant material as Y) and assigning a binary discriminating variable codex to their class
236 (plant organ, treatment and days of treatment). Once the model was created, it was auto-fitted by
237 SIMCA® to the maximum number of significant components, the mass-features having a Variance
238 Importance of Prediction (VIP) value > 2 were selected and further analyzed. All MF that had an
239 abundance not statistically different from blanks were removed from the analysis. Significance was
240 tested by *t*-test after correction for multiple tests with the Benjamini-Hochberg false discovery rate
241 procedure (Benjamini-Hochberg, 1995; Glen, 2015). Only mass-features with adj. p-values < 0.05
242 were considered in the result section. Significant perturbations in the metabolome were evaluated
243 with hypergeometric tests, using the function ‘phyper’ in R v.4.3.1 (R Development Core Team,
244 2019).

245 **Results**

246

247 *The impact of Azolla co-cultivation on rice metabolome*

248 The phenotype of rice roots and aerial organs was significantly modified by co-cultivation with
249 Azolla (Fig. 1b, c), as shown in detail in the companion paper by Cannavò et al. (2024, Preprint). In
250 our non-targeted metabolomic analysis, we compared the metabolome of leaves and roots of rice co-
251 cultivated with Azolla to those of plants grown without Azolla at two time points, 40 and 60 days
252 after the onset of co-cultivation (doc). Overall, we detected 15348 and 14574 metabolite-related mass-
253 features (MFs) (after de-isotoping and peak-grouping of clusters and adducts) in rice leaves and roots,
254 respectively (Fig. 2a, b). Among these, 6220 (40.5%) in leaves (Fig. 2a) and 6410 (44%) in roots
255 were found (Fig. 2b), regardless of the presence of Azolla or the rice growth stage. This represents
256 the metabolome of rice (roots and leaves) that is insensitive to either the growth with Azolla or to the
257 plant developmental stage. Although Azolla did not supply inorganic nitrogen to the media (Cannavò
258 et al. 2024, Preprint), it significantly induced changes in the metabolome of whole rice plants.
259 Specifically, we detected 1268 (8.3%) and 894 (6.2%) MFs in leaves and roots, respectively, that
260 occurred only in plants co-cultivated with Azolla (Fig. 2a, b). In particular, the co-cultivation with
261 Azolla enhanced, over time, the number of metabolites (457 and 637 were detected after 40 and 60
262 doc, respectively) in rice leaves, whereas it slightly decreased those in roots (337 and 328 at 40 and
263 60 doc, respectively) (Fig. 2a, b). Besides, in rice plants grown without Azolla, 2494 (16.3%) MFs
264 were found to be regulated in leaves (Fig. 2a) and 3005 (20.6%) in roots (Fig. 2b). In the opposite
265 way to what happened in rice co-cultivated with Azolla, the regulation of metabolites decreased (1805
266 at 40 doc; 320 at 60 doc) and increased (293 at 40 doc; 2522 at 60 doc) with aging in the leaves and
267 roots of rice grown without Azolla, respectively (Fig. 2a, b). The rice metabolome underwent, as a
268 whole, a lower degree of regulation in plants grown with- than without Azolla, both at leaf- and root-
269 level.

270

271 We separated the effects of Azolla co-cultivation on the rice metabolome from those dependent on
272 plant aging by using the multivariate statistical approach OPLS-DA (Fig. 3a, b). This analysis clearly
273 showed significant differences in the metabolomes of both leaves and roots of rice due to Azolla co-
274 cultivation at both 40 and 60 doc (Fig. 3a, b). In leaves, the number of upregulated metabolites was
275 higher than those downregulated at both plant growth stages (Table 1). The impact of Azolla co-
276 cultivation on rice leaf metabolome increased over time, resulting in a higher number of both
277 upregulation and downregulation of metabolites at 60 doc compared to 40 doc (Table 2; Fig. 4 -
278 upregulated; Fig. S1 - downregulated). Among these metabolites, most (~ 70%) showed a low degree

279 of regulation (Log₂FC between 0 and 1) at 40 and 60 doc. In addition, while the number of highly
280 upregulated metabolites (Log₂FC >3) decreased over time, the number of those highly downregulated
281 (Log₂FC <3) increased from 40 to 60 doc (Table 1).

282 A stronger effect on metabolic regulation was found in roots than in leaves. In roots, more than 50%
283 of metabolites increased their level up to double (Log₂FC between 0 and 1) in the presence of Azolla
284 (Table 1). Specifically, in roots of rice co-cultivated with Azolla, a higher upregulation occurred after
285 40 doc for metabolites with Log₂fold change values between 0 and 3 (Table 1; Fig. 4), while a higher
286 downregulation after 60 doc involved those metabolites showing a Log₂fold change between -3 and
287 0) (Table 1; Fig. 4).

288 We classified the metabolites according to their elemental composition using the multidimensional
289 stoichiometric compound classification (MSCC) method. This grouped compounds into broad classes
290 such as carbohydrates, lipids, protein-related compounds (e.g., amino acids and small peptides),
291 secondary metabolites, amino sugars, and nucleotides. We focused on significant changes (FDR <
292 0.05) of metabolites strongly associated with Azolla-rice co-cultivation (VIP >2, OPLS; p < 0.01,
293 CV-ANOVA). Following this approach, we observed a higher number of metabolites changed in rice
294 roots than in leaves (140 vs 7, at 40 doc; 100 vs 20, at 60 doc), with a plant organ-dependent shift
295 between 40 and 60 doc. In fact, in rice roots the metabolome was upregulated at 40 doc, while in
296 leaves it was downregulated at 40 doc compared to 60 doc (Table 2). Specifically, after 40 doc with
297 Azolla, several protein-related metabolites (45; e.g., aminobutyric acid, leucine, dimethylarginine,
298 alanyl-glutamine, alanyl-proline, valine-asparagine, methionine sulfoxide, 1-aminocyclopropane-1-
299 carboxylic acid) and lipid-related metabolites (36; e.g., crotonic acid) increased in the rice root
300 metabolome, whereas after 60 doc, the abundances of protein-related metabolites (124) and lipid-
301 related metabolites (42) decreased (Table 1; Table S5). Interestingly, among the 36 lipid-related
302 metabolites upregulated at 40 doc in rice roots, 7 were also upregulated at 60 doc (FDR < 0.05)
303 including linoleic acid (Table S6). Consistent with these results, transcriptomic analysis of rice roots
304 at 15 doc with Azolla indicated strong changes in the regulation of genes involved in amino acid
305 salvage, i.e. processes leading to the production of amino acids from derivatives (i.e., small peptides)
306 without *de novo* synthesis (Table 3) and transport of small peptide. In particular, the expression of
307 the six proton-dependent oligopeptide transporter family protein, namely proton-dependent peptide
308 (PTR) transporters, and four ATP synthase (ATP)-binding cassette (ABC) transporters, were strongly
309 affected (Table 3). The expressions of two aminotransferases, essential to produce amino acids *de*
310 *novo*, were also strongly downregulated (Table 3). With respect to lipids, several (14) DEGs related
311 to the biosynthesis/metabolism of fatty acids and their transports were also differentially regulated in

312 the roots of Azolla-cultivated rice plants at 15 doc, of which 11 were upregulated and 3 downregulated
313 (Table S7).

314 In parallel with the marked reduction in the levels of metabolites in rice root following 60 doc with
315 Azolla, we observed an increase of 20 metabolites in leaves, mainly related to lipids (5), secondary
316 metabolites (3; i.e., flavonoids and phenolics, piperonyl aldehyde) and carbohydrates (2; i.e.,
317 xylulose-5-phosphate), as well as to some unknown metabolites (6) (Table 2; Table S3). The
318 increasing number (from 7 to 20), over time, of the strongly upregulated metabolites in the leaves of
319 rice co-cultivated with Azolla, may suggest that changes in rice metabolome at leaf level occurred
320 later than those at root level following Azolla co-cultivation. Overrepresentation analysis pointed to
321 significant up-regulation of the protein-related metabolism in leaves at 40 doc ($p < 0.01$,
322 hypergeometric test) and carbohydrates at 60 doc ($p < 0.01$), whereas in roots of lipids at 40 doc ($p <$
323 0.001) and secondary metabolites at 60 doc ($p < 0.001$).

