***Fusarium verticillioides* peroxins associated with peroxisomal docking/translocation module**

serve important roles in fumonisin biosynthesis and virulence

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Abstract

Peroxisomes are ubiquitous organelles in eukaryotic cells that fulfill a variety of important metabolic functions. In this study, we investigated the role of Docking/Translocation Module (DTM) peroxins, mainly FvPex8, FvPex13, FvPex14, and FvPex33, in *Fusarium verticillioides* virulence and fumonisin B1 (FB1) biosynthesis. Protein interaction experiments suggested that FvPex13 serves as the core subunit of *F. verticillioides* DTM. When we generated gene deletion mutants (ΔFvpex8, ΔFvpex13, ΔFvpex14, ΔFvpex33, ΔFvpex33/14) and examined whether the expression of other peroxin genes were affected in the DTM mutants, ΔFvpex8 strain showed most drastic changes to *PEX* gene expression profiles. When we tested other physiological changes in these mutants, we observed disparity in carbon source utilization, especially sucrose and butyrate, as well as unsaturated fatty acids oleic acid and linoleic acid. Deletion mutants exhibited defect in cell wall integrity when stress agents were applied. The mutants also showed higher levels of lipid droplet accumulation when compared to WT, particularly under nutrient starvation. Notably, ΔFvpex8 mutant showed significant FB1 reduction and altered expression of *FUM1* (polyketide synthase) and *FUM19* (ABC transporter) genes. However, FvPex13 was primarily responsible for virulence when tested on maize stalks, while ΔFvpex33/14 double mutant also showed virulence defect. In summary, our study suggests that FvPex13 is the core component of *F. verticillioides* DTM, regulating peroxisome membrane biogenesis as well as PTS1- and PTS2-mediated transmembrane cargo transportation. However, FvPex8 is predicted to serve as a key component in DTM that affects peroxisome function in β-oxidation and FB1 biosynthesis in *F. verticillioides*.

Keywords: *Fusarium verticillioides*, stalk rot, Docking/Translocation, FvPex8, fumonisin B1

Introduction

Peroxisomes are a family of membrane-bound microbodies found in all major eukaryotes,

with specific metabolic properties showing substantial differences among various species and

tissue types (Alberts *et al.*, 2002, Cooper, 2000). These cellular organelles, including peroxisomes,

glyoxysomes in plants and fungi, glycosomes in trypanosomes, and Woronin bodies in filamentous

fungi, are involved in a variety of important cellular functions, including fatty acid metabolism,

reactive oxygen species detoxification, and secondary metabolite biosynthesis (Saikia & Scott,

2009, Imazaki *et al.*, 2010, Maggio-Hall *et al.*, 2005, Reverberi *et al.*, 2012, Chen *et al.*, 2018).

Dysfunctional peroxisomes have been shown to result in severe and lethal disorders in humans

and mammals (Cho *et al.*, 2018, Dixit *et al.*, 2010, Thoms *et al.*, 2009, You *et al.*, 2015). Plant

glyoxysomes play essential roles in glyoxylate cycle, embryonic development, and gametophytic

function (Hu *et al.*, 2012, Boisson-Dernier *et al.*, 2008). Glycosomes in Trypanosomes perform

important glycolytic reactions (Bauer & Morris, 2017). In filamentous fungi, a specific type of

peroxisome known as Woronin bodies are associated with septal pore maintenance and cellular

integrity (Jedd & Chua, 2000). Recent studies also suggest that peroxisomes play important roles

in development, secondary metabolism, and virulence (Kimura *et al.*, 2001, Wang *et al.*, 2013,

Soundararajan *et al.*, 2004), but underlying genetic mechanisms associated with these fungal-

specific functions still warrant further investigation.

Fusarium verticillioides is a major pathogen of maize, particularly due to ear rot disease

and mycotoxin contamination worldwide (Marin *et al.*, 2013, Wu *et al.*, 2014, Woloshuk & Shim,

2013). It is also known as the pathogen responsible for pokkah boeng in sugarcane, and

approximately 90% of this disease in China is attributed to *F. verticillioides* (Zhang *et al.*, 2015,

Hilton *et al.*, 2017, Lin *et al.*, 2014). Interestingly, Zhang et al (Zhang *et al.*, 2018b) recently

discovered a key peroxisomal matrix protein (FVEG_11334, which is designated as FvPex33 in

this study) and a Woronin body associated protein (FvHex1) interacting with Fsr1, a striatin

homolog that regulates virulence in *F. verticillioides*. However, gene mutagenesis experiment

revealed that FvPex33 and FvHex1 do not directly influence *F. verticillioides* virulence when

tested on maize seedlings. This outcome, along with earlier published studies on the role of

peroxins in fungal virulence and secondary metabolism (Fujihara *et al.*, 2010, Min *et al.*, 2012, Li

et al., 2017) suggested that other peroxisomal matrix proteins may play important roles in *F.*

verticillioides virulence and mycotoxin biosynthesis.

Biogenesis of peroxisomes is dynamically regulated in response to environmental and

developmental cues (Lazarow, 2003, Heiland & Erdmann, 2005). Metabolic tasks and enzyme

content are adjusted according to taxa-specific cellular needs through generation and degradation

(Pieuchot & Jedd, 2012, Nuttall *et al.*, 2011). There are two primary pathways for peroxisome

formation; *de novo* biogenesis and mature peroxisomes fission. The *de novo* synthesis of

peroxisomes has two steps; formation of the peroxisomal membrane and subsequent sorting of

peroxisomal matrix proteins to the organelle (Opalinski *et al.*, 2011). The peroxisomal importomer

model helps to explain how newly synthesized matrix proteins bind to the cytosolic receptor at the

peroxisome membrane and form a highly dynamic pore to transfer matrix proteins to peroxisome

lumen (Meinecke *et al.*, 2010). These transient cargo-docking-translocation complexes are formed

by variable combination of peroxin (Pex) proteins (Table S1). Briefly, the key docking complex

core consists of the SH3-domain protein Pex13 and the PXXP-motif protein Pex14, but also

harbors additional species-specific factors, e.g. Pex17 in lower eukaryotic cells, Pex33 (also

known as Pex14/17) in filamentous fungi, and Pex13.2 in *Trypanosoma brucei* (Verplaetse *et al.*,

2012). A recent study also characterized Pex17/Pex14/Dyn2p complex in yeast (Chan *et al.*, 2016).

