Regulation of gliotoxin biosynthesis and protection in *Aspergillus* species

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Abstract

Aspergillus fumigatus causes a range of human and animal diseases collectively known as aspergillosis. *A. fumigatus* possesses and expresses a range of genetic determinants of virulence, which facilitate colonisation and disease progression, including the secretion of mycotoxins. Gliotoxin (GT) is the best studied *A. fumigatus* mycotoxin with a wide range of known toxic effects that impair human immune cell function. GT is also highly toxic to *A. fumigatus* and this fungus has evolved self-protection mechanisms that include (i) the GT efflux pump GliA, (ii) the GT neutralising enzyme GliT, and (iii) the negative regulation of GT biosynthesis by the *bis*-thiomethyltransferase GtmA. The transcription factor (TF) RglT is the main regulator of GliT and this GT protection mechanism also occurs in the non-GT producing fungus *A. nidulans*. However, *A. nidulans* does not encode GtmA and GliA. This work aimed at analysing the transcriptional response to exogenous GT in *A. fumigatus* and *A. nidulans*, two distantly related *Aspergillus* species, and to identify additional components required for GT protection in *Aspergillus* species. RNA-sequencing shows a highly different transcriptional response to exogenous GT with the RglT-dependent regulon also significantly differing between *A. fumigatus* and *A. nidulans*. However, we were able to observe homologues whose expression pattern was similar in both species (43 RglT-independent and 12 RglT-dependent). Screening of an *A. fumigatus* deletion library of 484 transcription factors (TFs) for sensitivity to GT identified 15 TFs important for GT self-protection. Of these, the TF KojR, which is essential for kojic acid biosynthesis in *Aspergillus oryzae*, was also essential for GT biosynthesis in *A. fumigatus* and for GT protection in *A. fumigatus*, *A. nidulans*, and *A. oryzae*. KojR regulates *rglT* and *gliT* expression in *Aspergillus* spp. Together, this study identified conserved components required for GT protection in *Aspergillus* species.

Author Summary

A. fumigatus secretes mycotoxins that are essential for its virulence and pathogenicity. Gliotoxin (GT) is a sulfur-containing mycotoxin, which is known to impair several aspects of the human immune response. GT is also toxic to different fungal species, which have evolved several GT protection strategies. To further decipher these responses, we used transcriptional profiling aiming to compare the response to GT in the GT producer *A. fumigatus* and the GT non-producer *A. nidulans*. This analysis allowed us to identify additional genes with a potential role in GT protection. We also identified *A. fumigatus* 15 transcription factors (TFs) that are important for conferring resistance to exogenous gliotoxin. One of these TFs, KojR, which is essential for *A. oryzae* kojic acid production, is also important for GT protection in *A. fumigatus, A. nidulans* and *A. oryzae*. KojR regulates the expression of another TF and an oxidoreductase, previously shown to be essential for GT protection. Together, this work identified conserved components required for gliotoxin protection in *Aspergillus* species.

Introduction

Aspergillus fumigatus is a saprophytic fungus that can cause a variety of human and animal diseases known as aspergillosis (Sugui *et al.*, 2014). The most severe of these diseases is invasive pulmonary aspergillosis (IPA), a life-threatening infection in immunosuppressed patients (van de Veerdonk *et al.*, 2017; Latgé and Chamilos, 2019). *A. fumigatus* pathogenicity is a multifactorial trait that depends in part on several virulence factors, such as thermotolerance, growth in the presence of hypoxic conditions, evasion and modulation of the human immune system and metabolic flexibility (Kamei and Watanabe 2005; Tekaia and Latgé 2005; Abad et al. 2010; Grahl et al. 2012; Latgé and Chamilos, 2019). Another important *A. fumigatus* virulence atribute is the production of secondary metabolites (SMs). The genes that encode SMs are generally organized in biosynthetic gene clusters (BGCs) (Keller, 2019) and *A. fumigatus* has at least 598 SM-associated genes distributed among 33 BGCs (Lind *et al.*, 2017; Mead et al. 2019). SMs can cause damage to the host immune system, protect the fungus from host immune cells, or can mediate the acquisition of essential nutrients (Shwab et al. 2007; Losada et al. 2009; Yin et al. 2013; Wiemann et al. 2014; Bignell et al. 2016; Knox et al. 2016; Raffa and Keller 2019; Blachowicz et al. 2020). Gliotoxin (GT) is the best studied *A. fumigatus* SM and has been detected *in vivo* in murine models of invasive aspergillosis (IA), in human cancer patients (Lewis *et al.*, 2005), and is produced among isolates derived from patients with COVID-19 (Steenwyk *et al.*, 2021).

Numerous modes of action for GT in the mammalian host have been described: (i) GT interferes with macrophage-mediated phagocytosis through prevention of integrin activation and actin dynamics, resulting in macrophage membrane retraction and failure to phagocytose pathogen targets (Schlam *et al.*, 2016); (ii) GT inhibits the production of pro-inflammatory cytokines secreted by macrophages and the activation of the NFkB regulatory complex (Arias *et al.*, 2018); (iii) GT interferes with the correct assembly of NADPH oxidase through preventing p47phox phosphorylation and cytoskeletal incorporation as well as membrane translocation of subunits p47phox, p67phox and p40phox (Tsunawaki

et al., 2008); and (iv) GT inhibits neutrophil chemoattraction by targeting the activity of leukotriene A4 (LTA4) hydrolase, an enzyme that participates in LTA biosynthesis (König et al., 2019).

GT is a sulfur-containing mycotoxin, a member of the epipolythiopiperazines, produced by different fungal species, including *Gliocadium fimbriatum* (from which it was originally isolated and named accordingly), *A. fumigatus* and closely related non-pathogenic species (Knowles et al., 2020; Steenwyk et al., 2020), and also by species of *Trichoderma* and *Penicillium* (Scharf et al., 2012, 2016; Welch et al. 2014; Dolan et al., 2015). In *A. fumigatus*, a BGC on chromosome VI contains 13 *gli* genes responsible for GT biosynthesis and secretion (Dolan et al., 2015). GT biosynthesis is tightly regulated because it interferes with and depends on several cellular pathways that regulate sulfur metabolism [cysteine (Cys) and methionine (Met)], oxidative stress defenses [glutathione (GSH) and ergothioneine (EGT)], methylation [S-adenosylmethionine (SAM)], and iron metabolism (Fe–S clusters) (Davis et al.,2011; Struck et al., 2012; Amich et al., 2013; Sheridan et al., 2016; Traynor et al., 2019). Regulation of GT biosynthesis involves numerous transcription factors (TFs), protein kinases, transcriptional and developmental regulators, regulators of G-protein signalling as well as chromatin modifying enzymes (Dolan et al, 2015).

Even though the regulation of GT biosynthesis is well characterized, regulation of endogenous protection from GT - which is also highly toxic to the fungus - is less well understood. *A. fumigatus* self-protection against GT is predicted to be based on the following mechanisms: (i) the major facilitator superfamily transporter GliA, which is part of the GT BGC, catalyses GT efflux; (ii) the reversible enzymatic activity of the oxidoreductase GliT, and (iii) the negative regulation of GT biosynthesis through the off switch mechanism of the *S*-adenosylmethionine-dependent gliotoxin *bis*-thiomethyltransferase GtmA. GliA is responsible for transferring GT out of fungal cells and deletion of *gliA* increases susceptibility to GT (Wang et al., 2014). GliT produces the final toxic form of GT by catalysing disulphide bridge closure of the precursor dithiol gliotoxin (dtGT) (Schrettl et al., 2010; Dolan et al., 2015). However, if there is excess GT production, GliT is able to reduce GSH and produce dtGT attenuating GT toxicity

(Schrettl *et al.*, 2010; Dolan *et al.*, 2015). GtmA, whose gene is not located in the GT BGC, is able to convert dtGT into bisdethiobis(methylthio)-gliotoxin (bmGT) and to attenuate GT production postbiosynthetically (Dolan *et al.*, 2014, 2017; Smith *et al.*, 2016; Scharf *et al.*, 2014). It is thought that the primary role of GtmA is a decrease in GT biosynthesis and not a back up for GliT and toxin neutralisation (Dolan *et al.*, 2015).

