Generation of Reactive Oxygen Species via NOXa Is Important for Development and Pathogenicity of Mycosphaerella graminicola

Yoon-E Choi¹, Changsu Lee² and Stephen B. Goodwin^{3,*}

¹Division of Environmental Science & Ecological Engineering, Korea University, Seoul 02841, Korea ²Department of Bioprocess Engineering, Chonbuk National University, Jeonju 54896, Korea ³USDA-Agricultural Research Service, 915 West State Street, Department of Botany and Plant Pathology, Purdue University, West Lafayette, IN 47907-2054, USA

Abstract The ascomycete fungus *Mycosphaerella graminicola* (synonym *Zymoseptoria tritici*) is an important pathogen of wheat causing economically significant losses. The primary nutritional mode of this fungus is thought to be hemibiotrophic. This pathogenic lifestyle is associated with an early biotrophic stage of nutrient uptake followed by a necrotrophic stage aided possibly by production of a toxin or reactive oxygen species (ROS). In many other fungi, the genes *CREA* and *AREA* are important during the biotrophic stage of infection, while the *NOXa* gene product is important during necrotrophic growth. To test the hypothesis that these genes are important for pathogenicity of *M. graminicola*, we employed an over-expression strategy for the selected target genes *CREA*, *AREA*, and *NOXa*, which might function as regulators of nutrient acquisition or ROS generation. Increased expressions of *CREA*, *AREA*, and *NOXa* in *M. graminicola* were confirmed via quantitative real-time PCR and strains were subsequently assayed for pathogenicity. Among them, the *NOXa* over-expression strain, NO2, resulted in significantly increased virulence. Moreover, instead of the usual filamentous growth, we observed a predominance of yeast-like growth of NO2 which was correlated with ROS production. Our data indicate that ROS generation via *NOXa* is important to pathogenicity as well as development in *M. graminicola*.

Keywords AREA, CREA, Development, Mycosphaerella graminicola, NADPH oxidase, NOXa, Over-expression, Pathogenicity, ROS, Septoria tritici blotch, Zymoseptoria tritici

Mycosphaerella graminicola (anamorph: *Septoria tritici*; synonym: *Zymoseptoria tritici*) is one of the most important foliar fungal pathogens of wheat, causing a destructive disease known as septoria tritici blotch (STB). STB is prevalent worldwide wherever wheat is grown and is particularly severe in areas with wet and cold climates. Infection by STB can cause yield losses of up to 30~50% annually [1]. These losses are significantly increased in areas where

Mycobiology 2016 March, **44**(1): 38-47 http://dx.doi.org/10.5941/MYCO.2016.44.1.38 pISSN 1229-8093 • eISSN 2092-9323 © The Korean Society of Mycology ***Corresponding author**

E-mail: Steve.Goodwin@ARS.USDA.gov

Received November 12, 2015 Revised January 12, 2016 Accepted January 17, 2016

©This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution Non-Commercial License (http:// creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/3.0/) which permits unrestricted non-commercial use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

environmental conditions are favorable to *M. graminicola* growth which includes many regions in the United States. Therefore, *M. graminicola* is considered to be one of the most important diseases affecting wheat production causing significant economic impacts [2, 3].

Efficient strategies to control STB have not been developed completely. So far, strategies to manage STB are based on the development of resistant cultivars and fungicide applications [4]. However, both of these strategies have limitations due to rapid changes in fungicide resistance [5] and pathogenicity [6] in rapidly recombining *M. graminicola* populations and by restrictions on fungicide use due to environmental concerns. A better understanding of *M. graminicola* biology will facilitate development of improved management strategies for STB.

Mycosphaerella graminicola is a plant-pathogenic ascomycete with a hemibiotrophic lifestyle consisting of an early, biotrophic phase followed by a late, necrotrophic stage. Early infection by *M. graminicola* is characterized by symptomless intercellular growth for 8~10 days. During this period, most of the total fungal biomass accumulates in the wheat mesophyll tissue [7], and the strategy of survival of *M. graminicola* largely employs a biotrophic mode of nutrient

uptake. This biotrophic phase is followed by rapid collapse of wheat tissue during the late stage of infection, particularly for compatible interactions, resulting in clear necrosis of the wheat leaf [7]. For these reasons, many scientists have speculated that there might be involvement of fungaloriginated toxic compounds or possible reactive oxygen species (ROS) in the late, necrotrophic stage of infection by *M. graminicola* [8].

Additional analyses of M. graminicola biology, specifically gaining a better understanding of the mechanisms of its biotrophic and necrotrophic growth, are of vital importance to developing enduring modes of host resistance to this important fungal pathogen. However, so far, little is known about the mechanisms of biotrophic and necrotrophic growth of M. graminicola. It is well accepted that carbon and nitrogen are major nutrient resources for most living species, including filamentous fungi. In many fungi, the CREA and AREA genes, encoding elements for catabolite repression and nitrogen metabolite repression, respectively, are major regulators of nutrient uptake signaling, which may have a pivotal role during the biotrophic stage of growth [9, 10]. In contrast, ROS are among the important determinants of the necrotrophic stage of fungal infection [11]. Fungal ROS production is catalyzed by NADPH oxidase (encoded by NOXa), which functions by transferring electrons from NADPH to oxygen molecules.