Physical association among docking peroxins varies in different organisms, and recent reviews

extensively explain how various matrix proteins with type 1 and type 2 peroxisomal targeting

signal (PTS1 and PTS2) are recognized by the specific docking complex and associate with the

peroxisomal membrane (Nuttall *et al.*, 2011, Pieuchot & Jedd, 2012).

PTS1 and PTS2 peroxisomal matrix proteins are recognized by specific receptors Pex5 and

Pex7, respectively, and recruited to the peroxisome docking complex (Meinecke *et al.*, 2010,

Heiland & Erdmann, 2005). In addition to these core Peroxins, other Pex proteins are dynamically

involved in translocating matrix proteins across the peroxisome membrane (Platta *et al.*, 2013). In

particular, Pex8 is known to be associated with docking/translocation module (DTM) but is only

present in yeasts and filamentous fungi (Agne *et al.*, 2003). It has been suggested that Pex8 can

serve as a importomer-bridging protein to hold the docking complex and the export machinery

complex together to facilitate dynamic and transient translocation (Rayapuram & Subramani, 2006,

Platta *et al.*, 2013, Meinecke *et al.*, 2010), but the detailed function is largely unknown. In this

study, our aim was to characterize putative *F. verticillioides* peroxins, particularly those predicted

to be involved in DTM. We paid close attention to two core components of the docking complex,

Pex13 and Pex14, but also expanded our study into additional matrix proteins, namely Pex8, that

have not been well studied in plant pathogenic fungi. Subsequently, we studied the physical

interactions and the functional role of each component in *F. verticillioides* through targeted gene

deletion experiments. Through a series of fungal metabolism, physiology and virulence assays, we

concluded that Pex8, along with Pex13, plays a critical role in the generation of docking complex

in peroxisomes and for peroxisome function in *F. verticillioides* virulence and mycotoxin

biosynthesis.

Results

Protein-protein interactions between *F. verticillioides* DTM components and other key

peroxins

Peroxins Pex13 and Pex14 are recognized as key peroxisomal membrane docking complex

proteins in eukaryotes, which are required for protein import into peroxisomes. In addition, Pex33

has been identified as a new component of the docking complex in *Neurospora crassa* (Managadze

et al., 2010), and Pex8 is known to be associated with DTM in yeasts and filamentous fungi (Agne

et al., 2003). Using these proteins as query, we screened for putative DTM components, *i.e.* Pex13,

Pex14, Pex33, and Pex8, in *F. verticillioides* using the BLASTP algorithm. Additional details for

these key Pex proteins, e.g. sequence similarities and putative functional motifs, are provided in

Supplementary Information (Table S1 and Fig. S1A). Notably, further comparison of FvPex33

against Pex14- and Pex17-like proteins in *S. cerevisiae*, *F. graminearum*, *F. verticillioides* strongly

suggested that FvPex33 is distinct from Pex14 and Pex17 and is a unique component of DTM in

F. verticillioides (Fig. S1B).

Based on TMPRED, FvPex8, FvPex13, FvPex14, and FvPex33 are predicted to have

transmembrane helices and likely belong to peroxisomes membrane proteins (Fig. S1C). To study

the cellular localization of these proteins in *F. verticillioides*, we first chose the biogenesis protein

Pex14 as the peroxisomal marker and prepared Pex14-mCherry construct (Grant *et al.*, 2013). We

studied transformants containing GFP-fused Pex8, Pex13, or Pex33 protein along with Pex14-

mCherry for overlapping red and green fluorescence signals (Fig. 1A), and the images revealed

Pex14 co-localizing with Pex13 and Pex33 while only showing partial overlap with Pex8. We

subsequently tested physical interactions between these DTM components and other Peroxins by

yeast two-hybrid assays (Fig. S2). FvPex13 showed positive interaction with all five peroxins

tested, whereas FvPex14 showed interaction with FvPex5, FvPex7, FvPex33 and FvPex14 itself.

FvPex8 showed interactions with FvPex7, but not with FvPex14 and FvPex33 (Fig. S2). We also

learned that FvPex8 BD and FvPex5 BD can self-activate (data not shown), and therefore we did

not test the interaction between FvPex8 and FvPex5.

To further verify interactions between key DTM subunits and peroxins, we transiently co-

expressed following six pairs of proteins, *i.e.* FvPex13-GFP/FvPex14-mCherry, FvPex13-

GFP/FvPex8-mCherry, Pex33-GFP/Pex14-mCherry, and Pex8-GFP/Pex14-mCherry, into *F.*

verticillioides for coimmunoprecipitation (Co-IP) experiments. Results showed that FvPex13-GFP

successfully associated with the beads and that FvPex14 was eluted in samples that co-expressed

FvPex13-GFP and FvPex14-mCherry, indicating Pex13 and Pex14 binding *in vivo* (Fig. 1B).

Similarly, FvPex13 successfully associated with FvPex8 (Fig. 1C). FvPex33 successfully

associated with FvPex14 (Fig. 1D), but FvPex8 did not coprecipitate with FvPex14 (Fig. 1E).

FvPex13 showed direct interaction with key DTM proteins, and based on these outcomes, we

concluded that FvPex13 serves as the core subunit in *F. verticillioides* DTM.

Phenotypic characterization of DTM peroxin gene deletion mutants

To study the function of key DTM peroxins in *F. verticillioides*, we generated ΔFvpex8,

ΔFvpex13, ΔFvpex14, and ΔFvpex33   through targeted gene replacement with the hygromycin-

resistance marker in *F. verticillioides* 7600 wild-type strain as described previously (Zhang *et al.*,

2018b). We also generated ΔFvPex33/14 double mutant by replacing *FvPEX14* gene with the

geneticin-resistance marker in ΔFvpex33 protoplast. Subsequently, we also generated

complementation strains ΔFvpex8-C, ΔFvpex13-C, ΔFvpex14-C, and ΔFvpex33-C by

transforming the corresponding mutant with a construct harboring the gene (with its native

promoter and terminator) fused with GFP and the geneticin resistance marker. Homologous

recombination was confirmed by polymerase chain reaction (PCR) the gene and quantitative PCR

(qPCR) the expression of the gene in corresponding complementation strains (Data not shown).