Until recently, the TF regulating *gliT* has remained elusive. The TF RglT was shown to regulate not only GliZ, a Zn(II)2Cys6 transcription factor required for gliotoxin biosynthesis, but several other *gli* genes, including *gliT*, which is not regulated by GliZ (Schrettl *et al.*, 2010; Wang *et al.*, 2014; Dolan *et al.*, 2015; Ries *et al.*, 2020), through directly binding to the respective promoter regions during GT-producing conditions. Interestingly, RglT and GliT were shown to have similar roles in GT protection in *A. nidulans*, a fungus that does not produce GT and is distantly related to *A. fumigatus* (Ries *et al.*, 2020). The genome of *A. nidulans* does not encode homologues for *gliA* and *gtmA*. Therefore, the aim of this work is to compare the transcriptional response to exogenous GT in *A. fumigatus* and *A. nidulans* and to further identify novel components required for GT protection in *Aspergillus* species. By using transcriptional profiling (RNA-seq), we investigate the influence of RglT in GT protection in the GT-producer *A. fumigatus* and in the GT-non producer *A. nidulans*. We identified several novel genetic determinants dependent or not on RglT and that could be involved in GT protection. We also screened an *A. fumigatus* deletion library of 484 null mutants and identified, in addition to RglT, 15 TFs that are potentially important for GT self-protection. We found that one of these TFs is KojR, which is essential for *A. oryzae* kojic acid production, is important for *A. nidulans* and *A. oryzae* GT protection and *A. fumigatus* GT self-protection and GT and bmGT biosynthesis.

Results

***A. fumigatus* RglT controls the expression of GT- and other SM-encoding genes when exposed to exogenous GT.** To determine which genes are under

the transcriptional control of RglT in the presence of exogenous GT, we performed RNA-sequencing (RNA-seq) of the *A. fumigatus* wild-type (WT) and Δ*rglT* strains when exposed to 5 µg/ml GT for 3 h. In these conditions, *A. fumigatus* is protecting itself from the effects of GT, as has previously been shown (O'Keeffe *et al.*, 2014). Differentially expressed genes (DEGs) were defined as those with a minimum log2 fold change of 2 [log2FC ≥ 1.0 and ≤ -1.0; *p*-value < 0.05; FDR (false discovery rate) of 0.05]. DEG comparisons were carried out for: (i) the WT strain, comparing the GT condition to the control (GT-free condition) to determine which genes are modulated after 3 h exposure to GT; and (ii) when comparing the *rglT* deletion strain to the WT strain in the presence of GT to determine which genes are under the regulatory control of RglT in these conditions.

In the WT strain, 260 genes were down-regulated and 270 genes up-regulated when comparing the GT to the control condition (Supplementary Table S1). FunCat (Functional Categorisation) (https://elbe.hki-jena.de/fungifun/fungifun.php) analysis for the WT strain comparisons showed a transcriptional up-regulation of genes coding for proteins involved in non-vesicular ER transport, translation, mitochondrion, respiration and electron transport (*p*-value < 0.01; Figure 1A). FunCat analysis for the down-regulated genes showed enrichment for genes involved in homeostasis of metal ions, detoxification involving cytochrome P450, C-compound and carbohydrate metabolism, and secondary metabolism (*p*-value < 0.01; Figure 1A). When comparing the WT to the Δ*rglT* strain in the presence of GT, a total of 269 genes were down-regulated and 694 genes were up-regulated (Supplementary Table S2). FunCat enrichment analysis of these DEGs showed a transcriptional up-regulation of genes encoding proteins involved in secondary metabolism, C-compound and carbohydrate metabolism, cellular import, and siderophore-iron transport (*p*-value < 0.01; Figure 1B). FunCat analysis of down-regulated DEGs showed enrichment of transport facilities, lipid, fatty acid and isoprenoid metabolism, and homeostasis of cations (*p*-value < 0.01; Figure 1B). These results suggest that *A. fumigatus* adapts to the prolonged presence of GT through transcriptionally inducing cellular homeostasis and detoxification processes and that RglT is important for these processes.

More specifically, RglT is important for the expression of 11 out of the 13
genes present in the GT BGC (including *gliT* and *gliA*) as well as *gtmA* (which is
not part of the GT BGC) in the presence of exogenous GT (Figure 1C).
Interestingly, *gliI* and *gliJ* expression is not altered by the presence of GT in the
WT and in the Δ*rglT* strains (Figure 1C), suggesting that the regulation of the
expression of these two genes is not affected by exposure to GT and are not
under the regulatory control of RglT. RNA-seq analysis also revealed
transcriptional modulation of other SM-encoding genes. For example, BGC
genes encoding components for the biosynthesis of pyripyropene,
naphthopyrone, fumagillin, fumiquinazolines, and fumigaclavine were shown to
be under the transcriptional control of RglT, with this TF repressing these genes
under prolonged GT exposing conditions (Figure 1D).

These results suggest that RglT is important not only for GT biosynthesis
and self-protection, but also for the regulation of the expression of genes involved
in the production of other SMs.

Comparison of the *A. fumigatus* and *A. nidulans* transcriptional responses
when exposed to GT. Next, we performed RNA-seq for the *A. nidulans* WT and
Δ*rglT* strains in the same conditions (5 µg/ml GT for 3 h) as described above.
DEGs were defined as those with a minimum log2 fold change of 2 [log2FC ≥ 1.0
and ≤ -1.0; *p*-value < 0.05; FDR (false discovery rate) of 0.05]. The same two
comparisons were carried out as described above for *A. fumigatus* (WT GT vs.
WT Control and Δ*rglT* GT vs WT GT). In the *A. nidulans* WT strain, 678 genes
were down-regulated and 675 genes were up-regulated when comparing the GT
to the control condition (Supplementary Table S3). We were not able to observe
any Funcat enrichment for these DEGs and then we employed gene ontology
(GO; https://elbe.hki-jena.de/fungifun/fungifun.php) enrichment analyses for the
WT strain that showed transcriptional up-regulation of genes coding for proteins
involved in mitochondrial function, such as ATP synthesis coupled proton
transport and cytochrome-c oxidase activity, as well as ergot alkaloid biosynthetic
process and a heterogeneous set of cellular components (*p*-value < 0.01; Figure
2A). GO analysis for the down-regulated genes showed enrichment for a

heterogeneous set of genes involved in biological processes and cellular components (p-value < 0.01; Figure 2A). When comparing the WT to the Δ*rglT* strain in the presence of GT, 132 genes were down-regulated and 68 genes were up-regulated (Supplementary Table S4). GO enrichment analyses of the Δ*rglT* strain showed a transcriptional up-regulation of genes encoding proteins involved in nucleotide binding and cellular components (p-value < 0.01; Figure 2B). GO analysis of down-regulated DEGs in the Δ*rglT* strain showed enrichment of flavin adenine dinucleotide binding and oxidation-reduction processes (p-value < 0.01; Figure 2B). In contrast to *A. fumigatus*, where prolonged exposure to GT resulted in 530 identified DEG in the WT strain (about 5,3 % of the *A. fumigatus* 9,929 protein coding sequences, CDSs), in *A. nidulans* 1,353 DEG (about 13,5 % of the *A. nidulans* 9,956 CDSs) were identified in the WT strain in these conditions. Similarly, in *A. fumigatus*, RglT controls the expression of 963 genes (about 9,7 % of the CDSs) when exposed to GT for 3 h, whereas the number of genes regulated by RglT in *A. nidulans* is smaller (200 genes, about 2 % of the CDSs). Together, these results suggest very significant differences in the transcriptional response to GT and for the role of RglT in mediating this response between *Aspergilus* species.