324 It is worth noting that many significantly regulated metabolites could not be assigned to any of the
325 considered chemical classes by MSCC, and therefore these were referred to as 'unknown' (Table 2;
326 Table S5). However, we employed molecular networking (MN), a technique that can organize and
327 visualize the chemical space in tandem mass spectrometry (MS2) data, to associate the fragmentation
328 patterns of molecules, i.e., their chemical characteristics, with those that could be annotated through
329 metabolomics databases. Thus, we used MN to link the 'unknown' metabolome to annotated
330 metabolites present in databases. The results of this computational approach highlighted that some of
331 the unknown metabolites whose levels increased at 40 doc were strongly associated to dipeptides
332 (Fig. 5), supporting the observation that Azolla induces the upregulation of nitrogen metabolism in
333 rice roots. Among the annotated metabolites whose levels strongly increase in rice leaves after 60 doc
334 with Azolla, we found a few secondary metabolites (3) and one carbohydrate (1), as well as several
335 metabolites related to flavonoid glycoside metabolism (Fig. 6).

336
337 *Azolla released protein-related and flavonoid compounds in the culture medium*

338 We analyzed the chemical compositions of the aqueous solution in which the rice plants, Azolla, and
339 rice co-cultivated with Azolla were grown, after subtracting the compounds present in the original
340 culture media (Watanabe and Yoshida) without plants. We detected a large number of unique
341 metabolites (2894 MFs, 43.6%) into the culture medium when Azolla was cultivated alone (Fig. 2c).
342 In comparison, 966 (14.6%) and 400 (6%) were the MFs only present in the medium hosting rice and
343 rice plants co-cultivated with Azolla, respectively. Overall, the chemical compositions strongly
344 differed, as shown by OPLS-DA analysis ($p < 0.001$; CV-ANOVA) (Fig. 3c; Fig. S1) possibly
345 reflecting the effect of plant growth on two different culture media.

346 We, therefore, focused our analysis on the molecules released by Azolla in the culture media by
347 comparing the samples growing in the same solution. When comparing rice with Azolla with rice
348 alone in the same Yoshiba solution, we detected 18 metabolites upregulated, of which 2 masses could
349 be annotated to tri-peptides. The putative release of small peptides from Azolla to the culture media
350 was further investigated by comparing the solutions in which Azolla was grown (in Watanabe) to
351 fresh Watanabe solution. We detected 176 MFs strongly associated with Azolla ($\text{Log}_2\text{FC} > 2$; $\text{VIP} >$
352 1.5 , $p < 0.001$, CV-ANOVA; Table S5). However, the library search and the MSCC approach were
353 able to identify and classify only a few of these MF metabolites, specifically in protein-related
354 compounds (8), amino sugar (1), lipid (8), secondary metabolite (4), and carbohydrate (2) (Table S5).
355 Some examples are the amino acids leucine ($\text{Log}_2\text{FC} > 10$; $\text{VIP} = 17$), methionine sulfoxide (Log_2FC
356 $= 2.96$; $\text{VIP} = 1.8$), phenylalanine ($\text{FC} = 2.59$; $\text{VIP} = 1.8$); 4-aminobutanoic acid ($\text{Log}_2\text{FC} = 4.4$; VIP
357 $= 1.79$); the glycerophospholipid lysophosphatidylcholine ($\text{Log}_2\text{FC} = 2.16$; $\text{VIP} = 1.77$) and the fatty
358 amide erucamide ($\text{Log}_2\text{FC} = 3.66$; $\text{VIP} = 2.02$). However, by using molecular networking analysis,
359 we observed a strong association between the remaining significant MFs and small peptides
360 (glutamyl-cysteine, Arg-Ile, Asp-Lys, Lys-Gly-Thr) or flavonoids (e.g., quercetin-3-O-glucoside,
361 kaempferol-3-O-glucoside, naringenin-7-O-glucoside, quercetin-3-O-manonylglucoside; Fig. 7).
362

363 Discussion

364

365 In this study, we employed a non-targeted metabolomics analysis on growth media, rice roots, and
366 leaves to deepen our understanding of the factors that induce the morphogenetic changes in rice plants
367 as a result of the co-cultivation with *Azolla* (as described in the companion study by Cannavò et al.
368 2024, Preprint). The collected metabolic dataset was analyzed by combining the multidimensional
369 stoichiometric compound classification (MSCC) with molecular networking (MN) to classify a large
370 number of metabolites, including those not yet present in databases but structurally related to known
371 compounds. Our results show that *Azolla* can release a wide range of phytochemicals into the aquatic
372 culture medium that have a positive effect on rice growth and development during the early stages of
373 their co-cultivation.

374

375 *Azolla releases metabolites into the liquid culture medium that impact the rice phenotype*

376 The aquatic fern *Azolla* is known to constitutively produce volatile organic compounds (e.g.,
377 isoprene) (Brilli et al., 2022) and non-volatile metabolites (e.g., phenylpropanoids) (Costarelli et al.,
378 2021), which can be enhanced under stressful conditions (Cannavò et al., 2023). Here, we show that
379 *Azolla* can release a broad range of soluble metabolites, such as small (di-, tri-) peptides, lipids, and
380 flavonoids, into the aquatic culture medium. These metabolites can, in turn, stimulate the growth of
381 rice plants and influence their development (Cannavò et al. 2024, Preprint). The ability of *Azolla*, in
382 association with its cyanobacterium *Trichormus azollae*, to produce metabolites may be specific to
383 the culture medium and can also be affected by interaction with other plants. This may explain why
384 the metabolites released by *Azolla* grown alone differ from those detected in the solution where
385 *Azolla* was co-cultivated with rice. Nevertheless, in both solutions, we mainly detected several
386 metabolites structurally related to protein (e.g., amino acids, di- and tripeptides), flavonoids, and
387 lipids, indicating that *Azolla* and its associated microbiome can release these metabolites into the
388 solution, regardless of the culture medium composition (Table S5). Plant roots are known to produce
389 exudates rich in lipids, amino acids, and proteins, in addition to carbohydrates and other secondary
390 metabolites (Canarini et al., 2019). These exudates have multiple ecological and physiological
391 functions, such as improving plant performance (Baetz and Martinoia, 2014;) and recruiting growth-
392 promoting rhizobacteria (PGPR) (Narasimhan et al., 2003; Upadhyay et al., 2022) by acting as
393 signaling molecules in plant-microbe interactions (Dennis et al., 2010; Jacoby et al., 2022). Moreover,
394 root exudates create a favorable environment for the proliferation of nitrogen-fixing symbiotic
395 cyanobacteria, which positively impact on nutrient cycling in the ecosystem (Lu et al., 2014).