We first examined whether expression of other peroxin genes were affected in the DTM

mutants (Fig. 2A). These included four DTM genes (*FvPEX8*, *FvPEX13*, *FvPEX14* and *FvPEX33*),

two PTS receptor genes (*FvPEX5* and *FvPEX7*), and a membrane protein receptor gene

(*FvPEX19*). *FvPEX8* exhibited no detectable change when tested in three other DTM mutants.

FvPEX13 showed decreased expression while *FvPEX14* and *FvPEX33* showed drastically

increased expression in ΔFvpex8 mutant. *FvPEX5* and *FvPEX7* genes showed elevated

transcription levels in ΔFvpex8 mutant while showing decreased transcription in ΔFvpex33/14

mutant when compared with the wild type. Meanwhile, *FvPEX19* was suppressed in ΔFvpex8,

ΔFvpex33, ΔFvpex33/14 mutants. When comparing DTM mutants, deletion of *FvPEX8* led to

most noteworthy changes in peroxin gene expression, particularly dramatic overexpression of PTS

receptor genes (*FvPEX5* and *FvPEX7*) as well as two DTM genes (*FvPEX14* and *FvPEX33*) led

us to hypothesize that FvPex8 plays an important role in maintaining peroxisomal membrane

assembly and cargo transport machinery. It is also notable that ΔFvpex33/14 double mutant, but

not ΔFvpex14 or ΔFvpex33 single mutant, exhibited strong negative impact on expression of

FvPEX5, FvPEX7, FvPEX14 and *FvPEX33.*

Vegetative growth and conidiation are differentially affected by carbon sources in DTM

peroxin mutants

The colony morphology of the DTM mutants was similar to that of the wild-type progenitor

when compared on MM (Fig. 2B), suggesting that these genes are not essential for vegetative

growth. However, we observed a drastic reduction in conidiation in ΔFvpex13 and ΔFvpex33/14

mutants on CMII agar medium (Fig. S3C). We also learned that vegetative growth and aerial

mycelia production in ΔFvpex8 and ΔFvpex33/14 were significantly hindered on agar media with

butyrate and sucrose as the primary carbon source (Fig. 2B and 2C). When cultured on media with

acetate, all mutants were indistinguishable when compared to the wild type (Fig. 2B and 2C).

Restricted growth was also observed when mutants were grown on media with unsaturated long-

chain fatty acids. ΔFvpex8 and ΔFvpex33/14 mutants showed hindered vegetative growth on a

medium with palmitic acid and oleic acid (Fig. 2B and 2C). Interestingly, aerial mycelium was

completely absent in ΔFvpex8 mutant on media with palmitic acid. The growth was not severly

hindered in ΔFvpex8 and ΔFvpex13 mutants grown on medium with oleic acid, but aerial mycelia

production was not as vigorous as the wild type. *F. verticillioides* DTM mutants showed difficulty

growing on long fatty acids palmitic acid raising the hypothesis whether these peroxins play a role

in peroxisomal β-oxidation function. When investigating *F. verticillioides* PTS proteins *in silico*,

we also learned that palmitoyl-CoA hydrolase (FVEG_02271, designated FvAct) contains PTS1

and serine palmitoyl transferase (FVEG_12143, designated FvPat) contains PTS2. We can

postulate that FvPex8 indirectly impacts hydrolysis of palmitoyl-CoA, which is an acyl-CoA

thioester that plays a role in biosynthesis of sphingolipids and in transport of fatty acyl-CoA

molecules into the mitochondria for β-oxidation (Brady *et al.*, 1969).

Redox homeostasis, cell wall integrity, and lipid degradation in DTM mutants

Peroxisomes serve as one of the primary sources of endogenous and exogenous ROS

production. Accumulation of ROS and disruption of redox homeostasis can lead to lower cell

survival (Min *et al.*, 2012). When stained with CM-H2DCFDA, mutant hyphae showed green

fluorescent granules indicative of high ROS accumulation, especially in ΔFvpex8, ΔFvpex13 and

ΔFvpex33/14 mutants (Fig. 3A and 3B). The colonies were stained with 3,3'-diaminobenzidine

(DAB) and nitro blue tetrazolium (NBT) for H_2O_2 and O^{2-} detection, respectively. Yellow and blue

colonies were observed in ΔFvpex8, ΔFvpex13, and ΔFvpex33/14 mutants with DAB and NBT

staining, respectively (Fig. 3C). Peroxin mutants are likely to display cell wall integrity defects

due to their inability to import enzymes of the glyoxylate cycle into peroxisomes (Bhambra et al.

2006). Almost all mutants exhibited sensitivity to calcofluor while except for ΔFvpex8 mutant

(Fig. 4). Mutants showed much higher sensitivity in general to sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS) when

compared to the wild type (Fig. 4). Growth inhibition rate in peroxin mutants was significantly

higher than that of wild type, suggesting DTM peroxins are important for maintaining *F.*

verticillioides cell wall integrity. We also observed growth inhibition in DTM mutants on medium

amended with H_2O_2 when compared to the WT (Fig. 4), which suggested that ability to respond to

reactive oxygen species and maintain redox homeostasis was disturbed in these peroxin mutants.

We also studied lipid droplet degradation and turnover defects in DTM mutants. The mutants

accumulated higher levels of lipid droplets compared to WT, particularly when shifted to nutrient

starvation (Fig. S4).

DTM peroxin FvPex8 function is necessary for FB1 production in *F. verticillioides*

F. verticillioides is one of the key fungal pathogens responsible for fumonisin

contamination of maize worldwide. To assess fumonisin B1 (FB1) accumulation, we

independently inoculated B73 maize kernels with spore suspensions of WT, ΔFvpex8, ΔFvpex13,

ΔFvpex14, ΔFvpex33, and ΔFvpex33/14 strains. After 10 days of incubation, fungal mass in

samples was assessed by qPCR quantification of β-tubulin gene *TUB2* DNA. Fungal mass in

ΔFvpex8, ΔFvpex13 and ΔFvpex33/14 mutants was approximately half of those observed in WT,

ΔFvpex14, and ΔFvpex33 (Data not shown). When FB1 levels were normalized to fungal mass in

each sample, all mutants showed reduction in FB1 production, ranging from 50% to 94%, with

ΔFvpex8 showing the most drastic reduction (Fig. 5A).