To determine whether a conserved transcriptional response to GT in both *A. fumigatus* and *A. nidulans* exists, we searched for homologous genes whose expression pattern was similar (i) between the WT strains and (ii) RglT-dependent in both fungal species in the presence of GT. When *A. fumigatus* wild-type DEGs were compared to *A. nidulans* wild-type DEGs, 35 and 11 homologues were up- and down-regulated in both species, respectively (Supplementary Table S3). Furthermore, a total of 12 genes were found: six genes were dependent on RglT for expression [GliT (AN3963/AFUA_6G09740), a methyltransferase (AN3717/AFUA_6G1278), GprM (AN3567/AFUA_7G05300), a Major Facilitator Superfamily transporter (AN1472/AFUA_8G04630), AN8167/AFUA_5G02950, and AN1470/AFUA_5G8G04260 with unknown functions]; and the other six genes were dependent on RglT for repression [lysozyme activity (AN6470/AFUA_6G10130), L-PSP endoribonuclease (AN5543/AFUA_5G033780), oxidoreductase activity (AN3279/AFUA_5G09290 and AN9051/AFUA_7G00700), NmrA-transcription factor

(AN9531/AFUA_7G06920), and an ATP-binding cassette transporter
(AN7879/AFUA_1G10390)] (Figure 2C and Supplementary Table S4).

We observed 43 homologues that were RglT-independent (Supplementary
Table S4) and among them, we identified as induced by GT a putative cysteine
synthase (AN7113/AFUA_4G03930) and ZrcA, a zinc/cadmium resistance
protein (AN10876/AFUA_7G06570) (Supplementary Table S4). Another RglT-
independent gene is the GliT homologue AN6963/AFUA_5G03540; interestingly,
this gene is upregulated in *A. nidulans* and downregulated in *A. fumigatus* upon
GT exposure (Supplementary Table S4).

RNA-seq results were confirmed by RT-qPCR for the majority of the 9
selected *A. fumigatus/A. nidulans* homologues and for the *A. fumigatus* GtmA-
encoding gene (*A. nidulans* lacks a homologue) (Figures 2D and 2E and
Supplementary Figure S1). The expression of these 10 genes showed a high
level of correlation with the RNA-seq data (Pearson correlation from 0.896 to
0.952; Figure 2E).

Taken together, our results suggest that the transcriptional response of *A.*
fumigatus and *A. nidulans* to GT is very different, although we were able to
observe 55 homologues shared between both species.

Screening of *A. fumigatus* TF deletion strains for sensitivity to GT. Our RNA-
seq results suggest there are DEGs that are not dependent on RglT and could
be important for GT protection in *Aspergilli*. To identify TFs involved in the GT
self-protection response, we took advantage of the existing *A. fumigatus* TF null
deletion library (Furukawa *et al.*, 2020) which we screened for sensitivity to 35
µg/ml of GT (*A. fumigatus* minimal inhibitory concentration for GT is 70 µg/ml). In
addition to Δ*rglT*, 15 null mutants exhibited increased sensitivity to 35 µg/ml of
GT [ΔAFUA_06800 (Δ*kojR*), ΔAFUA_2G17860, ΔAFUA_3G13920 (Δ*rgdA*),
ΔAFUA_5G12060, ΔAFUA_5G11260 (Δ*sreA*), ΔAFUA_8G07360,
ΔAFUA_8G07280, ΔAFUA_4G13060, ΔAFUA_5G14390, ΔAFUA_6G09870,
ΔAFUA_3G01100, ΔAFUA_8G03970, ΔAFUA_6G09930 (Δ*yap1*),
ΔAFUA_3G09670 (Δ*oefC*), and ΔAFUA_8G05460] (Table 1 and Figure 3). Only
AFUA_3G09670 (*oefA*) is up-regulated in the Δ*rglT* mutant and only

AFUA_4G13060 is up-regulated in the wild-type strain in our RNA-seq experiments (Supplementary Tables S1 and S2).

Previous studies have shown that GT biosynthesis and self-protection is intimately linked to sulfur metabolism, oxidative stress resistance, as well as iron and zinc metabolism (Mukherjee *et al.* 2018; Winkelströter *et al.*, 2015; Jain *et al.*, 2011; Seo *et al.*, 2019; Vicentefranqueira *et al.*, 2018; Traynor *et al.*, 2018). To identify if any of the TFs identified in the screen are associated with these pathways, the null mutants were screened for growth in the presence of (i) methionine or cysteine as single sulfur sources; (ii) oxidative stress-inducing agents such as allyl alcohol (converted to the oxidative stress-inducing compound acrolein by alcohol dehydrogenases), *t*-butyl hydroxyperoxide, menadione, and diamide (a GSH scavenger); and (iii) increased and depleted extracellular iron and zinc concentrations (Figure 4). None of these mutants showed altered growth compared to the WT strain in the presence of methionine or cysteine as single sulfur sources (Supplementary Figure S2). Six of the deletion strains [Δ*rglT*, Δ*sreA* (ΔAFUA_5G12060), ΔAFUA_5G140390, Δ*yap1* (ΔAFUA_6G09930), ΔAFUA_6G09870, and ΔAFUA_8G07360] were sensitive to at least one of the four oxidative stress-inducing agents (Figures 4A to 4D). Interestingly, ΔAFUA_8G07360 is resistant to diamide (Figure 4D). Four strains (ΔAFUA_3G13920, ΔAFUA_5G11260, ΔAFUA_3G01100 and ΔAFUA_8G03970) had increased growth, while ΔAFUA_3G09670, ΔAFUA_5G06800, and ΔAFUA_5G12060 presented significantly decreased growth in iron starvation conditions (Figures 4F). Intriguingly, ΔAFUA_8G05460 had reduced growth upon zinc starvation but increased growth upon zinc excess (Figures 4G and 4H). The Δ*rglT* mutant has reduced growth in zinc starvation conditions but had increased growth in iron starvation conditions (Figures 4F and 4H).

Taken together, these results strongly suggest that some of the mutants identified as more sensitive to GT are also involved in pathways related to oxidative stress and iron and zinc metabolism.