396 All the different classes of metabolites we found released by Azolla in the culture solution have a
397 growth-promoting potential. The non-protein amino acids, such as exogenous aminobutyric acid, and
398 the small peptides or free amino acids (i.e., leucine, phenylalanine, the tripeptide Lys-Gly-Thr)
399 identified through MSCC and MN analyses in the Azolla growth medium represent a valuable source
400 of organic nitrogen for rice that may favor stress resistance (Ma et al., 2018), and have a positive
401 impact on root-associated bacterial communities (Wang et al., 2022a). Small peptides are known to
402 act as hormone-like molecules in plant growth and development (Roy et al., 2018; Feng et al., 2023),
403 function as stress signaling molecules (Chen et al., 2020) able to trigger plant defense responses
404 (Valmas et al., 2023), and to exert beneficial effects on the microbiome of rice roots (Tejada et al.,
405 2011; Colla et al., 2017). In addition, cyanobacterial species such as *Trichormus azollae*, are known
406 to release free amino acids (i.e., aspartate, glutamate, alanine) into their growth medium (Thomas and
407 Shanmugasundaram, 1992). We detected leucine and phenylalanine in the growing medium of
408 *Azolla-Trichormus azollae*. We also identified small peptides that may serve as a source of free amino
409 acids in the growing medium, potentially derived from larger peptides following hydrolysis-mediated
410 by proteolytic enzymes such as proteases. These proteases may be released from Azolla or rice roots
411 to facilitate uptake (Adamczyk et al., 2010). In turn, rice plants may take up the small peptides through
412 transporters located on the plasma membrane (Näsholm et al., 2009; Tegeder and Masclaux-
413 Daubresse, 2017). Consistent with this hypothesis, the gene expressions of six transporters putatively
414 annotated as *proton-dependent peptide transporters (PTRs)* and four *ABC* transporters, were
415 significantly affected in the roots of Azolla co-cultivated plants. The *PTR* gene family comprises a
416 group of membrane transport proteins that facilitate the uptake of di- and tripeptides across cellular
417 membranes (Stacey et al., 2002; Komarova et al., 2008). Among those 10 transporters, eight were
418 upregulated and two were markedly downregulated in rice roots, suggesting a specific compensatory
419 response to the high levels of di- and tripeptides present in the culture medium, e.g., by feedback
420 inhibition of the transcription factors binding to the promoter regions of *PTR* genes. Moreover, the
421 higher level of di- and tri-peptide in the culture medium may lower the demand for amino acid
422 biosynthesis in rice. Accordingly, we note how the expressions of genes involved in the *de novo*
423 aspartate and glutamate biosynthesis (i.e., *aspartate aminotransferase* and *nicotianamine*
424 *aminotransferase*, respectively; Table 3) were downregulated in the roots of Azolla co-cultivated rice.
425 We found lipids released by Azolla in the medium that might elicit plants' innate immunity by
426 inducing nitric oxide (NO) production, calcium influx, and oxidative burst (Erbs et al., 2003; Silipo
427 et al., 2010; Nurnberger et al., 2004), thus sustaining plant growth under unfavorable conditions.
428 Consistent with this, in the roots of rice co-cultivated with Azolla we detected both the differential
429 expression of lipid transporters (Table S7), increased NO levels (see companion study by Cannavò et

430 al. 2024, Preprint) and the presence of dimethylarginine (this study), which is produced by the
431 methylation of arginine and is involved in NO signaling (Corpas et al., 2009; Hu et al., 2019).
432 Likewise, two rice genes involved in (leaf) cuticular wax biosynthesis were upregulated in the roots
433 of rice co-cultivated with Azolla. Thus, lipids and carbohydrates released by Azolla may serve to
434 either synthesize or reinforce the external layers of rice root cells, thus providing protection against
435 stress (Pereira et al., 2009; Ozturk and Aslim, 2010).

436 We also identified some flavonoids in the culture medium (Fig. 7b). Azolla is known to be rich in
437 phenolic compounds (Brouwer et al., 2018; Costarelli et al., 2021), and here we show that it releases
438 flavonoids into the surrounding medium (Fig. 7b). Flavonoids play a crucial role in plant stress
439 responses by mitigating excess of reactive oxygen species (ROS) and by modulating stress signaling
440 pathways (Daryanavard et al., 2023). Additionally, flavonoids influence phytohormone signaling,
441 thereby contributing to the regulation of plant growth and development. In turn, rice plants may
442 benefit from a nutrient solution enriched in flavonoids. Another compound involved in stress
443 tolerance that we detected in the Azolla culture medium was methionine sulfoxide, which also
444 interacts with plant growth processes (Ray and Tarrago, 2018). However, our study investigated rice
445 growth under non-stressed conditions. Therefore, the potential ability of Azolla to increase stress
446 tolerance of rice plants deserves further investigation under stress conditions in the future.

447 The higher number of metabolites we detected in the medium where Azolla was grown alone with
448 respect to those detected in the medium from the co-cultivation (Fig. 2) suggests that the metabolites
449 released by Azolla are taken up by the rice roots. Likewise, the lower number of metabolites detected
450 in the medium in which rice and Azolla were co-cultivated compared to those present in the media
451 where rice was grown alone, could be interpreted as a result of metabolite turn over due to Azolla
452 uptake and/or chemical modifications (e.g., hydrolysis of peptides into free amino acids). Overall,
453 since the accumulation of different forms of inorganic nitrogen was prevented in our experiments by
454 frequent replacement of the nutrient solution, the morphogenetic changes exhibited by rice plants
455 following co-cultivation with Azolla (see Cannavò et al. 2024, Preprint) are most likely caused by
456 the metabolites and phyto regulators released by, and exchanged with, Azolla in the culture solution,
457 some of which were taken up by the rice roots.

458

459 *Co-cultivation with Azolla impacts both root and leaf metabolomes*

460 Co-cultivation with Azolla strongly affected the metabolome of rice roots and leaves. To the best of
461 our knowledge, this is the first non-targeted metabolomics investigation of rice plants during the co-
462 cultivation with Azolla. Previous metabolomic studies have been performed on rice plants to track
463 the geographical origins (Hu et al., 2014; Li et al., 2022a), profile therapeutically important

464 metabolites (Kusano et al., 2015; Rajagopalan et al., 2022), and identify biomarkers of seeds
465 yellowing (Liu et al., 2020) and quality deterioration (Wang et al., 2022b).

466 In this study, we demonstrated that co-cultivation with *Azolla* initially affected the root- rather than
467 the leaf metabolome, and the upregulated root metabolites were more related to the primary
468 metabolism and, to a lesser extent, to the secondary metabolism (Fig. 4; Table 1-2). Furthermore, we
469 observed an overall increasing number of metabolites being regulated in leaves as rice development
470 progressed, while a decreasing number were regulated in roots, thus indicating a temporal allocation
471 of metabolites from root to shoots. This is in good agreement with the growth-promoting effects of
472 *Azolla* co-cultivation. The increased levels of metabolites in the roots of rice co-cultivated with
473 *Azolla* appear to result in part from the direct uptake of metabolites released by *Azolla* into the culture
474 medium (as discussed above), as well as from the activation of rice metabolic pathways triggered by
475 signaling molecules promoted by the interaction with *Azolla*-released compounds.

476
477 Among the significant changes found in the rice metabolome following co-cultivation with *Azolla*,
478 we observed a much higher up-regulation than down-regulation of several mass features assigned to
479 protein-related molecules, followed by lipids, secondary metabolites, and carbohydrates. However,
480 only a few of these metabolites showed the highest level of upregulation (Table 1). This indicates that
481 the interaction between *Azolla* and rice plants is complex, involving changes in both primary and
482 secondary metabolism similarly to those occurring between plants and growth-promoting bacteria
483 (Mashabela et al., 2022). The systematic upregulation of metabolites in rice co-cultivated with *Azolla*,
484 which initiated in roots and shifted, over time to leaves (Fig. 4), resembles the biostimulant effects
485 shown when seaweed extracts were applied to *Arabidopsis*, initially affecting the roots and later
486 producing metabolic changes in the leaves (Tran et al., 2023). We also observed a pronounced
487 adjustment of the primary metabolism rather than the secondary metabolism in rice roots when
488 interacting with *Azolla*. This effect resulted in the accumulation of protein- and lipid-related
489 metabolites and carbohydrates (Table 2). Notably, the elevated levels of small peptides in the roots
490 of rice co-cultivated with *Azolla* mirrored the enriched levels of small peptides found in the liquid
491 medium where only *Azolla* was grown alone (Fig. 5; Fig. 7). This suggests that rice roots absorbed
492 small peptides produced and released by *Azolla* into the medium, a finding supported by
493 transcriptomic analysis of rice roots which revealed the strong upregulation of genes coding for small
494 peptide transporters (Table 3).

495
496 Among the protein-related metabolites highly upregulated in rice roots during co-cultivation with
497 *Azolla*, the most upregulated mass feature has been tentatively assigned to aminobutyric acid

498 (GABA). GABA is a signaling molecule that has multiple roles in response to abiotic (Nayyar et al.,
499 2014) and biotic (Ramputh and Bown, 1996) stresses and in modulating the plant developmental
500 processes (Bouché and Fromm, 2004). GABA is also important for maintaining the C:N balance
501 within the plant cells and it is involved in hormone biosynthesis and nitrogen metabolism, which is
502 fundamental for overall plant development (Khan et al., 2021; Pei et al., 2022; Bouché and Fromm,
503 2004). The application of exogenous GABA to *Arabidopsis* has been shown to promote the direct
504 absorption of these metabolites by the roots through the modulation of several enzymes involved in
505 nitrogen metabolism and nitrogen uptake (Barbosa et al., 2010). In addition, exogenous GABA could
506 impact on rice growth by affecting the roots absorption of mineral nutrients, particularly in response
507 to the excess of iron (Zhu et al., 2020). Thus, GABA released from *Azolla* into the culture medium
508 may have contributed to the changes observed in the phenotype and transcriptional profiles of iron-
509 related genes in rice the roots (as shown in the study of Cannavò et al. 2024, Preprint).