To further understand how FvPex8 mutation resulted in such drastic reduction in FB1

biosynthesis, we analyzed transcriptional expression of four key *FUM* genes: polyketide synthase

FUM1, aminotransferase *FUM8*, transporter *FUM19*, and transcription factor *FUM21* (Bojja *et al.*,

2004, Desjardins & Proctor, 2007, Brown *et al.*, 2007). The expression levels of these genes were

assessed by qPCR in WT and ΔFvpex8 strains after a 10-day incubation on corn kernels (Fig. 5B).

When compared to the WT, the expression of these four genes were significantly suppressed in

ΔFvpex8, particularly *FUM1* and *FUM19* showing drastically lower expression levels (Fig. 5B).

These outcomes suggest that FvPex8 function is necessary for proper expression of FUM genes in

F. verticillioides, not only those involved in biosynthesis but also fumonisin transport mechanism

mediated by *FUM19*.

DTM peroxin FvPex13 plays key roles in *F. verticillioides* virulence

To test whether these DTM Peroxins are associated with virulence, we inoculated B73

maize stalk internodes with spore suspension of the wild-type, ΔFvpex8, ΔFvpex13, ΔFvpex14,

ΔFvpex33, and ΔFvpex33/14 strains. When stalks were split open longitudinally after a 10-day

incubation, ΔFvpex13 and ΔFvpex33/14 mutants showed drastically reduced rot when compared

with the wild-type progenitor and other mutants (Fig. 6). We further tested virulence on sugar cane

(cultivar Badila), and outcomes were quite similar to those observed in maize stalk rot assays with

ΔFvpex13 showing significantly decreased levels of rot (Fig. S5). It is notable while ΔFvpex14

and ΔFvpex33 single mutations did not impact stalk rot, the double mutant ΔFvpex33/14 showed

a significant reduction in virulence when tested on maize and sugarcane stalks (Fig. 6 and S5).

Also, ΔFvPex8 mutation did not have any negative impact on *F. verticillioides* virulence.

FvPex13-complemented strain showed wild type-level stalk rot symptoms, suggesting that

FvPex13 plays a critical role in *F. verticillioides* virulence on maize and sugarcane.

Deletion of Pex13 impacts cellular localization of DTM peroxins in *F. verticillioides*

A mutation in Pex13 has been linked to PTS1 import defects in yeast, peroxisome

abnormalities and appressorium defects in *Colletotrichum orbiculare* (Erdmann & Blobel, 1996,

Fujihara *et al.*, 2010). To monitor PTS matrix protein import in *F. verticillioides*, we used confocal

microscopy to follow GFP derivatives targeted to the peroxisome. We fused GFP to carnitine O-

acetyl transferase gene *FvCAT* containing C-terminal PTS1 sequence (Zolman & Bartel, 2004) or

peroxisomal 3-oxoacyl-CoA thiolase gene *FvFOX3* containing *N*-terminal PTS2 sequence

(Einerhand *et al.*, 1995) obtaining fusion protein GFP-PTS1 and PTS2-GFP, respectively. We also

tested physical interactions between these two PTS proteins and PTS receptor proteins by yeast

two-hybrid assays; FvPex5 showed positive results with FvCAT and FvPex7 showed positive

results with FvFOX3 (Fig. S2). GFP-PTS1 showed a diffused fluorescence distributed throughout

the cytoplasm while PTS2-GFP was largely in cytoplasm of 2-days-old ΔFvpex13 hyphae (Fig.

7A). Pex14-mCherry is shown as the peroxisomal marker. These results led us to hypothesize that

FvPex13 plays a role in peroxisomal protein targeting via its interaction with FvPex5 and FvPex7.

We learned that PTS1 receptor FvPex5 predominantly localizes to the cytoplasm, very similar to

FvCat, whereas PTS2 receptor FvPex7 and mPTS receptor FvPex19 are mostly found in cytoplasm

in ΔFvpex13 mutant (Fig. 7B). These results suggested that FvPex13 function is not only required

to maintain localization but also affect the steady-state size and number levels of these docking

peroxins affecting peroxisomes.

Discussion

The key aim of this study was to gain a deeper understanding of how peroxisomal

docking/translocation module (DTM) complex impacts peroxin import, the integrity and

functionality of peroxisomes, and ultimately fumonisin biosynthesis and virulence in maize

pathogen *F. verticillioides*. Interaction between four DTM peroxins, *i.e.* FvPex13, FvPex14,

FvPex33 and FvPex8, were demonstrated through yeast two-hybrid and Co-IP assays.

Interestingly, FvPex8 exhibited no direct interaction with FvPex14 and FvPex33. We also

confirmed that FvPex14-mCherry colocalizes with FvPex13-GFP, FvPex8-GFP, and FvPex33-

GFP in mycelia, suggesting that these proteins form a complex in *F. verticillioides*. In ΔFvpex13*,*

we found that FvPex5 (PTS1 receptor), and FvCat (PTS1), FvPex7 (PTS2 receptor), FvFox3

(PTS2), FvPex8, FvPex19 were predominantly translocated to cytoplasm, while FvPex14 and

FvPex33 were still remaining in peroxisomes. FvPex13 played a more predominant role in PTS1

than PTS2 though FvPex13 interactive with both PTS receptor. In *S. cerevisiae*, Pex14

preferentially binding to cargo-loaded Pex5 receptor are responsible for pore formation, while

Pex13 can Co-IP Pex5 but not a Pex5–PTS1 complex, higher affinity to the free receptor and is

involved in coupling of translocation to receptor recycling (Schell-Steven *et al.*, 2005). It was

suggested that Pex13 served as an initial binding site for the PTS2 pre-import complex, whereas

Pex14 assembled with Pex18 in high-molecular-weight complexes after or during dissociation of

the PTS2 receptor (Grunau *et al.*, 2009, Meinecke *et al.*, 2010). Based on literature and our

experimental data, we envisaged a schematic model of *F. verticillioides* peroxisomal DTM

complex shown in Fig. 8. We suggest that FvPex14 and Fvpex33 prefer the initial recognition of

the PTS1 cargo-loaded receptor and PTS2 cargo-loaded receptor respectively, while FvPex13 and

FvPex8 prefer to unload cargo-loaded from the receptor.