Production of gliotoxin and BmGT in the gliotoxin sensitive mutants. The Δ*rglT* and Δ*gliT* strains are not only sensitive to exogenous GT, but they also secrete significantly less GT (Schrettl *et al.*, 2010; Ries *et al.*, 2020). To determine if the TF deletion strains from our screen are also impaired for GT and bmGT biosynthesis and secretion, we quantified extracellular GT and bmGT in culture supernatants of these strains when grown in GT-inducing conditions. As previously demonstrated (Ries *et al.*, 2020), high performance liquid chromatography and mass spectrometry experiments showed that Δ*rglT* has reduced GT and produces a similar of bmGT when compared to the WT and *rglT* complemented strains (Supplementary Table S5, Figures 5A to 5C). The Δ*kojR* (ΔAFUA_5G06800), ΔAFUA_2G17860, Δ*rgdA* (ΔAFUA_3G13920), ΔAFUA_5G12060, Δ*sreA* (ΔAFUA_5G11260), and ΔAFUA_8G07360 strains secrete significantly less GT when compared to the WT strain (Figures 5A and 5C). In contrast, the ΔAFUA_8G03970, ΔAFUA_6G09930, and Δ*oefC* (ΔAFUA_3G09670) strains secrete significantly more GT than the WT strain (Figures 5A and 5C). Production of bmGT is decreased in the Δ*kojR* (ΔAFUA_5G06800) but increased in most of the strains (10 out of 16), with the exception of Δ*rglT*, ΔAFUA_2G17860, ΔAFUA_3G13920, ΔAFUA_5G12060, and Δ*sreA* (ΔAFUA_5G11260) which produce similar concentrations of bmGT than the WT strain (Figures 5B and 5C). Interestingly, the Δ*kojR* (ΔAFUA_5G06800) strain is the only TF deletion strain with reduced GT and bmGT levels (Figures 5A to 5C), whilst the ΔAFUA_8G03970, ΔAFUA_6G09930, and Δ*oefC* (ΔAFUA_3G09670) strains have increased levels of GT and bmGT in the supernatants (Figures 5A to 5C).

Our results indicate that several TFs are involved in the induction or repression of GT and bmGT biosynthesis. In contrast, only for the Δ*kojR* strain are GT and bmGT extracellular levels significantly decreased, and we have chosen this TF for further characterisation.

RglT and KojR are important for GT protection in *Aspergilli*. We have previously shown that RglT and GliT in *A. fumigatus* and *A. nidulans* have a similar role in protecting each fungus from the deleterious effects of GT (Ries *et al.*, 2020). Homologues of RglT and GliT are present in a number of

Eurotiomycetes and Sordariomycetes suggesting that this mechanism of GT protection is widespread, including in many species that are not GT producers (Ries *et al.*, 2020). Phylogenetically informed model testing led to an evolutionary scenario in which the GliT-based resistance mechanism is ancestral and RglT-mediated regulation of GliT occurred subsequently (Ries *et al.*, 2020). To determine whether a phylogenetic relationship exists between RglT and KojR, we screened for the presence of GT and kojic acid BGCs as well as RglT and KojR homologues across *Aspergillus* and *Penicillium* species and constructed a phylogenetic tree (Figure 6A). Results suggest that their origins predate the origin of both genera. In contrast, homologues of the kojic acid BGC are present in only *A. oryzae* and close relatives (Figure 6A). In contrast to RglT and GliT, examination of the phylogenetic distribution patterns of RglT and KojR revealed that they are not significantly correlated (scenario A). The same was true for KojR and the kojic acid BGC, suggesting that KojR was recruited specifically for kojic acid biosynthesis in *A. oryzae* and close relatives. In contrast, the distribution of the GT biosynthetic gene cluster is correlated with the presence of *RglT* (scenario B; Ries et al., 2020), but not vice-versa; however, scenario A (lack of correlation between their distributions) also fit the observed data well (Table 2).

To determine whether KojR is also required for protection from GT in other fungi, the corresponding homologous genes were deleted in *A. nidulans* (chosen because it does not produce either GT or kojic acid) and *A. oryzae* (produces kojic acid). Similarly to *A. fumigatus*, deletion of *kojR* significantly increased sensitivity to exogenously added GT in all three species (Figures 6B, 6C and 6D). In contrast to the deletion of *rglT*, deletion of *kojR* still conferred some resistance to exogenous GT (Figures 6B, 6C and 6D), suggesting that RglT functions downstream of KojR and/or that RglT is regulated by KojR in these conditions. To address this, the *A. oryzae* WT, the *rglT* and the *kojR* deletion strains were first screened for kojic acid production, which can be seen by the intensity of the red color (formed by chelating ferric ions) on plates. As expected, deletion of *kojR* resulted in the absence of red colour and hence kojic acid production, whereas deletion of *rglT* did not affect kojic acid production in *A. oryzae* (Figure 6E). These results suggest that RglT does not regulate kojic acid production in *A. oryzae*. To determine whether *rglT* is under the transcriptional control of KojR in the presence

of GT, *rglT* transcript levels were quantified by RT-qPCR in the WT and *kojR* deletion strains (Figure 7A). In the *A. fumigatus* and *A. oryzae* Δ*kojR* strains, *rglT* transcript levels were significantly reduced, suggesting that KojR regulates *rglT* expression in the presence of exogenous GT (Figure 7A). To determine whether KojR is under the transcriptional control of RglT in the presence of GT, transcriptional levels of *kojR* in the *A. fumigatus* and *A. oryzae rglT* deletion strains were measured by RT-qPCR (Figure 7B). In *A. fumigatus* and *A. oryzae*, deletion of *rglT* resulted in significantly decreased and increased *kojR* transcript levels, respectively, suggesting that RglT regulates *kojR* in these fungi. We were unable to measure the expression levels of *A. nidulans kojR* and *rglT* in the absence or presence of GT because the PCR amplification profiles were similar to the negative control (water), suggesting *kojR* and *rglT* have very low levels of expression in this fungus.

Finally, we further assessed the role of KojR in GT protection in *A. fumigatus*, *A. nidulans*, and *A. oryzae*. We were unable to detect any GT and bmGT production in *A. oryzae* wild-type, RglT and KojR (Supplementary Figure S3). We previously demonstrated that the expression of *gliT*, encoding an oxidoreductase with a GT neutralising function, is dependent on RglT in both *A. fumigatus* and *A. nidulans* when GT was added exogenously to the medium (Ries *et al.*, 2020; Figures 2C and 7C). In agreement with these data, the expression of *A. oryzae gliT* is decreased in the Δ*rglT* mutant, suggesting that *gliT* expression is dependent on RglT in all three *Aspergillus* species (Figure 7C). Furthermore, *gliT* expression was also dependent on KojR in these fungal species with KojR inducing *gliT* expression in *A. fumigatus* and *A. oryzae* and repressing *gliT* in *A. nidulans* (Figure 7E). Subsequently, *gtmA* transcript levels were also quantified as *gtmA* is also important for GT self-protection (Dolan *et al.*, 2014). The expression of *gtmA* is also decreased in both the *A. fumigatus* and *A. oryzae* Δ*rglT* and Δ*kojR* mutants (Figures 7D and 7F). No *gtmA* homologue is present in *A. nidulans*.

Together these results suggest: (i) a regulatory interplay exists between RglT and KojR in GT protection that differs between *Aspergillus* spp; (ii) RglT-dependent GliT protection from exogenous GT is a conserved mechanism in GT-producing and non-producing *Aspergillus* spp; (iii) GT protection mechanisms

appear to be similar in GT-producing *Aspergillus* spp; and (iv) the existence of

further mechanisms of GT self-protection that significantly differ between GT-

producing and non-producing *Aspergillus spp*.