In an effort to better understand the biotrophic virulence strategies of *M. graminicola*, we over-expressed genes homologous to *CREA* and *AREA* in the fungus and assayed for altered pathogenicity. To understand the necrotrophic stage, we then over-expressed a homolog of *NOXa* in *M. graminicola* to elucidate the possible functional roles of *NOXa* during infection. Here, we describe our results of the over-expression analysis of *CREA*, *AREA*, and *NOXa* in *M. graminicola*.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Fungal strains and culture media. Highly virulent M. graminicola strain IPO323 was used as wild type throughout this study and was the subject of gene over-expression experiments. All of the strains used or generated in this study were stored at -80°C after desiccation on strips of Whatman filter paper (Whatman Inc., Piscataway, NJ, USA) overnight in a lyophilizer. Cultures grown in YSB medium (10 g each of sucrose and yeast extract [Difco Laboratories, Detroit, MI, USA] per liter of distilled water) were used for genomic DNA extraction or Agrobacterium tumefaciensmediated transformation (ATMT). For characterization of over-expression strains, we used various media: YSB; YSA (YSB with 15 g of agar per liter); PDA (4% potato dextrose agar; Difco Laboratories); and water agar (15 g of agar per liter) supplemented with or without 200 mM glucose or 200 mM ammonium sulfate.

Nucleic acid isolation and manipulation. All plasmid DNA was purified with the QIAprep Spin Miniprep Kit (Qiagen, Valencia, CA, USA). All primers used for PCR are listed in Table 1. Ribosomal protein 27 (RP27) is a strong constitutive promoter that significantly increases expression in other fungal species [12, 13]. The RP27 promoter for filamentous fungi was obtained from the rice blast fungus, *Magnaporthe oryzae*, and previous analyses successfully demonstrated its effectiveness for gene expression [13]. For preparation of over-expression constructs, we first amplified the RP27 promoter using RP27-F1 & R1 primers and cloned

Table 1. Primers used to generate and analyze over-expression strains for the genes AREA, CREA, and NOXa in the wheat pathogen Mycosphaerella gramincola

No.	Name	Primer sequence (5'-3')
1	RP27-F1	CAAGGCGATTAAGTTaagcttGGGTAACG
2	RP27-R1	CTTGCTCACCCTCctgcagGAGTGAT
3	CREA-F1	CATGCTCTCTCAGgaattcCTGTTGAACC
4	CREA-R1	CGTCTCGTCCATCTAggtaccTAGCGCTAG
5	AREA-F1	CAGAGTACATCCGTCggtaccCGTGTGAG
6	AREA-R1	GTGTTCTCCAGAACGgaattcACTACATTCG
7	NOXa-F1	CCATCCGATTCAGATctgcagTCTGCTCG
8	NOXa-R1	CAATTGAGAAGTGCGtctagaTTTGGTGTG
9	RP27-che-F1	GAATTGGGTACTCAAATTGGTTAT
10	RP27-che-R1	CATTTTGAAGATTGGGTTCCTAC
11	CREA-rt-F1	ACAACAGACGCCACCACAACAC
12	CREA-rt-R1	GACGATACGATCCGTTCCCTTGC
13	AREA-rt-F1	GGCTGGAGAATCTGTCGTGGAGG
14	AREA-rt-R1	GCATTGCGATACCACTGGGAACA
15	NOXa-rt-F1	GACAGGCATCGGCGTAACACCAT
16	NOXa-rt-R1	ACTTTGCGCTTCCAGGCTTGAGA
17	Tub1-rt-F1	CAGACAACTTCGTGTTCGGTCAATC
18	Tub1-rt-R1	GGGAACTCCTCACGGATCTTGCT

Restriction enzyme sites introduced into the primers for cloning purposes are indicated by italics.

40 Choi *et al.*



Fig. 1. Constructs for over-expression of the *CREA*, *AREA*, and *NOXa* genes in *Mycosphaerella graminicola* and PCR confirmation. A, Schematic drawing of the *CREA*, *AREA*, and *NOXa* over-expression constructs. The strong constitutive promoter RP27 was cloned into vector pBHT2 for *Agrobacterium tumefaciens*-mediated transformation [14] and subsequently used for making further individual gene over-expression constructs. Entire open reading frames of the *CREA*, *AREA*, and *NOXa* genes were amplified by PCR and cloned downstream of the RP27 promoter using the indicated restriction enzyme sites; B, PCR confirmation of fungal isolates integrating *CREA*, *AREA*, and *NOXa* over-expression constructs with the primers (1 and 2) described in Fig. 1A. WT, wild type; CR1, putative *CREA* over-expression strain; AR1, putative *AREA* over-expression strain; NO2, putative *NOXa* over-expression strain. The numbers on the left indicate the primer combinations used for PCR amplification. These amplification products are approximately 0.5 kb in size.

the product into the HindIII and PstI sites of the ATMT vector, pBHT2 [14]. The resultant construct was designated as pOE01 (Fig. 1). Next, we produced individual PCR amplicons of the CREA, AREA, and NOXa genes by using primer pairs embedded with restriction enzyme sites for cloning purposes. All PCR procedures were performed with AccuSure DNA Polymerase (Bioline, Taunton, MA, USA), which has proof-reading activity. Primer pairs CREA-F1 & R1, AREA-F1 & R1, and NOXa-F1 & R1 were used to amplify approximately 1.5-, 3.0-, and 1.7-kb fragments of the CREA, AREA, and NOXa genes from M. graminicola genomic DNA, respectively. Recognition sites of restriction enzymes EcoRI and KpnI were used for cloning the CREA and AREA amplicons into vector pOE01. The NOXa amplicon was cloned into the pOE01 vector with the PstI and XbaI enzyme sites (Fig. 1A). The created vectors, designated as pOCR1, pOAR1, and pONO1, were individually transformed into competent cells of Agrobacterium by electroporation for further use in ATMT.