Recent studies provide numerous examples how key DTM proteins Pex13 and Pex14 are

important not only for peroxisome biogenesis but also for hosts of other cellular and physiological

functions in filamentous fungi. Absence of the docking peroxin Pex13 in *Podospora anserine*

obstructed sexual development prior to meiosis (Suaste-Olmos *et al.*, 2018) *Colletotrichum*

orbiculare Pex13 is required for appressorium-mediated plant infection, namely for melanin

biosynthesis and turgor generation (Fujihara *et al.*, 2010, Chen *et al.*, 2018). Chen and colleagues

(Chen *et al.*, 2018) showed that Pex13 also plays an important role in *Fusarium graminearum*

pathogenesis and mycotoxin biosynthesis. We found very similar outcomes in our study, where *F.*

verticillioides Pex13 mediated plant infection and severe peroxisomal defects. Pex14, in addition

to its key function as a docking protein, plays a main role in formation of two separate import

pores, facilitating the PTS1- and PTS2-dependent protein import into the peroxisomal matrix

(Montilla-Martinez *et al.*, 2015, Meinecke *et al.*, 2010). Pex14 has a unique dual function in

peroxisome formation and in pexophagy in *Pichia pastoris* and *F. graminearum* (Bellu *et al.*, 2001,

Farre *et al.*, 2008, Deng *et al.*, 2013, Lee *et al.*, 2017, Chen *et al.*, 2018). Pex14 serves an important

role in Woronin bodies formation in *Neurospora crassa* and host infection in *Fusarium*

graminearum (Managadze *et al.*, 2007, Chen *et al.*, 2018). In addition to Pex13 and Pex14, another

important component of DTM complex in filamentous fungi is Pex33, a chimeric protein

consisting of an N-terminal Pex14-like domain and a C-terminal Pex17-like domain . Pex33 has

been associated with glyoxysome biogenesis, sexual and asexual development, virulence and

secondary metabolism (Peraza-Reyes *et al.*, 2011, Li *et al.*, 2017, Chen *et al.*, 2018, Opalinski *et*

al., 2010, Managadze *et al.*, 2010). In our study, we found *F. verticillioides* Pex14 and Pex33

collaborate to mediate plant infection and partial peroxisomal defects.

While these key Pex proteins have been extensively investigated in filamentous fungi and

other eukaryotes, the role of Pex8 in peroxisomal import machinery and its impact on other

physiological roles in pathogenic fungi are still unclear. Pex8, originally discovered as Per1 protein

in yeast *Hansenula polymorpha* (syn. *Pichia angusta*), is an intraperoxisomal peroxin that has a

PTS1 at the C- terminus and an unusual PTS2 in the mid-protein region (Agne *et al.*, 2003,

Waterham *et al.*, 1994). Pex8 is currently the only recognized intraperoxisomal peroxin, while

majority of peroxins are either peroxisomal membrane-bound or in the cytosol (Ma *et al.*, 2009,

Pieuchot & Jedd, 2012, Girzalsky *et al.*, 2010). Pex8 is targeted to peroxisomes by cytosolic

receptors Pex5 (PTS1) or Pex7 (PTS2), and the membrane translocation is primarily mediated

through docking complex Pex14 (Agne *et al.*, 2003, Ma *et al.*, 2009). Once positioned in the

peroxisomal matrix, Pex8 becomes an important component of importomer complex, anchoring

key receptors as well as other membrane-bound peroxins, and serves an important function in both

PTS1- and PTS2-dependent protein translocation into peroxisome (Agne *et al.*, 2003, Rehling *et*

al., 2000). Therefore, it is important to acknowledge that composition and organization of the

importomer and docking complex can vary in eukaryotes, not only in species-dependent manner

but also in a cargo-dependent manner (Gabaldon, 2010, Heiland & Erdmann, 2005, Lazarow,

2003).

In our study, we learned that Pex8 plays a crucial role in *F. verticillioides* secondary

metabolism but is dispensable for plant pathogenesis. Involvement of peroxisomes in fungal

secondary metabolite biosynthesis has been well documented, including in penicillin, AK toxin,

paxilline, and deoxynivalenol (DON) (Herr & Fischer, 2014, Saikia & Scott, 2009, Imazaki *et al.*,

2010, Martin *et al.*, 2012, Chen *et al.*, 2018). However, it is still unclear how FvPex8 impacts FB1

biosynthetic pathway or regulation. We learned that the expression of *FUM1* and *FUM19* is

decreased drastically in ΔFvpex8 mutant, but it is highly unlikely FvPex8 directly regulates genes

in the *FUM* cluster. However, it is possible that Pex8, which contains both peroxisomal targeting

signals PTS1 and PTS2, functions as an organizer of the peroxisomal protein import machinery.

In *S. cerevisiae*, Pex8 is located at the inner surface of the peroxisomal membrane and is essential

for the assembly of the importomer (Deckers *et al.*, 2010). Acetyl-CoA, one of the key buildings

block for the synthesis of polyketides, can be produced via various catabolic pathways, including

peroxisomal β-oxidation of fatty acids (Maggio-Hall *et al.*, 2005). Based on current DTM models,

inner membrane FvPex8 function may impact both import receptors Pex5 (PTS1 cargo shuttle)

and Pex7 (PTS2 cargo shuttle) and disrupt import/export of acetyl-CoA necessary for secondary

metabolism in *F. verticillioides*. While higher expression levels of *FvPEX5* and *FvPEX7* were

observed in ΔFvpex8 mutant, further study is needed to test this hypothesis.

One unexpected outcome in our study was ΔFvpex8 showing no particular defect in virulence.