Discussion

The transcriptional regulation of GT biosynthesis requires many

components including TFs, protein kinases, G-protein signalling and chromatin

modifying enzymes, which together integrate different signaling pathways (Dolan

et al., 2015). In addition, GT biosynthesis requires GSH, of which the sulfur-

containing amino acids methionine and cysteine are biosynthetic precursors; and

GT biosynthesis is linked to cellular oxidative stress in mammalian and fungal

cells via a yet to be described mechanism (Davis et al., 2011; Struck et al., 2012;

Amich et al., 2013; Sheridan et al., 2016; Traynor et al., 2019). In addition, GT

self-protection is essential during GT biosynthesis. The three main mechanisms

of GT self-protection in *A. fumigatus* are the GT-neutralising oxidoreductase GliT,

the GT efflux pump GliA, and the negative regulation of GT biosynthesis through

GtmA (Dolan *et al.*, 2015). RglT was recently identified as the main TF controlling

the expression of *gliT* and of *gtmA* in *A. fumigatus*. The RglT homologue is also

important for *gliT* expression and GT protection in the non-GT producer *A.*

nidulans (Ries *et al.*, 2020). Despite this similarity, *A. nidulans* does not encode

homologues of GtmA and GliA, suggesting that (i) these GT protection

mechanisms are not required or that (ii) additional, unknown GT protection

mechanisms exist in this fungus. It is perhaps not surprising that GtmA and GliA

are not present in *A. nidulans*, because as a non-GT producing fungus, GtmA-

mediated attenuation of GT biosynthesis and GT efflux are not required. We

currently do not know how the presence of GT is signalled and/or whether this

mycotoxin can be taken up by *A. nidulans*. In this work, the transcriptional

response of *A. fumigatus* and *A. nidulans* upon prolonged exposure to GT was

analysed and found to be significantly different between both fungal species. In

agreement, the RglT-dependent regulome in both fungal species is also very

different. This may be due to the evolutionary distance between both fungal

species which share around 66-67% of amino acid identity, a protein identity comparable to the phylogenetic relationship between mammals and fish (Galagan et al., 2005). Despite this, our dataset also identified a conserved transcriptional response. These genes encode proteins important for gliotoxin modification, such as the observed RglT-dependent putative methyltransferase (AN3717/AFUA_6G1278) and two putative oxidoreductases (AN3279/AFUA_5G09290 and AN9051/AFUA_7G00700), attenuating directly or indirectly its activity. The importance of these genes in these processes remains to be investigated.

To further identify conserved components important for GT self-protection, we screened the *A. fumigatus* TF deletion library to identify TFs important for this process. We identified 15 TFs (4 have been characterized and 11 have not been characterized), whose deletion caused a significant decrease in growth in the presence of exogenous GT. The 11 uncharacterized TFs can broadly be classed into 4 categories based on their respective GT and bmGT biosynthesis profiles: (i) AFUA_2G17860 and AFUA_5G12060 (whose deletion mutants are GT non-producers and bmGT producers), (ii) AFUA_3G01100, AFUA_5G14390, AFUA_4G13060, AFUA_6G09870, AFUA_8G07280 and AFUA_8G05460 (whose deletion mutants are GT producers and bmGT overproducers), (iii) AFUA_8G03970 and *oefC* (AFUA_3G09670, whose deletion mutants are GT and bmGT overproducers) and (iv) AFUA_8G07360 (whose deletion mutant is a GT non-producer and bmGT overproducer). They present interesting targets for future mycotoxin-related studies.

In addition, our work identified an additional 4 TFs, which have previously been characterized, as important for GT biosynthesis. Yap1 (AFUA_6G09930, whose deletion mutant is a GT overproducer and bmGT overproducer) is an important regulator of resistance to oxidative stress (Qiao *et al.*, 2008). SreA (AFUA_5G11260, whose deletion mutant is a GT non-producer and bmGT producer) regulates iron uptake, through repressing iron-regulated genes and siderophore biosynthesis genes in high-iron conditions (Schrettl *et al.*, 2008). The identification of these TFs emphasizes the close connection between GT production and oxidative stress and iron metabolism (Dolan *et al.*, 2015; Winkelströter *et al.*, 2015; Jain *et al.*, 2011; Sheridan *et al.*, 2016). RgdA

(AFUA_3G13920, whose deletion mutant is a GT non-producer and bmGT producer) has previously been reported as important for hyphal growth, asexual sporulation and virulence (Jun *et al.*, 2020). In contrast to our results, these authors observed increased GT production in the Δ*rgdA* mutant, which may be due to the fact they have used Af293 as a background strain for the *rgdA* deletion mutant whereas this work used CEA17 as a background strain (Jun *et al.*, 2020). Differences in cellular responses between these two *A. fumigatus* background strains have been reported before and include the role of the calcium-responsive TF CrzA during the caspofungin paradoxical effect (Ries et al., 2017). KojR (AFUA_5G06800, whose deletion mutant is a GT non-producer and bmGT non-producer) is the *A. oryzae* homologue involved in the production of kojic acid (Terabayashi *et al*, 2010). It is perhaps not surprising that our work identified Yap1, SreA and RgdA as involved in GT biosynthesis and self-protection, as oxidative stress, iron metabolism, and fungal growth have all been shown to be important for GT and/or SM biosynthesis (Dolan *et al.*, 2015; Winkelströter *et al.*, 2015; Jain *et al.*, 2011; Sheridan *et al.*, 2016). In contrast, the deletion of *kojR* was the only mutant strain where no GT and bmGT was observed, suggesting that this TF is important for GT metabolism. The role of this TF in GT protection was therefore further characterised in GT-producing *A. fumigatus* and non-producing (*A. nidulans* and *A. oryzae*) *Aspergillus* species. These results expand significantly the number of TFs involved, and suggest additional complex mechanisms in regulating GT protection and production. These results expand significantly the number of TFs involved in GT biosynthesis and self-protection, and suggest additional complex mechanisms in regulating the processes.

We were able to show a conserved mechanism of protection from GT in these three fungi whereby deletion of *kojR* and *rglT* increases sensitivity to exogenous GT. This protection is likely to occur through the RglT-dependent regulation of GliT, where expression of *gliT* is dependent on RglT in the presence of GT in the three fungal species. Future studies will determine growth of the respective *gliT* deletion strains in order to confirm this conserved mechanism of GT protection in *Aspergillus* species. The expression of *gliT* is also dependent on KojR in all three fungi in the presence of GT; however, KojR is required for *gliT* expression in the GT-producing fungi *A. fumigatus* and *A. nidulans*, whereas KojR

represses *gliT* in *A. nidulans*, which does not produce GT. These results suggest
that KojR-dependent regulation of *gliT* differs between GT-producing and non-
producing *Aspergillus* species and these results are in agreement with our *A.*
fumigatus/*A. nidulans* RNA-seq dataset. It remains to be determined how KojR
protects *A. nidulans* from GT if this does not involve the expression of GliT. It is
possible that another oxidoreductase is involved in GT self-protection. Indeed
several oxidoreductase-encoding genes were identified as highly up-regulated in
our RNA-seq dataset, although their function remains to be determined.

Adding to this complexity, is the interplay of regulation between the TFs
RglT and KojR in the presence of GT. Unfortunately we could not detect
significant levels of *rglT* and *kojR* in *A. nidulans* in these conditions and thus the
mechanism of how RglT, KojR, and GliT confer GT protection in this GT non-
producing fungus remains unknown. In *A. fumigatus* and *A. oryzae*, *rglT*
expression is dependent on KojR and we suggest here that KojR directly
regulates *rglT* and indirectly *gliT*. This regulatory hierarchy would therefore confer
protection from GT in these fungi. Future experiments will include binding targets
of KojR in order to confirm this hypothesis. In *A. fumigatus, kojR* expression is
dependent on RglT whereas in *A. oryzae kojR* repression is dependent on RglT.
These results suggest that differences in the regulation of both TFs in these fungi.