Agrobacterium tumefaciens-mediated transformation

(ATMT). Agrobacterium strains containing the overexpression vectors pOCR1, pOAR1, and pONO1, were used for transformation. Recipient cells of *M. graminicola* for gene over-expression were grown in YSB at 18°C for 2 wk in an orbital incubator shaker. ATMT was carried out using fungal spores adjusted to 1×10^7 /mL by following the protocol described previously [15]. PDA containing 100 µg/ mL of hygromycin and 200 µg/mL cefatoxime was used for the selective medium. After $2\sim3$ wk, hygromycin-resistant colonies appeared on the selective medium, and isolated colonies were sub-cultured on fresh plates of selective medium to verify incorporation of over-expression construct (OCR1, OAR1, or ONO1) into the *M. graminicola* genome.

Quantitative real-time PCR (qRT-PCR). Total RNA was isolated with the Trizol reagent (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) from 2-wk-old fungal cells grown in YSB according to the manufacturer's instructions and subsequently used for cDNA synthesis with the iScript cDNA synthesis kit (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA, USA). All primers used for qRT-PCR analyses are listed in Table 1. All qRT-PCR reactions were performed in a 7900HT fast real time PCR System with RQ Manager ver. 1.2 software (Applied Biosystems, Carlsbad, CA, USA). Each cDNA sample was adjusted to 200 ng/mL before mixing with the SYBR Green PCR Master Mix (Applied Biosystems). qRT-PCR reactions consisted of 2 min at 5°C and 10 min at 95°C for activation, followed by 40 cycles of 15 sec at 95°C and 1 min at 60°C. Primer pairs CREA-rt-F1 & R1, AREA-rt-F1 & R1, and NOXa-rt-F1 & R1 were used to test levels of CREA, AREA, and NOXa gene expression, respectively. The M. graminicola β-tubulinhomologous gene, TUB1 (located on M. graminicola chromosome 1, at the sequence from bases 5,604,084 to 5,605,941) was used as the internal control for normalization. To quantify TUB1 expression levels, we used the Tub1-rt-F1 & R1 primer pair. Gene expression was calibrated by the $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$ method [16]. The range of expression was calibrated

using $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct+s} - 2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct+s}$ where s is the standard deviation of the DCt value (Ct = threshold cycle). At least four biological replicates were used to assay the expression of each gene.

Nitroblue tetrazolium (NBT) staining and microscopy.

Microscopic observations were made with an Olympus BX41 microscope (Olympus America Inc., Melville, NY, USA) equipped with DP controller software and a DP70 camera. The NBT staining method was employed to detect and measure the amount of ROS produced according to protocols described previously [17, 18]. Cultures grown in YSB for 7 days were centrifuged and re-suspended in 0.2% NBT. After incubation for 12 hr, cells were centrifuged and re-suspended in 10 mL of 50% glacial acetic acid. The stained samples were examined under the microscope. For quantification, we used a sonicator to lyse the stained cells and measured absorbance at 560 nm.

Virulence assays. The susceptible wheat line, Taichung 29, was infected by stem inoculation. Briefly, we grew Taichung 29 in a greenhouse facility until the wheat seedlings reached the 3- to 5-leaf stage. Fungal inocula were prepared from 2-wk-old cultures of *M. graminicola* grown in YSB at room temperature in an orbital shaker adjusted to 120 rpm. Wheat stems were punctured with a sterile needle and 3×10^7 spores of each strain were inoculated into the wound. Subsequently, the inoculated wheat was incubated under a 12 hr light/12 hr dark cycle. After 21 days, when unmistakable STB disease symptoms of clear black pycnidia appeared, we analyzed the extent of the infections. All assays were repeated at least three times.

RESULTS

Identification of CREA, AREA, and NOXa homologs for over-expression analysis. We searched for homologs of the CREA, AREA, and NOXa genes in M. graminicola using the genomic database (http://genome.jgi-psf.org/ Mycgr3/Mycgr3.home.html). Aspergillus nidulans CREA (GenBank No. L03563), Fusarium graminearum AREA (GenBank No. FG08634.1), and Magnaporthe oryzae NOX1 (GenBank No. MGG_00750) were used to search for homologous sequences in the M. graminicola genome. Open reading frames with the highest similarity were selected, and sequences were retrieved for further study. The putative CREA gene was located on M. graminicola chromosome 5, specifically at the sequence from bases 1,654,417 to 1,655,956. A putative AREA homolog was found also on chromosome 5, from bases 644,375 to 647,228, and the putative NOXa homolog was on chromosome 1, at the sequence from bases 1,949,198 to 1,950,919. The NOXa homolog in M. graminicola contains a well-conserved FAD-binding domain from 832 to 1,149 nt from its start codon (E value = 1.15e-17). We designated the identified genes in M. graminicola as CREA, AREA, and NOXa.