Key peroxisome biogenesis genes are required plant infection and pathogenesis in *Colletotrichum*

lagenarium, C. orbiculare, M. grisea, A. alternata, and *F. graminearum* (Ramos-Pamplona &

Naqvi, 2006, Wang *et al.*, 2007, Imazaki *et al.*, 2010, Fujihara *et al.*, 2010, Goh *et al.*, 2011, Min

et al., 2012). For instance, CoPex13 is required for appressorium melanization and turgor

generation, which are essential for appressorium penetration ability in *C. orbiculare* (Fujihara *et*

al., 2010). MoPex33 is required for import of peroxisomal matrix proteins and full virulence in *M.*

oryzae (Li *et al.*, 2017). A recent publication described how Pex13, Pex14 and Pex33 are critical

against host stress agents and pexophagy, ultimately impacting fungal virulence in *F.*

gramminearum (Chen *et al.*, 2018). Along with these key DTM components, import receptors

Pex5 and Pex7 were also shown to be important for fitness and virulence in fungal pathogens (Min

et al., 2012, Wang *et al.*, 2013, Zhang *et al.*, 2018a, Goh *et al.*, 2011). FvPex8 showed strong

physical interaction with FvPex13, therefore it was reasonable to hypothesize that FvPex8 also

plays a critical role in pathogenesis. However, this was not the case; only ΔFvpex13 was impaired

in virulence in *F. verticillioides* (Fig. 6). FvPex13 is known to affect efficient PTS1 and PTS2

imports, and this requires Pex5-Pex13 interaction *in vivo* (Pires *et al.*, 2003, Schell-Steven *et al.*,

2005). Loss of peroxisome function may slow pathogen growth due to inefficient utilization of

carbon sources from the host and the fungus itself (Fig. 2B and S4). However, we did not observe

similar response in host when challenged by ΔPex8 mutant suggesting that Pex8, while it forms a

complex with Pex13 and other DTM components, may not directly contribute to virulence in F.

verticillioides.

To summarize, we identified and characterized *F. verticillioiodes* homologs of DTM

components FvPex13, FvPex14, FvPex33, and FvPex8 in this study. Based on our experimental

outcomes and literature, we propose a schematic model of core *F. verticillioides* DTM complex

(Fig. 8). It is reasonable to hypothesize that these proteins are involved in the regulation of

peroxisomal docking complex assembly and matrix translocation and ultimately impact various

aspects of fungal development, secondary metabolism, and virulence. However, we clearly noticed

a distinct role each component plays. We propose that the DTM complex plays an important role

in virulence through FvPex13, likely in association with FvPex14 and FvPex33. For FB1

production, FvPex8 was determined as the key components, but the mechanism in which FvPex8

regulates FB1 biosynthesis needs further investigation.

Material and methods

Fungal strains and culture media

F. verticillioides wild-type strain 7600 and all transformants (Table S2) were cultured on complete

medium (CMII: 2% sucrose, 0.05% magnesium sulfate heptahydrate, 0.1% potassium dihydrogen

phosphate, 0.05% potassium chloride, 0.2% nitrate potassium acid, 0.1% hydrolyzed casein, 0.2%

peptone, 0.1% Wolfe's Vitamin Solution [Coolaber, China], 1.8% agar) and minimal medium

(MM) (Leslie & Summerell, 2006). CMII agar with 250 µg/ml hygromycin B (Roche, Germany),

200 µg/ml glufosinate-ammonium (Sigma, USA) or 800 µg/ml G418 (Sigma) were used for

screening transformants. For conidia production assay, six 0.7 cm- diameter agar blocks were

added to 3 ml water, vortexed and conidia were quantified by a hemocytometer. For vegetative

growth and stress agent sensitivity assays, the wild-type and mutant strains were grown on MM

supplemented with various carbon sources at the following concentrations: potassium acetate (40

mM), sodium butyrate (10 mM), sucrose (2%), palmitic acid (3 mM), oleic acid (3 mM) and

linoleic acid (3 mM) (Min *et al.*, 2012). Colony diameter was measured after 5 days of incubation.

Cell wall integrity was tested by growing the strains on CMII supplemented with 200mg/ml

Calcofluor white (CFW) or 0.01% sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS). The tolerance of strains to

exogenous ROS was evaluated by measuring growth on CMII containing 0.05% H_2O_2.

Generation of the DTM gene deletion mutants and GFP/mCherry-tagged strains

Single DTM gene *F. verticillioides* mutants were generated with a split-marker approach

described previously (Zhang *et al.*, 2018b). All primers used in this study are listed in Table S3.

For double deletion of *FvPEX14* and *FvPEX33*, we replaced the *FvPEX14* with neomycin

phosphotransferase (*NEO*) gene in the ΔFvpex33 deletion mutant. Protoplasts were generated,

transformed and screened following our standard PCR and Southern blot protocols (Yan & Shim,

2020, Zhang *et al.*, 2018b). We constructed the fusion GFP and mCherry vectors following the

protocol described previously (Zhang *et al.*, 2018b, Yan & Shim, 2020). All fusion vectors

generated were sequenced before transformation. For construction of GFP-tagged strains, we

transformed corresponding fusion GFP vectors with G418 sulfate-resistant (*GEN*) gene into

protoplasts. For testing whether FvPex13 affected the localization of PTS pathway related genes,

we transformed fusion GFP vectors with *GEN* into WT and ΔFvPex13 mutant protoplasts.

Expression analyses of peroxin genes

For qRT-PCR, the wild-type and DTM mutants were inoculated in CMII medium for 3

days. The extraction of total RNA and the synthesis of first-strand cDNA were performed as

previously described (Yan & Shim, 2020). The expression of peroxins, were detected by qRT-

PCR using SuperReal PreMix Plus (SYBR Green) (Tiangen Biotech, China). As an endogenous

control, a 200-bp amplicon of *F. verticillioides* β-tubulin (*TUB2*) gene (FVEG_04081) was

amplified, and the relative quantification of each transcript was calculated following the standard

$2^{-\Delta\Delta CT}$ method (Yan & Shim, 2020). Primers used to amplify selected genes in qRT-PCR reactions

are listed in Table S3. All qRT-PCR assays were conducted in triplicates for each sample and the

experiment was repeated three times.

ROS and lipid staining and quantification

For lipid staining, 2-day-old mycelia were harvested and washed twice with water. Hypha

was tested by staining with Nile Red (Nguyen *et al.*, 2011). Cellular ROS accumulation in the

fungal hyphae was analyzed using the CM-H2DCFDA staining. Mycelia were harvested and

washed with PBS for 3 times. Hypha was stained with CM-H2DCFDA (5 µM) (Sigma) for 10 min

in the dark following GENMED reagent protocols, scanning confocal microscope with excitation

at 490nm (GENMED Scientifics, USA). Accumulation of ROS in mycelia was visualized with 6-

chloromethyl-2',7'-dichlorodihydrofluorescein diacetate (CM-H2DCFDA) staining. Endogenous

ROS scavenging capacity was tested by growing the strains on CMII medium 5 days, and the

colony were stained with 3,3'-diaminobenzidine (DAB) for H_2O_2 detection and with 2mM Nitro

Blue Tetrazolium (NBT) (Sigma) in 20mM phosphate buffer, pH6 for O^{2-} detection treated,

respectively.