Although *A. oryzae* has the GT BGC, we were unable to detect GT
production in the *A. oryzae* wild-type, Δ*rglT* and Δ*kojR* strains (Supplementary
Figure S3). Since in *A. fumigatus*, *gliT* and *gtmA* expression are not dependent
on GliZ, a possible explanation for not detecting GT production is that GT
production and secretion was lost in *A. oryzae.* However, RglT and KojR are still
regulating *A. oryzae gliT* and *gtmA. A. oryzae* strains have been selected for
millenia for the saccharification of starch-rich rice to sugars that are fermentable
by *S. cerevisiae* into sake, the high-alcohol rice wine (Yoshizawa, 1999). The *A.*
oryzae-rice mixture (*koji*-culture) is mixed with additional steamed rice and
fermented by *S. cerevisiae*. This *A. oryzae* rice starch breakdown and
subsequent conversion into alcohol by *S. cerevisiae* occurs side by side
(Yoshizawa, 1999). Extensive genome analysis suggested that, through selection
by humans, atoxigenic lineages of *A. oryzae* evolved into "cell factories" important
for the saccharification process (Gibbons *et al.*, 2012). Interestingly, production

of the secondary metabolite kojic acid was retained in these strains during the *koji*-culture (Terabayashi *et al*, 2010). The kojic acid gene cluster is one of the simplest clusters of secondary metabolite production ever reported, composed by three genes: an enzyme containing a FAD-dependent oxidoreductase domain, a transporter, and a *kojR* encoding a GAL4-like Zn(II)2Cys6 transcription factor (Terabayashi *et al*, 2010; Rokas *et al.*, 2018). As expected, *A. oryzae* Δ*kojR* is unable to produce kojic acid (Terabayashi *et al*, 2010) but there is no involvement of RglT in kojic acid production. Interestingly, we observed that both *A. fumigatus* and *A. oryzae* Δ*rglT* and Δ*kojR* are more sensitive to GT and involved in the positive regulation of the oxidoreductase *gliT* and *gtmA*. Although *gliT* expression is reduced in *A. nidulans* Δ*rglT*, it is increased in Δ*kojR*, suggesting the mechanism of *gliT* regulation is distinct in this species. Since GliT is essential for *A. nidulans* GT detoxification, these results indicate that increased expression of *gliT* in the *A. nidulans* Δ*kojR* strain is not enough to confer GT resistance to *A. nidulans*. These results suggest that KojR is also important for GT detoxification in a GT non-producer and that there are additional mechanisms of GT detoxification regulated by KojR in *A. nidulans*.

Our work provides new opportunities to understand GT production and protection, and also highlights significant differences in transcriptional responses to extracellular mycotoxins between fungal species. More importantly, the identification of a conserved transcriptional response to exogenous GT in different *Aspergillus* species provides a basis for future studies which will further decipher these protection pathways, potentially leading to the development of anti-fungal strategies.

Materials and Methods

Strains and media. All strains used in this study are listed in Supplementary Table S6. Strains were grown at 37 °C except for growth on allyl alcohol-containing solid medium, which was carried out at 30°C. Conidia of *A. fumigatus* and *A. nidulans* were grown on complete medium (YG) [2% (w/v) glucose, 0.5% (w/v) yeast extract, trace elements] or minimal media (MM) [1% (w/v) glucose,

nitrate salts, trace elements, pH 6.5]. Solid YG and MM were the same as described above with the addition of 2% (w/v) agar. Where necessary, uridine and uracil (1.2 g/L) were added. Trace elements, vitamins, and nitrate salt compositions were as described previously (KAFER, 1977). Potato Dextrose Agar (PDA, Difco™) was used for *A. oryzae*. For iron or zinc starvation or excess experiments, strains were growth in solid MM without $FeSO_4$ or zinc. For phenotypic characterization, plates were inoculated with 10^4 spores per strain and left to grow for 120 h at 37 or 30 °C. All radial growth experiments were expressed as ratios, dividing colony radial diameter of growth in the stress condition by colony radial diameter in the control (no stress) condition.

Phylogenomic inference of *Aspergillus – Penicillium* species phylogeny. Publicly available gene annotations for *Aspergillus* and *Penicillium* species (n=55) were downloaded from NCBI in February 2021. OrthoFinder, v2.3.8 (Emms and Kelly, 2019), was used to identify orthologous groups of genes using the protein sequences of the 55 proteomes as input. From the 18,979 orthologous groups of genes, 1,133 were identified to be single-copy and present in all proteomes. All 1,133 genes were aligned using MAFFT, v7.402 (Katoh and Standley, 2013), with the 'auto' option. The corresponding nucleotide sequences were threaded onto the protein alignments using the 'thread_dna' function in PhyKIT, v1.1.2 (Steenwyk et al., 2021). The resulting nucleotide alignments were trimmed using ClipKIT, v1.1.3 (Steenwyk et al., 2020), with the 'smart-gap' option. All 1,133 genes were concatenated into a single matrix with 2,446,740 sites using the 'create_concat' function in PhyKIT (Steenwyk et al., 2021). The resulting alignment was used to reconstruct the evolutionary history of the 55 species using IQ-TREE, v2.0.6 (Minh et al., 2020). During tree search, the number of trees maintained during maximum likelihood inference was increased from five to ten using the 'nbest' option. Bipartition support was assessed using 1,000 ultrafast bootstrap approximations (Hoang et al., 2018).

Comparison of the inferred phylogeny showed that it was nearly identical to the phylogeny inferred in a previous genome-scale examination of evolutionary relationships among *Aspergillus* and *Penicillium* species (Steenwyk et al., 2019). Minor differences were observed among bipartitions previously determined to

harbor high levels of incongruence. These differences concern the placements of
Penicillium decumbens and *Aspergillus awamori*. Differences in gene and taxon
sampling may be responsible for these incongruences. All bipartitions received
full support.

Identifying homologous biosynthetic gene clusters and orthologs of *RglT*
and *kojR*. To identify homologs of the biosynthetic gene clusters involved in the
production of gliotoxin and kojic acid, the 13 protein sequences of the gliotoxin
cluster from *Aspergillus fumigatus* and the three protein sequences of the kojic
acid cluster from *Aspergillus oryzae* were used as queries during sequence
similarity searches to identify homologs in the 55 proteomes. Sequence similarity
searches were conducted using NCBI's blastp function from BLAST+, v 2.3.0
(Camacho et al., 2009), with an expectation value threshold of 1e-4. Across all
homologs, the physical proximity of each gene was assessed. We considered
biosynthetic gene clusters to be homologous if 7 / 13 genes from the gliotoxin
biosynthetic gene cluster were present including the nonribosomal peptide
synthase, *gliP*. For the kojic acid biosynthetic gene cluster, we required that 2 / 3
genes from the kojic acid cluster were present including *kojA*, the oxidoreductase
required for kojic acid production (Tamano *et al.*, 2019). When examining gene
proximity, a gene boundary distance of five genes was used. To identify genes
orthologous to *RglT* and *kojR*, OrthoFinder results were parsed to identify genes
in the same orthologous group as each gene.