In silico analyses of the identified sequences revealed

that the proteins encoded by *CREA*, *AREA*, and *NOXa* had significant similarities to various proteins involved respectively in catabolite repression, nitrogen metabolite repression, or functioning as NADPH oxidases across different fungal species. Specifically, *M. graminicola* CreA was highly similar to the *Cochliobolus carbonum* CreA protein, a probable carbon catabolite repressor (E value = 4e-62). BLAST searches also revealed that the *M. graminicola* AreA and NoxA proteins were highly similar to the GATA transcriptional activator AreA in *Aspergillus fumigatus* (E value = 1e-111) and NADPH oxidase isoform 1 in *Magnaporthe oryzae* (E value = 0.0), respectively. Based on these similarities, the identified *CREA*, *AREA*, and *NOXa* genes in *M. graminicola* were used for over-expression analyses throughout this study.

M. graminicola strains over-expressing CREA, AREA, and NOXa were confirmed. Over-expression constructs (OCR1, OAR1, and ONO1) were individually integrated into the M. graminicola genome by ATMT. Initially, we identified CREA, AREA, and NOXa over-expression strains by isolating hygromycin-resistant transformants that were subsequently confirmed by PCR with primers RP27-che-F1 & R1 located within the RP27 promoter (Table 1, Fig. 1). In this study, the RP27 promoter was incorporated into all three over-expression constructs, driving the constitutive expression of CREA, AREA, and NOXa in transformed strains. Therefore, 0.5-kb bands originating from RP27 sequences could be generated from strains with integration of the over-expression constructs, whereas wild-type DNA did not result in any detectable PCR amplicons (Fig. 1B). We isolated more than 10 putative over-expression transformants for each targeted gene and these were subject to further verification of gene-expression levels. We employed gRT-PCR to test whether expression of the CREA, AREA, and NOXa genes increased in each of the putative over-expression transformants. Based on expression analysis, we selected over-expression transformants of CREA, AREA, and NOXa, designated as CR1 (CREA over-expression strain), AR1 (AREA over-expression strain), and NO2 (NOXa overexpression strain). Notably, the CR1, AR1, and NO2 strains showed greater than 3- to 5-fold transcriptional upregulation of each respective gene as compared to wild type (Fig. 2). We concluded that CR1, AR1, and NO2 are over-expression strains of the CREA, AREA, and NOXa genes, respectively, and they were phenotypically characterized further.

CR1 and AR1 are sensitive to nutrients and NO2 displays a yeast-like morphology. To test whether the over-expression events in CR1, AR1, and NO2 affect morphology as compared to the wild-type progenitor, we analyzed their growth patterns on various media (Fig. 3A). On both PDA and YSA media, CR1 showed increased invasive growth compared to wild type, whereas the growth of AR1 was significantly repressed on YSA (Fig. 3B). Exogenous carbon or nitrogen components in YSA or PDA may explain the observed radial growth rates of CR1



Fig. 2. Expression of the *CREA*, *AREA*, and *NOXa* genes in *Mycosphaerella graminicola* wild-type and putative overexpression strains. The transcription levels of the *CREA*, *AREA*, and *NOXa* genes were evaluated using the $2^{-\Delta ACT}$ method with the *M. graminicola* β -tubulin gene as an endogenous control. Data represent the fold differences in gene expression. Three biological replications were performed to obtain standard deviations. A, B, and C indicate expression levels of the *CREA*, *AREA*, and *NOXa* genes between the wild-type and over-expression strains, CR1, AR1, and NO2, respectively.

and AR1. Therefore, we further tested the possibility of nutrient effects of carbon or nitrogen alone on the growth of CR1 and AR1 by incubating them on water agar supplemented with 200 mM glucose, 200 mM ammonium sulfate, or both. In response to carbon nutrients, AR1 displayed the opposite alterations in growth patterns as compared to wild type. CR1 showed the same pattern as wild type but the magnitude of the growth stimulation caused by glucose was much higher. Radial growth of *M. graminicola* was enhanced in the presence of exogenous carbon but was suppressed by nitrogen (Fig. 3C). However, the growth of CR1 was more stimulated, whereas that of AR1 was not



Fig. 3. Morphology and radial growth of Mycosphaerella graminicola strains on agar media. A, Growth on agar plates was tested with the wild type, CREA, AREA, and NOXa overexpression strains (WT, CR1, AR1, and NO2). All strains were grown on PDA or YSA for 10 days at 18°C. Yeast-like growth of strain NO2 on YSA is indicated by the black arrow. Locations of inoculated strains on agar plates are indicated below the photos; B, Radial growth on PDA or YSA was measured as the diameter of colonies between several time points. Growth per day was calculated and presented as a bar graph. Three biological replications were analyzed. Black bars, growth on PDA; white bars, on YSA; C, Radial growth on different carbon or nitrogen sourcesial growth was presented in the same way described in Fig. 3A. All media were based on WA medium with addition of the carbon or nitrogen sources indicated. PDA, potato dextrose agar; YSA, yeast extract agar; WA, water agar; gray bars, growth on WA; white bars, growth on WA with 200 mM glucose; hatched gray bars, growth on WA with 200 mM ammonium sulfate; black bars, growth on WA with 200 mM glucose and ammonium sulfate. The thin lines above the bars in B and C indicate the standard deviations.