Yeast two-hybrid assay

The yeast two-hybrid assay was carried out following our previous standard protocol

(Zhang *et al.*, 2018b). The coding sequence of each tested gene was amplified from wild-type

cDNA. *FvPEX13*, *FvPEX14*, *FvPEX7*, and *FvCAT* were cloned into pGBKT7 as the bait vectors.

Other components of the DTM *FvPEX33*, *FvPEX14*, *FvPEX8*, *FvPEX5*, *FvPEX7*, *FvPEX20*,

FvFOX cDNA was amplified and cloned into pGADT7 as the prey vectors. The pairs of plasmids

pGBKT7-P53 and pGADT7-T, pGBKT7-Lam and pGADT7-T were used as the positive and the

negative control, respectively. All primers used in this study were listed in Table S3. Further details

are provided in Supplementary Information.

Virulence and FB1 assays

Infection assays on maize and sugarcane stalks were conducted as previously described

(Zhang *et al.*, 2018b, Zhang *et al.*, 2015). Subsequently, maize and sugar cane stalks were split

longitudinally to assess disease severity and to quantify the extent of the rot by Image J software.

For FB1 assay, conidia were inoculated on surface sterilized B73 corn kernel for 10 days and

quantified with Fumonisin B1 ELISA Kit following manufacturer's suggested protocol (Biovision,

USA). FB1 concentrations were obtained by the optical density (OD value) of each well at 450 nm

with a microplate reader by comparing to FB1 standard curve. *F. verticillioides* biomass

quantification was calculated by qPCR based on the *TUB*2 standard curve, which was measured

at 0.01, 0.1, 1.0, 10 ng/μl concentrations (Rocha *et al.*, 2015). Sample FB1 levels were normalized

by calculating FB1 ppm/ *TUB*2 DNA concentration. To compare the *FUM* gene expression, RNA

samples were prepared from ΔFvpex8 mutant and *F. verticillioides* strains grown on corn kernel

for 10 days. The expression levels of *FUM1*, *FUM8*, *FUM19* and *FUM21* were normalized to

TUB2 expression. The experiment was repeated three times.

Immunoblot and immunoprecipitation analyses

Strains were grown in CMII medium for 2 days before immunoblot and

immunoprecipitation analyses were conducted as previously described (Zheng *et al.*, 2015). For

total protein extraction, mycelia of FvPex13-GFP and FvPex14-mCherry were ground into a fine

powder in liquid nitrogen and resuspended in 30-mL extraction buffer (10 mM Tris/Cl pH 7.5, 150

mM NaCl, 0.5 mM EDTA, 0.5% NP40, 1 mM PMSF). The supernatants were centrifuged 15,000

g for 25 min at 4°C to remove cell debris. For immunoprecipitation of GFP-fusion proteins from

cellular extracts, equal concentration of total proteins was isolated and incubated with 20~30 μL

of GFP-Trap agarose beads (ChromoTek, Germany) according to manufacturer's instructions.

Proteins eluted from GFP-Trap agarose beads were analyzed by immunoblot detection with the

anti-mCherry (Clontech, USA) and anti-GFP (Sigma) antibodies.

Author Contributions

W.Y., W-B.S. and Z.W. conceived and designed the experiments. W.Y., M.L., H.Y. and Y.H.

performed the experiments. W.Y., J.Z., G.L., W-B.S. and Z.W analyzed the data. W.Y., H.Y., W-

B.S. and Z.W. wrote the paper.

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Figure legends

Fig. 1. FvPex8, FvPex13, FvPex14, and FvPex33 protein interaction analyses.

(A) Localization of FvPex8-GFP, FvPex13-GFP, and FvPex33-GFP were studied in comparison

to FvPex14-mCherry, which was used as a peroxisomal marker, in the wild-type strain. Scale bar

= 10 μm. GFP-trap-based pull-down experiment showing the interaction *in vitro* between (B)

FvPex13 and FvPex14, (C) FvPex13 and FvPex8, (D) FvPex33 and FvPex14, and (E) FvPex8 and

FvPex14. The strains co-expressing the indicated proteins were immunoprecipitated with GFP trap

beads. The IP signal (FvPex13-GFP, FvPex8-GFP, or FvPex33-GFP) and the Co-IP signal

(FvPex14-mCherry or FvPex33-mCherry) were detected by immunoblots probed with antibodies

to GFP and mCherry, respectively.

Fig. 2. Impact of FvPex8 on Pex gene transcription and carbon source utilization.

(A) Expression changes of Peroxin genes were studied in each mutant using qPCR. Relative

transcript abundance was measured by qPCR and normalized to *F. verticillioides* β-tubulin gene.

Values are means ± SE of three replicates. (B) Vegetative growth and aerial mycelia production

in wild-type (WT) and mutant strains were monitored on minimal medium (MM) amended with

different carbon sources. Colony morphology was photographed after 5 days of incubation at 25°C.

(C) The growth inhibition rate was analyzed by comparing the growth of wild type with mutants

on MM agar with various carbon amendments. The mycelial growth inhibition rate (%) was

measured by [(the diameter of WT strain - the diameter of mutant strain)/(the diameter of WT

strain)]×100%). Bar indicates the standard deviation of three replicates.

Fig. 3. Reactive oxygen species response in mutants

(A) Fungal hyphae were grown for 2 days and stained with CM-H2DCFDA to measure cellular ROS accumulation in wild-type strain Fv7600 and mutants. Accumulation of ROS in mycelia was visualized with 6-chloromethyl-2',7'-dichlorodihydrofluorescein diacetate (CM-H2DCFDA) staining. Scale bar = 10 μm. (B) ROS accumulation was quantified by Image J software. Error bars represent the deviation from three replicates and the same letter indicates no differences at P<0.05 level. (C) Endogenous ROS scavenging capacity was tested by staining fungal strains grown on CMII medium for 5 days with 3,3'-diaminobenzidine (DAB) for H_2O_2 detection and with Nitro Blue Tetrazolium (NBT) for O^{2-} detection.