510 In both rice roots and in the culture medium where *Azolla* was grown, we observed the accumulation
511 of a mass feature tentatively identified as methionine sulfoxide. Methionine sulfoxide is enhanced by
512 its rapid oxidation under increasing levels of ROS (Tarrago et al., 2015). However, under specific
513 conditions, its biosynthesis can also occur without ROS excess, potentially through post-translational
514 modifications (Rey and Tarrago, 2018). Methionine sulfoxide plays a crucial role in root growth,
515 lateral root development, and root architecture regulation by interacting with auxin (Patersnak et al.,
516 2023). Thus, methionine sulfoxide could be one of the metabolites capable of triggering the
517 transcriptomic and morphological changes in rice plants co- cultivated with *Azolla*, as highlighted in
518 in Cannavò et al. (2024, Preprint).

519
520 In the roots of rice co-cultivated with *Azolla*, our analysis indicates the accumulation of a mass feature
521 that could be assigned to 1-aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylic acid (ACC). This non-protein amino
522 acid is the precursor of ethylene, a phytohormone involved in plant development and stress response
523 processes, which also participates in an intricate crosstalk with other hormones (Vanderstraeten and
524 Van Der Straeten 2017). Recent studies have highlighted the role of ACC as a signaling molecule
525 independently of ethylene, a hormone that can be transported within plants to regulate many processes
526 including plant growth and functionality (Polko and Kieber, 2019). Thus, rice might benefit from the
527 presence of *Azolla* through the stimulation of metabolites involved in phytohormone synthesis or
528 through the direct release of hormones in the medium, as highlighted by the hormonomics analyses
529 reported in the companion paper by Cannavò et al. (2024, Preprint).

530 Among the most abundant lipid-related metabolites stimulated in rice roots by co-cultivation with
531 *Azolla*, we found a mass feature tentatively assigned to crotonic acid ((E)-2-butenoic acid) and

532 another to linoleic acid. Crotonic acid has allelochemical (Jasicka-Misiak et al., 2005) and
533 antimicrobial properties (Fang et al., 2016) and, at high levels, might improve rice competition with
534 weeds and resistance to soil-borne diseases. Linoleic acid, whose levels increased in the roots both
535 after 40 and 60 days of co-cultivation, is a key constituent of cellular membranes, and it is involved
536 in the response to oxidative stress signaling (He and Ding, 2020; Saffaryazdi et al. 2020; Liang et al.
537 2023) and activation of defense genes (Sumayo et al. 2014). In addition, our analysis revealed an
538 enhanced content of carbohydrates in rice roots co-cultivated with Azolla, particularly a molecule we
539 putatively identified as glycolaldehyde. This simplest carbohydrate molecule has been detected in
540 plant tissues (Li et al., 2022b), but its role in affecting plant metabolism is still poorly understood.
541 Nevertheless, recent studies proposed the involvement of glycolaldehyde in the shunt pathway of
542 photorespiration, resulting in the generation of a net gain of reducing power, which favors nitrogen
543 assimilation and cycling within cells (Missihouna and Kotchoni 2018).

544

545 We also showed that co-cultivation with Azolla affects the metabolome of rice leaves, mainly which
546 changes in secondary metabolites and carbohydrates (Table 1). Consistent with our study case, a
547 metabolic reconfiguration was reported in maize leaves treated with biostimulants resulting in
548 differential quantitative profiles of flavonoids and phenolics (Lephatsi et al., 2022). Indeed, our
549 analysis found an increase in flavone glycoside in the leaves of rice plants co-cultivated with Azolla
550 (Fig. 6). Flavonoid glycosides are secondary metabolites that are produced in leaves to cope with
551 abiotic stress conditions, and their biosynthesis is stimulated during plant growth (Groenbaek et al.,
552 2019). Since the flavonoids detected both in the roots and in the culture medium are structurally
553 different from those we found increased in the leaves, it is likely that the accumulation of flavonoids
554 in the leaves represents an inducible response of rice plants to the interaction with Azolla (Table S3).
555 However, we cannot exclude that, following uptake by the roots from the culture medium, some
556 flavonoids are translocated and undergo chemical modifications in the leaves (Buer et al., 2007).
557 Among the flavonoids that increased in leaves of rice co-cultivated with Azolla, we found those
558 identified as lonicerin and luteolin-7-O-rhamnoside, which are known to accumulate in response to
559 salinity (Cai et al., 2020). Moreover, co-cultivation with Azolla induced the accumulation in the rice
560 leaves of a mass-feature assigned to piperonyl aldehyde (piperonal). The biosynthesis of this aromatic
561 aldehyde has been recently described in leaves of black pepper (Jin et al., 2022) and is known to play
562 a role in plant defense against biotic stress (Bakkali et al., 2008). Thus, co-cultivation with Azolla
563 may stimulate the synthesis of a wide array of metabolites in rice leaves, which might improve stress
564 resistance.

565 Our non-targeted metabolomics analysis also detected a mass feature tentatively identified as
566 xylulose-5-phosphate whose levels increased in the leaves of rice co-cultivated with Azolla. This
567 five-carbon sugar is both a product and an intermediate in the pentose phosphate pathway, which is
568 a major source of reducing power for essential non-photosynthetic processes (Kruger et al., 2003).
569 Here, an enhanced amount of xylulose-5-phosphate in rice leaves may be the result of the induced
570 stimulation exerted, directly or indirectly, by Azolla on rice vegetative growth, as discussed in
571 Cannavò et al (2024, Preprint).

572 **Conclusions**

573

574 To date, studies have primarily focused on the role of the *Azolla-Trichormus azollae* association as a
575 nitrogen fertilizer. This study reveals that rice benefits from the co-cultivation with Azolla beyond its
576 well-known growth promotion role as an inorganic nitrogen supplier. Our findings demonstrate that
577 the presence of Azolla impacts the metabolome of both rice roots and leaves independently of the
578 inorganic nitrogen levels in the medium. The modification of the rice metabolome induced by Azolla
579 promotes growth and development within a few weeks from the onset of the co-cultivation, occurring
580 well before the agricultural soil is enriched with inorganic nitrogen derived from Azolla
581 decomposition.

582 Further investigations are required to elucidate the specific roles of the various molecules, such as
583 small peptides and flavonoids, produced and released by Azolla, in promoting the growth (and
584 defense) of neighboring co-cultivated crops. Nevertheless, the current study provides valuable new
585 insights into the beneficial effects of Azolla as a biostimulant to improve rice cultivation in a
586 sustainable and environmentally friendly way.

587

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593

594 **Author contribution**

595 FP, AG, FB: conceptualization; AG, VG, MK: methodology; EC, AG, AS, CP: formal analysis; EC,
596 AC, SC, MC, MCV, LR, AS, CP investigation, FP, AG resources; AG, CP: data curation; FB, AG:
597 writing - original draft; FB, AG, FP, CP, VG, MK review & editing; FB, MK, LR: funding
598 acquisition.

599

600 **Conflict of interest**

601 No conflict of interest declared.

602

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609

610 **Data Availability**

611 The data that support the findings of this study are openly available at the following link:

612 <https://osf.io/b39da/>

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Table 1 – Mass features recorded in rice plants co-cultivated with Azolla compared to those cultivated without Azolla and having significance $p < 0.05$ (see Fig. 4 and Fig. S1).