Fig. 4. Yeast-like morphology of *Mycosphaerella graminicola NOXa* over-expression strain NO2 and NBT staining analysis. A, Seven-day-old cultures in YSB were photographed under the compound microscope. Yeast-like growth was observed for strain NO2; B, Fungal cells in Fig. 4A were stained with NBT following published protocols and visualized with a compound microscope ($40\times$). The NO2 strain showed dark blue coloration indicating increased ROS generation; C, NBT staining in Fig. 4B was quantified and represented as mean \pm standard deviations in bar graph format. Three biological replications were included to obtain the standard deviations. WT, wild type; CR1, putative *CREA* over-expression strain; AR1, putative *AREA* over-expression strain; NO2, putative *NOXa* over-expression strain; NBT, nitroblue tetrazolium; YSB, yeast extract broth; ROS, reactive oxygen species.

increased with exogenous carbon relative to the other strains (Fig. 3C). Taken together, we concluded that *CREA* overexpression led to increased sensitivity to carbon, whereas the growth of AR1 was independent of exogenous carbon.

M. graminicola has unique morphology with both filamentous and yeast-like growth phases. In the yeast-like growth phase, *M. graminicola* has restricted colonial as well as invasive growth. We also observed a yeast-like growth predominance of the NO2 strain, although radial growth rate was not altered. Compared to the wild-type progenitor, the NO2 strain consistently showed more yeast-like growth on PDA as well as YSA (Fig. 3A). In addition, yeast-like growth became more evident as exogenous concentrations of supplemented H_2O_2 were increased (data not shown).

The NO2 strain developed yeast-like morphology in YSB, which correlates with ROS production. We attempted to determine whether the yeast-like morphology of the NO2 strain could be explained by increased *in vivo* generation of ROS in M. graminicola. To do so, we first grew the wild-type, CR1, AR1, and NO2 strains in liquid medium (YSB) and tested whether the yeast-like morphology of NO2 was consistent on agar as well as in liquid media. Again, we observed the increased yeast-like growth in NO2, compared to the other strains (Fig. 4A). Next, we stained with NBT to detect and quantify ROS generation from each of the strains in vivo. We followed the NBT staining protocol specifically designed to detect ROS [17, 18]. Once superoxide radicals react with NBT, they form a dark-blue, water-insoluble precipitate. No significant differences were observed in NBT-stained hyphae among the wild type, CR1, and AR1 strains, while strong blue precipitate formation was observed in the NO2 strain (Fig. 4B). Quantification demonstrated that NO2 had around a 4-fold increase in NBT staining as compared to the other strains (Fig. 4C). The level of NBT staining is a well known indicator of the extent of ROS generation in cells, thus indicating a significant correlation between the yeast-like

44 Choi et al.



Fig. 5. The effect of over-expression of the *CREA*, *AREA*, and *NOXa* genes on pathogenicity of *Mycosphaerella graminicola*. Sheaths of the susceptible wheat cultivar, Taichung 29, were punctured with a sterile needle and infected with 3×10^7 spores of wild type (WT) or one of the over-expression strains, putative *CREA* over-expression strain (CR1), putative *AREA* over-expression strain (AR1), or putative *NOXa* over-expression strain (NO2). Inoculated wheat plants were incubated in a greenhouse for 21 days. The stem infection assays were performed with at least three biological replications for each fungal isolate.

morphology and ROS levels in NO2 (Fig. 4). Consequently, we conclude that increased ROS generation via *NOXa* may be responsible for yeast-like morphology in *M. graminicola*.

NOXa over-expression significantly increases pathogenicity. To determine the effect of CREA, AREA, and NOXa over-expression on virulence of M. graminicola, infection assays was performed on the highly susceptible wheat cultivar Taichung 29. Wheat seedlings at the 3~5 leaf stage were inoculated with 10^7 spores of the wild-type, CR1, AR1, and NO2 strains. After inoculation, plants were incubated until STB disease symptoms appeared, such as pycnidia formation indicated by black spots within tan lesions. We obtained consistent results that STB caused by NO2 was increased significantly compared to that caused by the wild-type, CR1, and AR1 strains (Fig. 5). We consistently observed that NO2 was capable of causing significantly greater symptoms than those caused by the other strains (data not shown). We initially hypothesized that the CREA and AREA over-expression strains might be more aggressive in the early stage of STB, whereas over-expression of NOXa may cause sudden disease development during the late stage of infection. However, we could not find any significant differences between wild type and CR1 or AR1, although NO2 showed consistently increased STB development. Therefore, we concluded that NOXa-mediated ROS generation, but not CREA- and AREA-mediated nutrient acquisition, is important for the development of STB.

DISCUSSION

M. graminicola is one of the most important fungal

pathogens affecting wheat production worldwide. The pathogenic characteristics of M. graminicola suggest that its life cycle consists of an early biotrophic stage and a late necrotrophic stage [7, 8]. During the biotrophic stage of infection, M. graminicola colonizes living wheat host tissue by obtaining nutrients, such as carbon or nitrogen, available in the apoplastic and intercellular-associated spaces [7, 8]. This biotrophic stage is subsequently followed by a necrotrophic phase of infection associated with host cell death, suggesting the involvement of ROS or mycotoxins as a mechanism of virulence [7].