Fig. 4. Disruption of peroxisomal functions promotes reactive oxygen species (ROS) accumulation.

(A) Mycelial growth of the wild type (WT) and mutants was monitored on CMII media supplemented with sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS), Calcofluor white (CFW), and H_2O_2 for 5 days. Plates were photographed after 5 days of incubation at 25°C. (B) Mycelial growth inhibition rates were calculated by [(the diameter of WT strain - the diameter of mutant strain)/(the diameter of WT strain]×100%.

Fig. 5. Role of peroxins in fumonisin B1 (FB1) production and *FUM* gene expression

(A) Surface sterilized B73 corn kernels were inoculated with wild type (WT) and mutant fungal conidia and were incubated for 10 days before FB1 levels were quantified by ELISA Kit. *F. verticillioides* biomass was quantified by measuring *F. verticillioides* β-tubulin (*TUB2*) DNA in samples. FB1 level in samples was normalized by calculating FB1 (ppm)/ *TUB2* DNA (ng). (B)

To compare the expression levels of key *FUM* genes, RNA samples were prepared from the wild

type (WT) and ΔFvpex8 mutant on corn kernel for 10 days. The expression levels of *FUM1*, *FUM8*,

FUM19 and *FUM21* were normalized to *TUB2* expression. The experiment was repeated three

times, and error bars represent the standard deviation from three replicates.

Fig. 6. Role of DTM peroxins in maize stalk rot virulence.

(A) Maize B73 stalks were inoculated with wild type (WT) and mutant fungal spore suspension

(10^6/ml) at the internodal region and incubated at room temperature for 7 days. Subsequently,

maize stalks were split longitudinally to visually inspect rot symptoms. (B) Image J software was

used to quantify the extent of the rot in each sample. Three independent biological repetitions were

performed and error bars represent the standard deviation from three replicates. Sterile water was

used as a negative control (Fig. S5).

Fig.7. Fvpex13 plays an important role in mycelial peroxin localization.

(A) GFP fused to C-terminal PTS1 sequence (PTS1-GFP) and N-terminal PTS2 sequence (GFP-

PTS2), localizations were studied in the wild type (WT) and ΔFvpex13 mutant. Pex14-mCherry

signal was used as the peroxisomal marker. Bars = 2 μm. (B) Localization of key DTM peroxins

Pex8, Pex7, Pex19, and Pex5 were studied in the wild type (WT) and ΔFvpex13 mutant. Pex14

was monitored in ΔFvpex14 and ΔFvpex13, while Pex33-GFP was monitored in ΔFvpex33 and

ΔFvpex13.

Fig. 8. Proposed schematic model of F. ve*rticillioides* peroxisome docking/translocation

module (DTM).

The proposed model is based on our protein-protein interaction experiments as well as other

published fungal models. Our study showed that these proteins are involved in the regulation of

peroxisomal docking complex assembly and matrix translocation and ultimately impact various

aspects of fungal development, secondary metabolism, and virulence. Notably, we determined that

FvPex8 plays an important role in *F. verticillioides* mycotoxin biosynthesis. While we noticed

distinct role each component plays, FvPex13 was the key components in regulating virulence,

likely in close association with FvPex14 and FvPex33.

Supplementary information

Table S1. Putative *F. verticillioides* DTM components identified by Blastp analysis

Table S2. *F. verticillioides* strains used in this study

Table S3. PCR primers used in this study.

Figure S1. Sequence analysis of Docking peroxin homologs in *F. verticillioides*

(A) Schematic description of conserveds domain in peroxins FvPex13, FvPex14 and FvPex33. (B)

Phylogenetic relationship of FvPex33 and its homologs calculated with neighbor joining method

using the MEGA 6.0 program according to the alignment. (C) Possible transmembrane helices

predicted in FvPex8, FvPex13, FvPex14, and FvPex33 analyzed by TMPRED algorithm.

Figure S2. Docking protein interaction by yeast two hybrid assays.

Interactions between DTM peroxins were tested using the yeast two-hybrid assay. Yeast

transformants expressing plasmids harboring the indicated constructs were assayed for growth on

selective plates (SD/Leu/Trp/His/Ade), and for β-galactosidase (LacZ) activities. The pGBKT7-

53/pGADT7-T and pGBKT7-Lam/pGADT7-T was used as positive and negative control,

respectively.

Figure S3. Vegetative growth, growth inhibition of mutants.

(A) The colony morphology of DTM mutants and the wild-type strain on CMII agar media and

linoleic acid medium. (B) Mycelial growth inhibition rates were calculated by [(the diameter of

WT strain - the diameter of mutant strain)/(the diameter of WT strain)]x100%. (C) conidiation in

the wild type and DTM mutants on CMII agar.

Figure S4. Reduction in lipid droplet degradation and carbon sources utilization

(A) Wild-type (WT) and mutant strains were grown for 2 days in rich medium, then transferred

to 1% potassium acetate medium and stained with Nile red to observe the lipid droplet formation

of the hyphae after starvation at 0 h and 18 h time points. (B) Lipid droplet gross area was

measured in each sample at 0 h and 18 h time points. (C) Lipid droplet sizes were measured

measured in each sample at 0 h and 18 h time points. Bars denote standard deviations from three

repeated experiments. The same letter on the bars for each treatment represents no significant

difference at P = 0.05.

Figure S5. Role of DTM peroxins in sugarcane stalk rot virulence.

(A) Sugarcane stalks (cultivar Badila) were inoculated with fungal spore suspension (10^6/ml) at

the internodal region and incubated in room temperature for 7 days. Subsequently, stalks were split

longitudinally to visually inspect rot symptoms. (B) Image J software was used to quantify the

extent of the rot in each sample. Three independent biological repetitions were performed and error

bars represent the standard deviation from three replicates. (C) Sterile water was used as a negative

control on maize stalk.

Yu et al. Fig. 3

Yu et al. Fig. 6

A
WT ΔFvpex8 ΔFvpex8-C ΔFvpex13 ΔFvpex13-C
ΔFvpex14 ΔFvpex14-C ΔFvpex33 ΔFvpex33-C ΔFvpex33/14

B

Yu et al. Fig. 7

Yu et al. Fig. 8