Testing the association of the phylogenetic distributions of *kojR* and *RglT*.
To evaluate if the distributions of *kojR*, *RglT*, and their BGCs on the species
phylogeny are significantly associated, we examined the correlation of the
phylogenetic distribution of the presence and absence patterns of the two genes
on the species phylogeny. We used Pagel's binary character correlation test
implemented in phytools, v0.7-70 (Revell, 2012) to examine four scenarios: the
distributions of two genes / BGCs are not correlated (scenario A), the distribution
of one gene is correlated with the distribution of another gene / BGC but not vice
versa (scenarios B and C), and the distributions of two genes / BGCs are

correlated (scenario D). The best fitting model was then determined using the
weighted Akaike information criterion (AIC).

Generation of deletion mutants for *A. oryzae kojR* and *rglT, A. nidulans kojR*
and *A. fumigatus ΔkojR::kojR+*.. The DNA fragment for *kojR* deletion, using the
A. oryzae orotidine-5′-decarboxylase gene (*pyrG*) as a selectable marker, was
generated by fusion polymerase chain reaction (PCR) as follows: DNA fragments
upstream and downstream of the *kojR* coding region were amplified by PCR
using *A. oryzae* genomic DNA as a template and the primer sets BR-TF040-L-F
+ BR-TF040-L-R and BR-TF040-R-F + BR-TF040-R-R, respectively. The *pyrG*
fragment was amplified by PCR using *A. oryzae* genomic DNA as a template and
the primers BR-TF040-P-F and BR-TF040-P-R. Then, these three PCR
fragments were mixed, and a second round of PCR with the primers BR-TF040-
L-F and BR-TF040-R-R was performed. For *rglT* deletion, DNA fragments
upstream and downstream of the *rglT* coding region were amplified by PCR using
the primer sets BR-TF390-L-F + BR-TF390-L-R and BR-TF390-R-F + BR-TF390-
R-R, respectively. The *pyrG* fragment was amplified by PCR using the primers
BR-TF390-P-F and BR-TF390-P-R. These three PCR fragments were mixed,
and a second round of PCR without primers was carried out. Then, a third round
of PCR with BR-TF390-L-F_Nest and BR-TF390-R-R_Nest was performed. The
resultant PCR fragments were introduced into the recipient strain RkuN16ptr1
($\Delta ku70::ptrA$, $pyrG^-$) according to (Jin *et al.*, 2011).

In *A. nidulans*, the *kojR* gene was deleted using a gene replacement
cassette which was constructed by *"in vivo"* recombination in *S. cerevisiae* as
previously described by Colot *et al.* (2006). Thus, approximately 2.0 kb from the
5'-UTR and 3'-UTR flanking region of the targeted ORF regions were selected for
primer design. The primers AN4118 (kojR)_pRS426_5UTR_fw and
AN4118_pRS426_3UTR_rv contained a short homologous sequence to the MCS
of the plasmid pRS426. Both the 5- and 3-UTR fragments were PCR-amplified
from *A. nidulans* genomic DNA (TNO2A3 strain). The *pyrG* gene placed within
the cassette as a prototrophic marker was amplified from pCDA21 plasmid using
the primers AN4118_5UTR_pyrG_rv and AN4118_3UTR_pyrG_fw. The cassette

was PCR-amplified from these plasmids utilizing TaKaRa Ex Taq™ DNA
Polymerase (Clontech Takara Bio) and used for *A. nidulans* transformation.

Complementation of the kojR gene in *A. fumigatus* was achieved via
cotransformation. A fragment containing the kojR gene flanked by 1-kb 5′ and 3′
UTR regions was PCR amplified (primers AfukojR complemented 5UTR pRS fw
and AfukojR complemented 3UTR pRS rv). This DNA fragment was transformed
into the Δ*kojR* strain along with the plasmid pPTR1 (TaKaRa Bio) containing the
pyrithiamine resistance ptrA gene. Mutants were selected on MM supplemented
with 1 μg ml−1 pyrithiamine and confirmed with PCR using the external primers
(AfukojR 5UTR ext fw and AfukojR 3UTR ext rv). Primer sequences are listed in
Supplementary Table S7.

Screening of *A. fumigatus* transcription factor deletion strains. A library of
484 *A. fumigatus* TFKO (transcription factor knock out) strains (Furukawa et al.,
2020) was screened for sensitivity to gliotoxin. To verify this sensitivity, gliotoxin
concentrations lower than the minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) for the *A.*
fumigatus wild type strain, CEA17, (70μg / mL; Ries et al., 2020) were used.
Conidia were inoculated in 96-well plates at the final concentration of 10^4 spores
/ well, in 200 μl MM supplemented or not with concentrations of gliotoxin ranging
from 35 μg/ml (0.5 x MIC of wt) to 70 μg/ml, and incubated at 37 °C for 48 h.
Three independent experiments were carried out. Validation of this screening
was carried out by growing sensitive strains at the concentration of 10^4 spores in
solid MM plates with 30 μg/ml gliotoxin at 37 °C, for 48 h.

Gliotoxin and Bis(methylthio)gliotoxin Presence Analysis by ultra-high-
performance liquid chromatography (UHPLC) coupled to high-resolution
electrospray ionization mass spectrometry (HRESIMS). All strains were
grown on Czapek Dox Agar (CDA) at 37°C in an incubator (VWR International)
in the dark over four days. To evaluate the biosynthesis of gliotoxin (GT) and
bis(methylthio)gliotoxin (bmGT) in these fungal strains, cultures were extracted
with organic solvents and analyzed by mass spectrometry (see below). The agar
plates were sprayed with MeOH, chopped with a spatula, and then the contents
were transferred into a scintillation vial. Afterwards, acetone (~15 ml) was added

to the scintillation vial, and the resulting slurry was vortexed vigorously for
approximately 3 min and then let too set at RT for 4 h. Next, the mixture was
filtered, and the resulting extract was dried under a stream of nitrogen gas.

HRESIMS experiments utilized a Thermo QExactive Plus mass
spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific), equipped with an electrospray ionization
source. This was coupled to an Acquity UHPLC system (Waters Corp.), using a
flow rate of 0.3 ml/min and a BEH C_{18} column (2.1 mm x 50 mm, 1.7 µm) that
was operated at 40°C. The mobile phase consisted of $CH_3CN–H_2O$ (Fischer
Optima LC-MS grade; both acidified with 0.1% formic acid). The gradient started
at 15% CH_3CN and increased linearly to 100% CH_3CN over 8 min, where it was
held for 1.5 min before returning to starting conditions to re-equilibrate.

Extracts were analyzed in biological triplicates and each of these in
technical triplicate using selected ion monitoring (SIM) in the positive ion mode
with a resolving power of 35,000. For GT, the SIM had an inclusion list containing
the mass $[M+H]^+$ = 327.04677, with an isolation window of 1.8 Da and a retention
window of 2.5 – 5.0 min. For bmGT, the SIM had an inclusion list containing the
mass $[M+H]^+$ = 357.09373, with an isolation window of 1.8 Da and a retention
window of 2.5 – 4.5 min. The extracts, gliotoxin standard (Cayman Chemical),
and bis(methylthio)gliotoxin standard (isolated previously; STEENWYK et al,
2020) were each prepared at a concentration of 2.5 mg/ml for the extracts and
0.01 mg/ml for the standards; all extracts were dissolved in MeOH and injected
with a volume of 3 µl. To eliminate the possibility for sample carryover, two blanks
(MeOH) were injected between every sample, and the standards were analyzed
at the end of of the run.