Fungal CreA is a well characterized protein involved in carbon catabolite repression. CreA has a Cys2His2 zincfinger DNA-binding domain which has high similarity to yeast Mig1p and acts as a major regulator in carbon-response signaling [10, 19]. Fungal AreA is a GATA transcriptional activator regulating nitrogen metabolite repression. Many filamentous fungi are able to utilize other nitrogen sources via AREA-mediated gene regulation [9, 20, 21]. Therefore, CREA and AREA encode important fungal proteins that regulate many downstream nutrient-responsive genes. In this regard, we initially hypothesized that CREA and AREA in M. graminicola might have important functional roles during the early stage of STB by affecting nutrient acquisition. In addition, M. graminicola does not form nutrient-absorbing structures such as haustoria, suggesting the importance of putative unknown or CreA- and AreA-mediated signaling in biotrophic nutrient acquisition.

On the other hand, fungal *NOXa* encodes the membranebound enzyme NADPH oxidase, which plays a critical role in the production of ROS by transferring electrons from NADPH to oxygen molecules [22]. Filamentous fungi possess three subfamilies of NADPH oxidases: NoxA, NoxB, and NoxC [23, 24]. Of these, NoxA and NoxB have very similar structures and play major roles in producing ROS, whereas NoxC is not commonly found across fungal taxa and does not have any clear functional roles [25]. Based on this, we selected a NOXa gene encoding the NoxA isoform as a target for over-expression in this study. Clearly, constitutive expression of NOXa led to increased ROS generation, as indicated by NBT staining (Fig. 4C), and we reasoned that NOXa over-expression is sufficient for testing the overall effects of ROS generation on M. graminicola pathogenicity. ROS are well known determinants of the outcomes during plant-fungal interactions. Several lines of evidence have shown that ROS-generated oxidative bursts are essential to plant defense responses as well as fungal pathogenicity [11, 26, 27]. We speculated that ROS generation via NOXa in M. graminicola may be associated with late stages of infection leading to the development of the characteristic necrosis associated with STB.

To understand the putative functional roles of *CREA*, *AREA*, and *NOXa* in the biotrophic or necrotrophic stages of the pathogenicity of *M. graminicola*, we employed overexpression strategies. Because multiple, redundant genes showed high similarity to each of the *CREA*, *AREA*, and *NOXa* genes in the *M. graminicola* genome, we adopted an over-expression strategy instead of time-consuming individual gene knock-outs. Due to the difficulties of loss-of-function genetic mutations or the inefficiency of single-gene deletions of redundant similar genes, we hypothesized that the over-expression strategy instead could provide information to understand the cellular function of the *CREA*, *AREA*, and *NOXa* genes.

Unfortunately, we found no differences in STB severity among the wild-type, CREA and AREA over-expression strains (CR1 and AR1). Previous analysis of Alternaria citri showed that over-expression of CREA resulted in severe symptoms of black rot of citrus fruit [28]. As we could not identify a significant difference in pathogenicity of CR1, we speculate that differences in carbon nutrient composition of different hosts, e.g., fruit juice sacs as compared to wheat leaves, could explain these observations, and that metabolism of carbohydrates is not important for early pathogenicity of M. graminicola as also hypothesized previously [29]. In Colletotrichum lindemuthianum, the AreA-like nitrogen regulator CLNR1 is indispensable for the infection cycle [30], although we could not demonstrate the same association for M. graminicola AREA with pathogenicity. It is possible that over-expression of CREA and AREA could lead to increased virulence of M. graminicola, even though it was not identified in this study. For example, perhaps the effects of CREA- and AREA-mediated nutrient signaling on pathogenicity in the biotrophic phase of M. graminicola occur too early to be detected clearly or led to differences that were too subtle to be observed. Further sophisticated investigations with the aid of more sensitive technologies may be necessary to understand the elusive molecular

mechanisms of the biotrophic phase of pathogenicity by *M. graminicola*.

However, we could see an increased pathogenicity of the NOXa over-expression strain, NO2, compared to those of the other strains. NO2 was consistently more virulent as indicated by enhanced STB symptom development, suggesting that increased ROS generation via NOXa is an important factor for M. graminicola pathogenicity (Fig. 5). In the ergot fungus, Claviceps purpurea, NADPH oxidase Cpnox1 is required for full virulence [26]. In the rice blast pathogen, Magnaporthe grisea, NADPH oxidase Nox1 is responsible for the plant infection process [11]. Consistent with these reports in other filamentous fungi, we observed that NOXa was important for pathogenicity of M. graminicola. Mycosphaerella graminicola is a plant-pathogenic ascomycete with a hemibiotrophic lifestyle consisting of an early, biotrophic phase followed by a late, necrotrophic stage. During the necrotrophic growth, ROS might facilitate rapid collapse of wheat tissue, thereby increasing the severity of STB disease. Thus, we propose that ROS generation via NOXa is an important virulence determinant during the interaction between M. graminicola and its wheat host.