	Up-regulated				Down-regulated			
	Log ₂ fold change				Log ₂ fold change			
	0 < 1	1 < 3	> 3	Tot	-1 < 0	-1 < - 3	< -3	Tot
Leaves 40 doc								
Protein related	136	43	2	181	71	25	1	97
Lipids	89	26	2	117	58	20	...	78
Secondary metabolites	28	13	4	45	33	18	3	54
Amino sugars	21	9	...	30	9	4	...	13
Carbohydrates	13	2	2	17	10	3	...	13
Nucleotides	2	2	1	5	2	1	...	3
Unknown	132	77	3	212	123	71	1	195
Tot	421	172	14	607	306	142	5	453
Leaves 60 doc								
Protein related	121	36	3	160	122	42	3	167
Lipids	84	23	2	109	65	20	7	92
Secondary metabolites	63	14	...	77	63	7	1	71
Amino sugars	24	9	...	33	30	8	...	38
Carbohydrates	26	8	1	35	20	6	...	26
Nucleotides	1	1	3	1	...	4
Unknown	270	61	1	332	231	80	3	314
Tot	589	151	7	747	534	164	14	712
Roots 40 doc								
Protein related	132	155	19	306	74	89	12	175
Lipids	152	148	4	304	72	45	6	123
Secondary metabolites	42	30	1	73	55	32	6	93
Amino sugars	23	21	2	46	22	16	1	39
Carbohydrates	29	13	2	44	9	6	...	15
Nucleotides	1	1	...	2	3	2	...	5
Unknown	199	223	9	431	177	111	12	300
Tot	578	591	37	1206	412	301	37	750
Roots 60 doc								
Protein related	51	57	4	112	239	250	7	496
Lipids	55	45	1	101	90	87	4	181

Secondary metabolites	40	39	2	<i>81</i>	46	31	5	82
Amino sugars	14	12	...	<i>26</i>	35	27	1	<i>63</i>
Carbohydrates	13	7	1	<i>21</i>	20	21	...	<i>41</i>
Nucleotides	2	<i>2</i>	2	1	...	<i>3</i>
Unknown	120	96	1	<i>217</i>	251	283	7	<i>541</i>
Tot	295	256	9	560	683	700	24	1407

Table 2 – Number of strongly affected metabolites in rice plants when co-cultivated with Azolla compared to those grown without Azolla. The accounted metabolites resulted in highly discriminated (VIP > 2; OPLS-DA) and significantly changed (adjusted p-values < 0.05; Benjamin Hochberg correction) (see Table S5).

	Up-regulated	Down-regulated
Leaves 40 doc		
Protein related	...	2
Lipids
Secondary metabolites	3	2
Amino sugars
Carbohydrates	1	...
Unknown	3	5
<i>Tot</i>	7	9
Leaves 60 doc		
Protein related	2	6
Lipids	5	9
Secondary metabolites	3	2
Amino sugars	2	...
Carbohydrates	2	1
Unknown	6	12
<i>Tot</i>	20	21
Roots 40 doc		
Protein related	45	17
Lipids	36	6
Secondary metabolites	6	8
Amino sugars	1	3
Carbohydrates	4	2
Unknown	48	16
<i>Tot</i>	140	52

Roots 60 doc		
Protein related	17	124
Lipids	21	42
Secondary metabolites	13	19
Amino sugars	4	11
Carbohydrates	3	14
Unknown	42	151
<i>Tot</i>	<i>100</i>	<i>361</i>

Table 3. Transporter and aminotransferase-related DEGs in roots at 15 doc. The high levels of oligopeptides in the aqueous solution containing Azolla and in the roots of rice plants co-cultivated with Azolla were associated with the upregulation of several genes encoding proton-dependent peptide transporters (PTR), and ATP synthase (ATP)-binding cassette (ABC) transporters, as well as downregulation of genes encoding for aminotransferase.

ID	Gene Symbol Synonym(s)	Log2FC	Adj. p-val	Oryzabase Gene Name Synonym(s)
<i>PTR transporters</i>				
Os01g0871600	OsPOT, POT, OsIROPT1, IROPT1	-7.76	1.6E-37	Proton-dependent oligopeptide transporter family protein
Os01g0871500	PTR	-5.41	1.18E-18	Peptide transporter
Os05g0411100	PTR	4.68	2.01E-07	Peptide transporter
Os04g0660900	PTR	5.68	1.05E-05	Peptide transporter
Os10g0554200	<i>NRT1.1B</i> , <i>OsNRT1.1B</i> , <i>OsNPF6.5</i> , <i>NPF6.5</i>	3.05	3.87E-4	Nitrate transporter 1.1B
Os05g0410900	PTR	2.59	7.00E-3	Peptide transporter
<i>ABC transporters</i>				
Os01g0533900	OsABCB2, ABCB2, OsPGP2, OsMDR6, OsABCB2_1, OsABCB2_2	1.75	8.20E-05	(ABC) transporter
Os05g0119000	STAR2	2.13	0.002	(ABC) transporter
Os01g0836600	<i>ATP-binding cassette protein subfamily G member 3</i>	2.61	0.015	ATP-binding cassette (ABC) transporter
Os08g0398300	ABCA4	-1.60	0.041	ABC transporter-like domain containing protein
<i>Aminotransferase</i>				
Os09g0453800	OsIDI4	-4.01	5.61E-17	Aminotransferase
Os02g0306401	NAAT1	-7.29	4.22E-14	Nicotianamine aminotransferase

Caption to figures

Figure 1 – Schematic diagram of the experimental design (a); pictures showing the phenotypic differences of rice plants after 30 days of co-cultivation with- (b) and without-Azolla (c).

Figure 2 - Venn diagrams showing metabolites related mass features up- and -downregulated in the metabolome of (a) leaf (L), and (b) root (R) of rice plants when co-cultivated alone (-AZ) or with Azolla (+AZ); samples were collected after 40 and 60 days of cocultivation (doc). (c) Venn diagram showing metabolites related mass features found in the culture media where Azolla (AZ), rice plants (R) and rice plants together with Azolla (R+AZ) were grown, after background correction of the respective culture solution (Watanabe for Azolla, Yoshida for rice cultivated alone or with Azolla).

Figure 3 - Score plots of orthogonal partial least square regression discriminant analyses (OPLS-DA) showing the variance of metabolites related mass features in (a) rice leaves and (b) rice roots of plants co-cultivated with Azolla (green colour; +AZ), and without Azolla (grey colour; -AZ). Samples collected at 40 days of cocultivation (doc) are depicted with circles, and at 60 doc with triangles. (c) Score plot of OPLS-DA of culture media where rice plants were cultivated with Azolla (R+AZ), without Azolla (R), and Azolla without rice plants (AZ). The explained degree of variance of each component is given in parentheses. All OPLS-DA models were statistically significant: (a) p-value = 0.0025; (b) p-value = 0.0011; (c) p-value = 0.0004.

Figure 4 - Van Krevelen diagrams of (a, c) leaf material (L) at (a) 40 and (c) 60 days; (b, d) root material (R) at (b) 40 and (d) 60 days showing significant (in colour) upregulated metabolites in presence of Azolla. According to assigned chemical formulas, the Van Krevelen diagram combined with MSCC classifies the formula-annotated mass features and assigns them to matched groups. OPLS-DA, (VIP > 1.0). In grey, not significant mass features (p<0.05, 2-way ANOVA, Benjamini-Hockberg corrected). The size of the dots reflects the log fold-change ratios between treatment (+AZ) and control (-AZ).

Figure 5 - Molecular networking (MN) showing the upregulation of small peptides in roots of rice co-cultivated for 40 days with Azolla. In the network, nodes (circles) are metabolites connected via edges (nodes) based on the similarity of their mass fragmentation. The pies depict the proportion of the metabolite abundances found in rice plants co-cultivated with- (+AZ, in red) or without- (-AZ, in grey) Azolla. The blue nodes and their respective protonated ionized masses ($[M+H]^+$) indicate mass

features annotated as dipeptides; grey nodes are unannotated mass features related to small peptides. The node sizes are the precursor intensities. MN was computed with the LC-MS data measured in HILIC(+).