Previous microarray analyses also revealed that many genes related to oxidative stress mechanisms were upregulated during the late stages of STB development supporting ROS involvement in the wheat-*M. graminicola* interaction [7, 31]. In addition, H_2O_2 accumulation in wheat correlates with pycnidium formation and host cell death [32]. Taken together, we conclude that ROS accumulation, regardless of origin, either from wheat or from *M. graminicola*, is fundamental to STB disease development by aiding in necrosis and/or pycnidium formation (Fig. 5).

ROS production mediated by NoxA isoforms in filamentous fungi also has been implicated in important signaling roles during fungal development and differentiation [24, 25]. Consistent with previous reports, we observed a yeast-like growth preference of NO2, indicating a positive functional role(s) of *NOXa* in *M. graminicola* development (Figs. 3A and 4). We also provide evidence that yeast-like growth correlates with ROS production (Fig. 4), suggesting that *in vivo* generation of ROS via *NOXa* or *in vitro* ROS stress conditions can enhance yeast-stage growth of *M. graminicola*. Further serial gene knock-out studies of the *NOXa* and *NOXb* or genes of proteins physically interacting with NoxA will help elucidate ROS signaling associated with *M. graminicola* yeast-like growth.

We also observed that radial growth of *M. graminicola* responds differently to external carbon and nitrogen sources. The presence of readily usable nitrogen suppressed radial growth consistently across all strains tested in this study, indicating a suppressive role of nitrogen on *M. graminicola* radial growth (Fig. 3C). On the other hand, carbon in the absence of nitrogen significantly increased radial growth, and over-expression of *CREA* resulted in carbon sensitivity with increased growth compared to the other strains (Fig. 3C). In yeast, the CreA-homologous protein Mig1 recruits

46 Choi et al.

the repressor proteins Ssn6 and Tup1 to inhibit expression of genes involved in carbon catabolite repression. However, Mig1 alone acts as a transcriptional activator of genes involved in this process [10, 32]. Hence, we assume that M. graminicola CREA over-expression led to increased amounts of the putative catabolite activator, CreA, which could explain our results of increased growth of CR1 with an available carbon source. Surprisingly, however, the radial growth of the AREA over-expression strain, AR1, was unaffected by exogenous carbon (Fig. 3C). We suspect that nitrogen nutritional cues act as radial growth inhibitors. Presumably, over-expression of AREA may lead to reduction in radial growth, due to increased inhibitory nitrogen signaling. In addition, as over-expression of AREA did not show any difference of radial growth in the presence of exogenous nitrogen, we speculate that detour pathway(s) independent of AREA may transduce nitrogen signaling. More studies will be necessary to understand CREA- or AREA-mediated signaling(s) in M. graminicola.

In conclusion, our results indicate that ROS production via *NOXa* in *M. graminicola* is an important signal for yeast-like development and pathogenicity. Additionally, *CREA-* or *AREA*-associated nutrient signaling pathway(s) are not crucial for STB pathogenicity, however they are important regulators of growth responses to extracellular nutrients.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We thank Drs. Larry Dunkle and Kristin Laluk for critical reading of the manuscript. We also thank Dr. Ian Thompson for assistance in the pathogenicity experiment. This work was supported by USDA-ARS CRIS projects 3602-22000-015-00D and 3602-22000-017-00D and by a USDA-ARS Administrator-Funded Postdoctoral position to Y.-E. Choi. This research was also financially supported by the Basic Science Research Program through the National Research Foundation of Korea (NRF) funded by the Ministry of Education (2014R1A1A2055300).

REFERENCES

- Eyal Z, Scharen AL, Prescott JM, Van Ginkel M. The septoria diseases of wheat: concepts and methods of disease management. Mexico, D. F.: CIMMYT; 1987.
- 2. Palmer CL, Skinner W. *Mycosphaerella graminicola*: latent infection, crop devastation and genomics. Mol Plant Pathol 2002;3:63-70.
- Polley RW, Thomas MR. Surveys of diseases of winter wheat in England and Wales, 1976-1988. Ann Appl Biol 1991;119:1-20.
- 4. Zwiers LH, Stergiopoulos I, Van Nistelrooy JG, De Waard MA. ABC transporters and azole susceptibility in laboratory strains of the wheat pathogen *Mycosphaerella graminicola*. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 2002;46:3900-6.
- 5. Cools HJ, Fraaije BA. Are azole fungicides losing ground

against *Septoria* wheat disease? Resistance mechanisms in *Mycosphaerella graminicola*. Pest Manag Sci 2008;64:681-4.

- 6. Cowger C, McDonald BA, Mundt CC. Frequency of sexual reproduction by *Mycosphaerella graminicola* on partially resistant wheat cultivars. Phytopathology 2002;92:1175-81.
- Keon J, Antoniw J, Rudd J, Skinner W, Hargreaves J, Hammond-Kosack K. Analysis of expressed sequence tags from the wheat leaf blotch pathogen *Mycosphaerella graminicola* (anamorph *Septoria tritici*). Fungal Genet Biol 2005;42:376-89.
- Kema GHJ, Yu DZ, Rijkenberg FHJ, Shaw MW, Baayen RP. Histology of the pathogenesis of *Mycosphaerella graminicola* in wheat. Phytopathology 1996;86:777-86.
- Kudla B, Caddick MX, Langdon T, Martinez-Rossi NM, Bennett CF, Sibley S, Davies RW, Arst HN Jr. The regulatory gene *areA* mediating nitrogen metabolite repression in *Aspergillus nidulans*. Mutations affecting specificity of gene activation alter a loop residue of a putative zinc finger. EMBO J 1990;9:1355-64.
- Nehlin JO, Carlberg M, Ronne H. Control of yeast GAL genes by MIG1 repressor: a transcriptional cascade in the glucose response. EMBO J 1991;10:3373-7.
- Egan MJ, Wang ZY, Jones MA, Smirnoff N, Talbot NJ. Generation of reactive oxygen species by fungal NADPH oxidases is required for rice blast disease. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 2007;104:11772-7.
- 12. Bourett TM, Sweigard JA, Czymmek KJ, Carroll A, Howard RJ. Reef coral fluorescent proteins for visualizing fungal pathogens. Fungal Genet Biol 2002;37:211-20.
- Li L, Ding SL, Sharon A, Orbach M, Xu JR. Mir1 is highly upregulated and localized to nuclei during infectious hyphal growth in the rice blast fungus. Mol Plant Microbe Interact 2007;20:448-58.
- Mullins ED, Chen X, Romaine P, Raina R, Geiser DM, Kang S. Agrobacterium-mediated transformation of Fusarium oxysporum: an efficient tool for insertional mutagenesis and gene transfer. Phytopathology 2001;91:173-80.
- Zwiers LH, de Waard MA. Efficient Agrobacterium tumefaciensmediated gene disruption in the phytopathogen Mycosphaerella graminicola. Curr Genet 2001;39:388-93.
- Livak KJ, Schmittgen TD. Analysis of relative gene expression data using real-time quantitative PCR and the 2^{-ΔΔCT} method. Methods 2001;25:402-8.
- Ramel F, Sulmon C, Bogard M, Couée I, Gouesbet G. Differential patterns of reactive oxygen species and antioxidative mechanisms during atrazine injury and sucrose-induced tolerance in *Arabidopsis thaliana* plantlets. BMC Plant Biol 2009;9:28.
- Tanaka A, Christensen MJ, Takemoto D, Park P, Scott B. Reactive oxygen species play a role in regulating a fungusperennial ryegrass mutualistic interaction. Plant Cell 2006; 18:1052-66.
- 19. Bailey C, Arst HN Jr. Carbon catabolite repression in *Aspergillus nidulans*. Eur J Biochem 1975;51:573-7.
- Arst HN Jr, Cove DJ. Nitrogen metabolite repression in Aspergillus nidulans. Mol Gen Genet 1973;126:111-41.
- 21. Wiame JM, Grenson M, Arst HN Jr. Nitrogen catabolite repression in yeasts and filamentous fungi. Adv Microb

Physiol 1985;26:1-88.

- 22. Lambeth JD. NOX enzymes and the biology of reactive oxygen. Nat Rev Immunol 2004;4:181-9.
- 23. Aguirre J, Rios-Momberg M, Hewitt D, Hansberg W. Reactive oxygen species and development in microbial eukaryotes. Trends Microbiol 2005;13:111-8.
- 24. Scott B, Eaton CJ. Role of reactive oxygen species in fungal cellular differentiations. Curr Opin Microbiol 2008;11:488-93.
- Takemoto D, Tanaka A, Scott B. NADPH oxidases in fungi: diverse roles of reactive oxygen species in fungal cellular differentiation. Fungal Genet Biol 2007;44:1065-76.
- Giesbert S, Schürg T, Scheele S, Tudzynski P. The NADPH oxidase Cpnox1 is required for full pathogenicity of the ergot fungus *Claviceps purpurea*. Mol Plant Pathol 2008;9:317-27.
- 27. Tenhaken R, Levine A, Brisson LF, Dixon RA, Lamb C. Function of the oxidative burst in hypersensitive disease resistance. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 1995;92:4158-63.
- 28. Katoh H, Ohtani K, Yamamoto H, Akimitsu K. Over-expression of a gene encoding a catabolite repression element in *Alternaria citri* causes severe symptoms of black rot in citrus fruit.

Phytopathology 2007;97:557-63.

- 29. Goodwin SB, Ben M'Barek SB, Dhillon B, Wittenberg AH, Crane CF, Hane JK, Foster AJ, Van der Lee TA, Grimwood J, Aerts A, et al. Finished genome of the fungal wheat pathogen *Mycosphaerella graminicola* reveals dispensome structure, chromosome plasticity, and stealth pathogenesis. PLoS Genet 2011;7:e1002070.
- Pellier AL, Laugé R, Veneault-Fourrey C, Langin T. CLNR1, the AREA/NIT2-like global nitrogen regulator of the plant fungal pathogen *Colletotrichum lindemuthianum* is required for the infection cycle. Mol Microbiol 2003;48:639-55.
- Keon J, Antoniw J, Carzaniga R, Deller S, Ward JL, Baker JM, Beale MH, Hammond-Kosack K, Rudd JJ. Transcriptional adaptation of *Mycosphaerella graminicola* to programmed cell death (PCD) of its susceptible wheat host. Mol Plant Microbe Interact 2007;20:178-93.
- 32. Shetty NP, Kristensen BK, Newman MA, Møller K, Gregersen PL, Jørgensen HJ. Association of hydrogen peroxide with restriction of *Septoria tritici* in resistant wheat. Physiol Mol Plant Pathol 2003;62:333-46.