Figure 6 - Molecular networking (MN) showing the upregulation of the flavonoid metabolism in leaves of rice co-cultivated for 40 days with Azolla. In the network, nodes (circles) are metabolites connected via edges (nodes) based on the similarity of their mass fragmentation. The pies depict the proportion of the metabolite abundances found in rice plants cultivated with- (+AZ, in red) or without- (-AZ, in grey) Azolla. The blue nodes and their respective deprotonated ionized masses ($[M-H]^-$) indicate mass features annotated as flavone glycosides; grey nodes are unannotated mass features related to flavonoid metabolisms. The node sizes are the precursor intensities. MN was computed with the LC-MS data measured in RP(-).

Figure 7 - Molecular networking (MN) showing the presence of (a) small peptides (di- and tripeptides) and (b) flavonoids in the culture media of rice co-cultivated for 15 days with Azolla and compared to the medium of plants growth without Azolla. In the network, nodes (circles) are metabolites connected via edges (nodes) based on the similarity of their mass fragmentation. The pies depict the proportion of the metabolite abundances found in the medium in which rice was cultivated with- (R+AZ, in red) or without (R-AZ, in grey) Azolla. The blue nodes and their respective protonated ionized masses ($[M+H]^+$ in (A) and $[M-H]^-$ in (B)) indicate mass features annotated as small peptides; grey nodes are unannotated mass features related to small peptides. The node sizes are the precursor intensities. MN was computed with the LC-MS data measured in HILIC(+) (A), and RP(-) (B).

Supplementary data

Figure S1 - Van Krevelen diagrams of (a, c) leaf material (L) at (a) 40 and (c) 60 days; (b, d) root material (R) at (b) 40 and (d) 60 days showing significant (in colour) downregulated metabolites in presence of Azolla. According to assigned chemical formulas, the Van Krevelen diagram combined with MSCC classifies the formula-annotated mass features and assigns them to matched groups. OPLS-DA, PLS-DA (VIP > 1.0). In grey, not significant mass features ($p < 0.05$, 2-way ANOVA, Benjamini-Hockberg corrected). The size of the dots reflects the log fold-change ratios between treatment (+AZ) and control (-AZ).

Table S1 - List of the macro- and micro-nutrients in the Yoshida solution.

Table S2 - List of the macro- and micro-nutrients in the Watanabe solution.

Table S3 - List of the internal standard mixture used for data normalization.

Table S4 - Metaboscape 4.0 parameters used for processing LC-MS/MS data.

Table S5 - Dataset of non-targeted metabolomics analysis.

Table S6 - Mass features related to lipids shared in roots of rice grown with- and without Azolla.

Table S7 - Lipid-related differentially expressed genes (DEGs) in rice roots sampled 15 days since the beginning of co-cultivation with Azolla. The roots of rice plants co-cultivated with Azolla affected the expression of genes involved in fatty acid metabolisms, glycerol-3-phosphate acyltransferases (GPATs), flavin adenine dinucleotide (FAD) coenzymes, and lipid transfer proteins (LTPs).

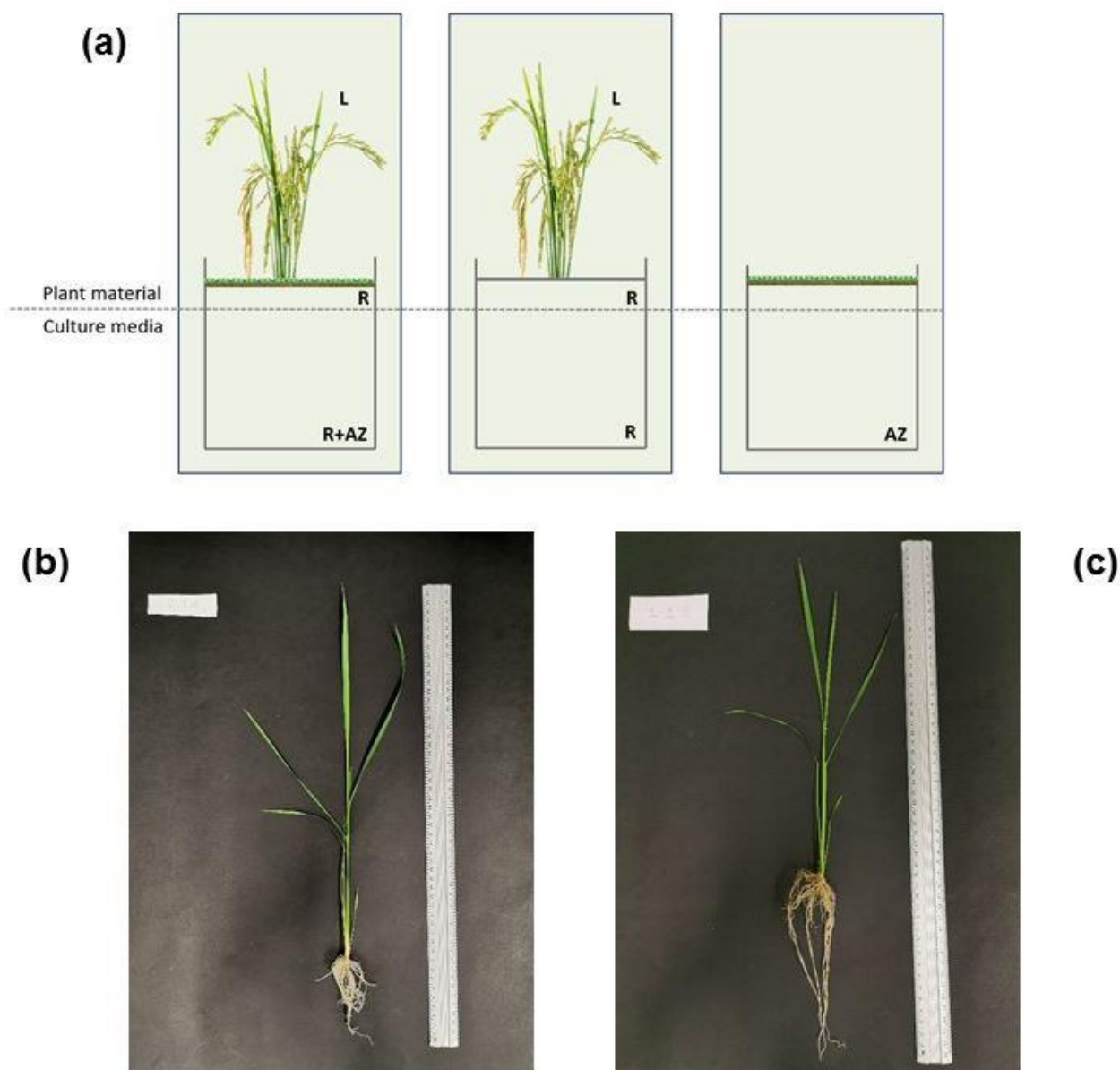


Figure 1

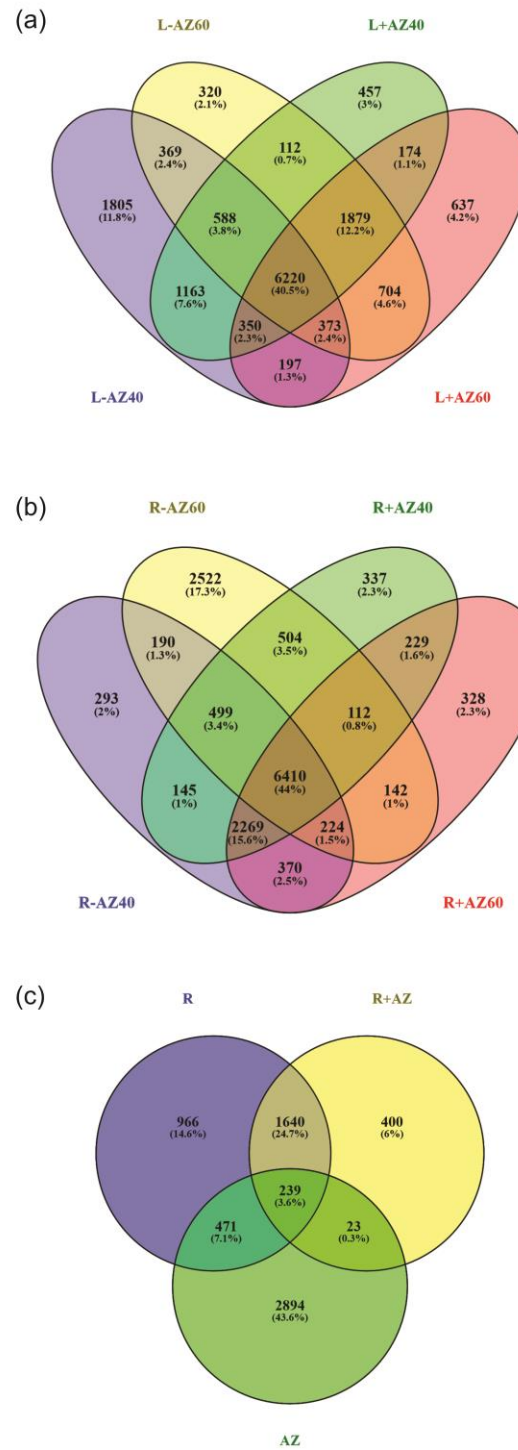


Figure 2

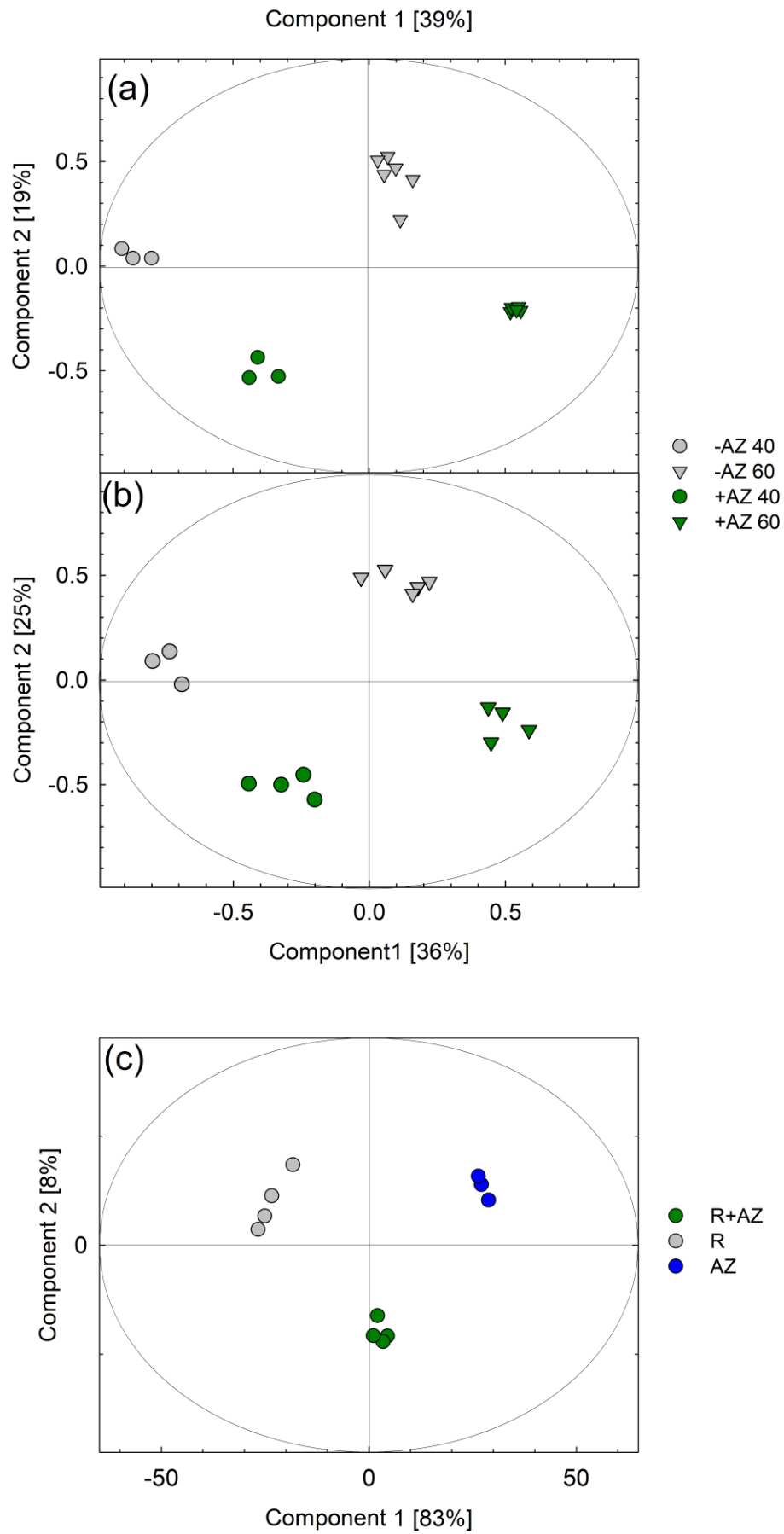


Figure 3

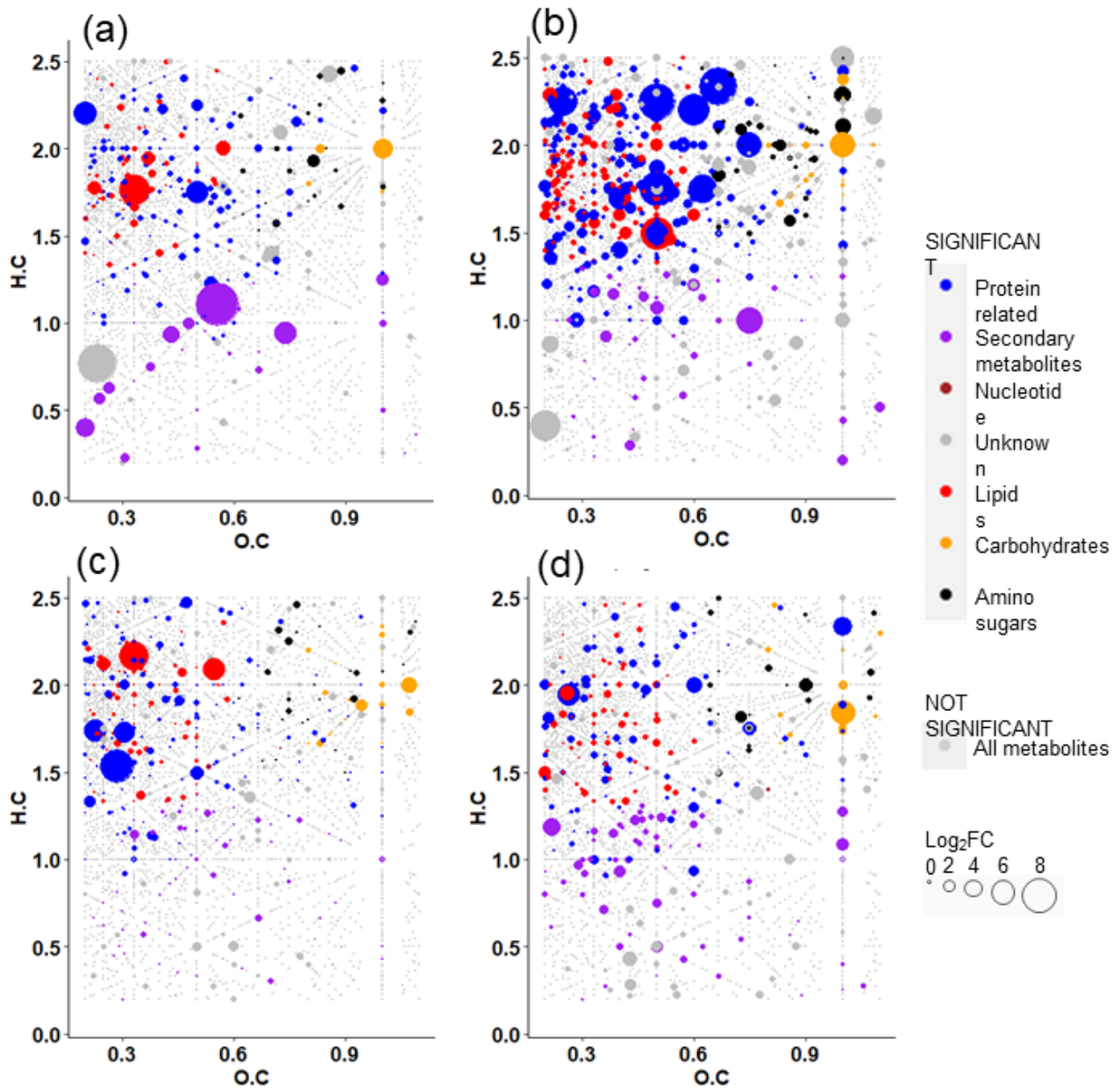


Figure 4

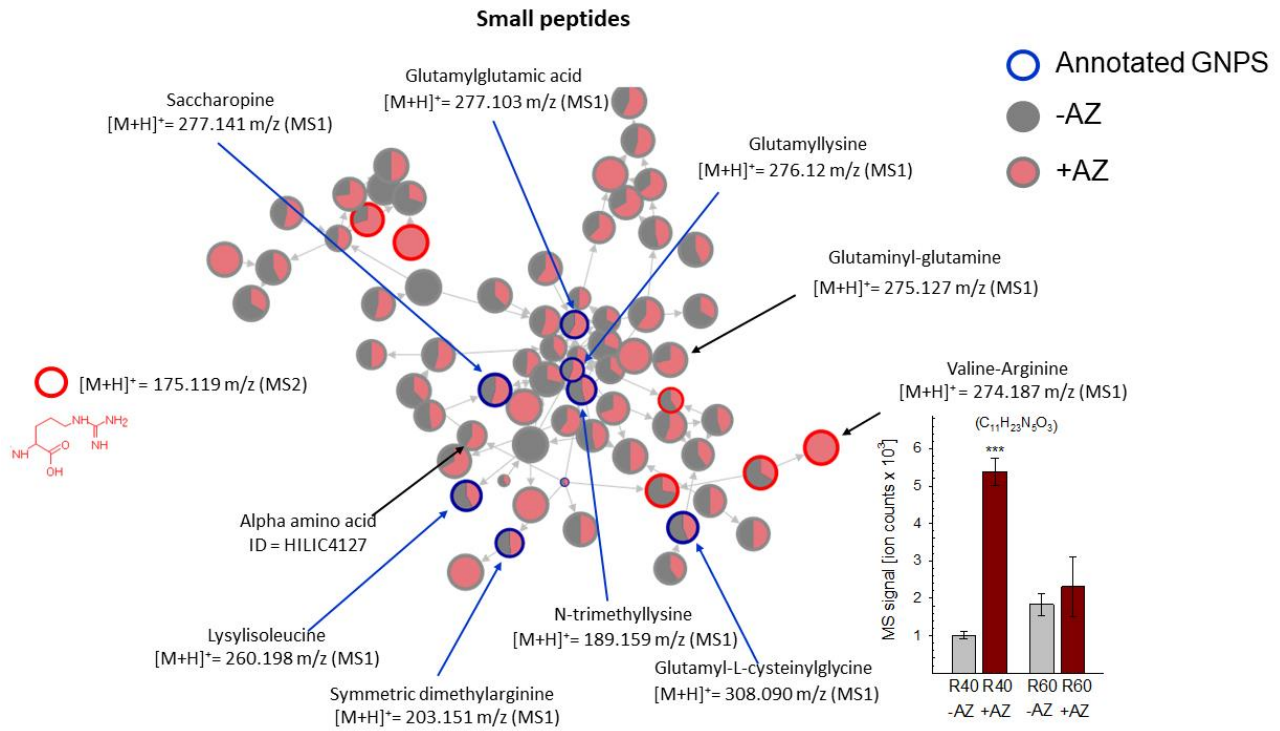


Figure 5

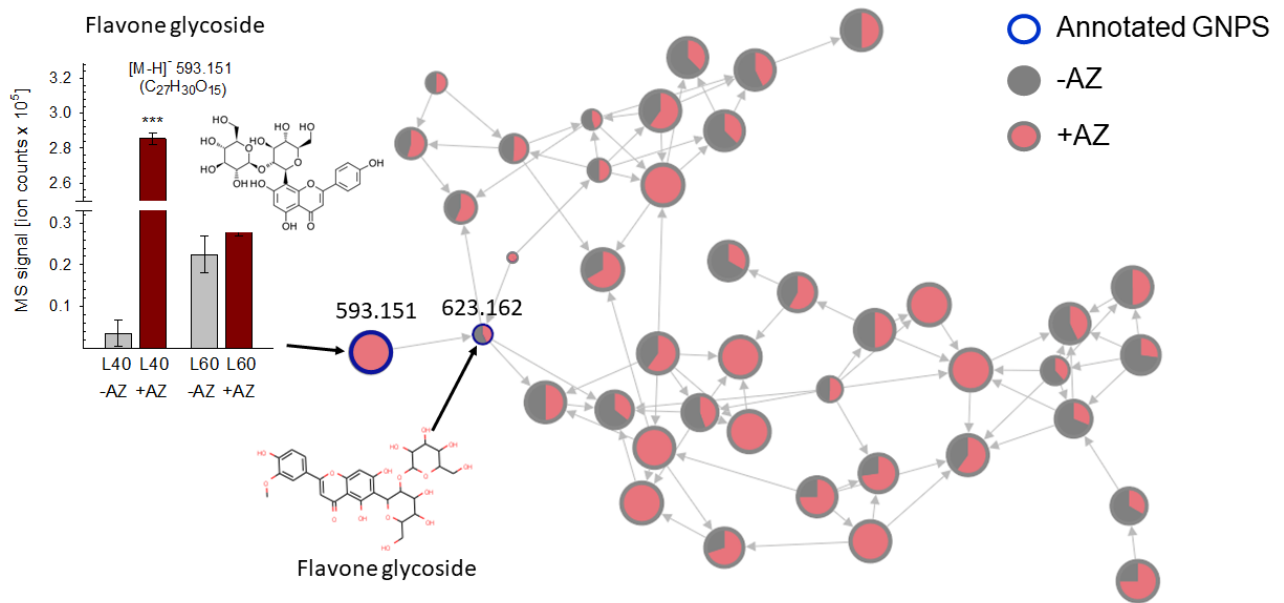
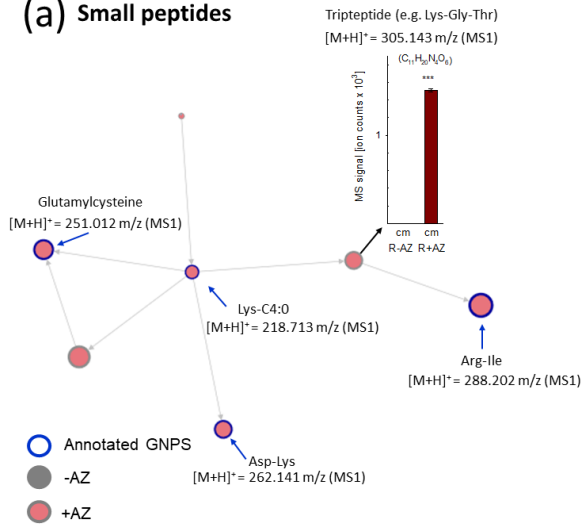


Figure 6

(a) Small peptides



(b) Flavonoids

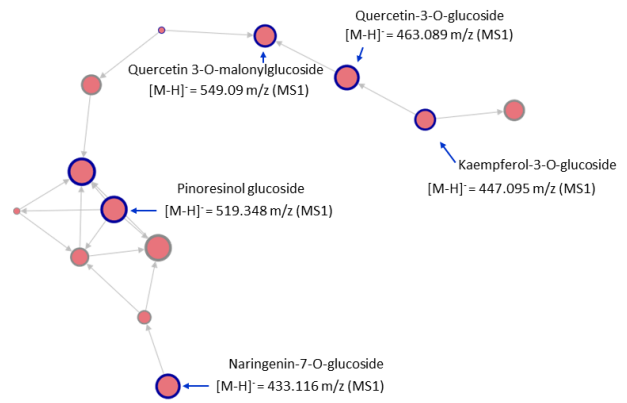


Figure 7