To ascertain the relative abundance of GT and bmGT in these samples,
batch process methods were run using Thermo Xcalibur (Thermo Fisher
Scientific). For GT, we used a mass range of 327.0437 – 327.0492 Da at a
retention time of 3.24 min with a 5.00 second window. For bmGT, we used a
mass range of 357.0928 – 357.9937 Da at a retention time of 3.30 min with a
5.00 second window.

RNA extraction, RNA-sequencing, cDNA synthesis and RTqPCR. All
experiments were carried out in biological triplicates and conidia (10^7) were
inoculated in liquid MM (*A. fumigatus* and *A. nidulans*), or in Potato Dextrose

Broth (*A. oryzae*). Gliotoxin was added for 3 h to the culture medium to a final concentration of 5 µg/ml after strains were grown for 21 h in MM. As GT was dissolved in DMSO, control cultures received the same volume of DMSO for 3 h. For total RNA isolation, mycelia were ground in liquid nitrogen and total RNA was extracted using TRIzol (Invitrogen), treated with RQ1 RNase-free DNase I (Promega), and purified using the RNAeasy kit (Qiagen) according to the manufacturer's instructions. RNA was quantified using a NanoDrop and Qubit fluorometer, and analyzed using an Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer system to assess the integrity of the RNA. All RNA had an RNA integrity number (RIN) between 8.0 and 10 (Thermo Scientific) according to the manufacturer's protocol.

RNA-sequencing was carried out using Illumina sequencing. The cDNA libraries were constructed using the TruSeq Total RNA with Ribo Zero (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA). From 0.1-1 µg of total RNA, the ribosomal RNA was depleted and the remaining RNA was purified, fragmented and prepared for complementary DNA (cDNA) synthesis, according to manufacturer recommendations. The libraries were validated following the Library Quantitative PCR (qPCR) Quantification Guide (Illumina). Paired-end sequencing was performed on the Illumina NextSeq 500 Sequencing System using NextSeq High Output (2 x 150) kit, according to manufacturer recommendations. The BioProject ID in the NCBI's BioProject database is PRJNA729661.

For RTqPCR, the RNA was reverse transcribed to cDNA using the ImProm-II reverse transcription system (Promega) according to manufacturer's instructions, and the synthesized cDNA was used for real-time analysis using the SYBR green PCR master mix kit (Applied Biosystems) in the ABI 7500 Fast real-time PCR system (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA). Primer sequences are listed in Supplementary Table S7. RNASeq data was processed to select genes for normalization of the qPCR data, applying the method of Yim *et al.* (2015). Briefly, genes with a coefficient of variation smaller than 10%, behaving in a normally distributed manner, and with large expression values (FPKM) were selected. After experimental validation, Afu2g02680 (Putative matrix AAA protease) and AN1191 [Small ubiquitin-like modifier (SUMO) protein]. For *A. oryzae* experiments, *tubA* (AO090009000281) was used as a normalizer.

Kojic Acid (KA) production by *A. oryzae*. KA production by the A. oryzae
strains was detected by the colorimetric method verifying the intensity of the red
color formed by chelating ferric ions (BENTLEY, 1957; TERABAYASHI et al,
2010). The standard medium for KA production [0.25% (w/v) yeast extract, 0.1%
(w/v) K_2HPO_4, 0.05% (w/v) $MgSO4–7H_2O$, and 10% (w/v) glucose, pH 6.0]
containing 1 mM ferric ion ($FeCl_3$) was used for detecting KA production by *A.*
oryzae. The color of the medium turned red, indicating the presence of KA
chelated with ferric ions. This color change could be observed at around 5 days
after cultivation.

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1132 **Figure legends**

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Figure 1 – Functional characterisation (FunCat) of significantly differently
expressed genes (DEGs) identified by RNA-sequencing in the *A. fumigatus*
Δ*rglT* strain. (A) FunCat analysis of DEGs up-regulated in the *A. fumigatus* wild-
type and in (B) Δ*rglT* strain in comparison to the wild-type (WT) strains when
exposed to 5 µg/ml GT for 3 h. (C) Heat map depicting the log2 fold change
(Log2FC) of differentially expressed genes (DEGs), as determined by RNA-
sequencing, and encoding enzymes present in the GT BGC required for GT
biosynthesis. The gene *gtmA* was also included in this heat map. (D) Heat map
depicting the Log2FC of differentially expressed genes (DEGs), as determined
by RNA-sequencing, and encoding enzymes required for secondary metabolite
(SM) biosynthesis. In both (C) and (D) log2FC values are based on the wild-type
strain exposed to GT in comparison to the wild-type control and the Δ*rglT*
exposed to GT in comparison to the wild-type exposed to GT. Heat map scale
and gene identities are indicated. Hierarchical clustering was performed in MeV
(http://mev.tm4.org/), using Pearson correlation with complete linkage clustering.
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Figure 2 – Functional characterisation (FunCat) of significantly differently
expressed genes (DEGs) identified by RNA-sequencing in the *A. nidulans*
Δ*rglT* strain. (A) FunCat analysis of DEGs up-regulated in the *A. nidulans* wild-
type in the presence of GT when compared to the control condition, and in (B)
the Δ*rglT* strain in comparison to the wild-type (WT) strain when exposed to 5
µg/ml GT for 3 h. (C) Heat map depicting the log2 fold change (Log2FC) of
differentially expressed homologous genes (DEHGs), as determined by RNA-

sequencing, that have their expression dependent on RglT. (D) Upper panel: heat map depicting the log2 fold change (Log2FC) of 9 DEHGs and *gtmA* as determined by RNA-sequencing. Lower panel: heat map depicting the log2 fold change (Log2FC) of 9 DEHGs and *gtmA* as determined by RT-qPCR. Log2FC values are based on the *A. fumigatus* (*Afu*) or *A. nidulans* (*Ani*) wild-type strains exposed to GT when compared to the *Afu* or *Ani* wild-type control and the *Afu* or *Ani* Δ*rglT* strains exposed to GT when compared to the *Afu* or *Ani* wild-type exposed to GT. Heat map scale and gene identities are indicated. Hierarchical clustering was performed in MeV (http://mev.tm4.org/), using Pearson correlation with complete linkage clustering. For the RTqPCR experiments, the values represent the average of three independent biological repetitions (each with 2 technical repetitions). (D) Pearson correlation analysis between the expression of 10 genes as measured by RTqPCR and RNA-sequencing. A positive correlation was seen for all analysed datasets.

Figure 3 – Identification *A. fumigatus* TFs important for gliotoxin (GT) self-protection. Strains were grown from 10^7 conidia for 2 days at 37 °C on minimal medium (MM) supplemented with 30 μg/ml GT before colony radial diameter was measured. The results are expressed as the radial diameter of the treatment divided by the radial diameter of the growth in the control GT-free condition. The results are the means of three repetitions ± standard deviation. Statistical analysis was performed using a one-tailed, paired t-test when compared to the control condition (*, $p < 0.005$).

Figure 4 – Growth phenotypes of the *A. fumigatus* GT-sensitive transcription factor deletion strains. Strains were grown from 10^7 conidia for 5 days at 37 °C on minimal medium (MM) supplemented with the indicated compounds. The results are expressed as the radial diameter of the treatment divided by the radial diameter of the growth in the control, drug-free condition. The results are the means of three repetitions ± standard deviation. Statistical analysis was performed using a one-tailed, paired t-test when compared to the control condition (*, $p < 0.005$). (A) MM+Allyl alcohol 40 mM. (B) MM+menadione 0.01 mM. (C) MM+*t*-butyl hydroxyperoxide 1 mM. (D) MM+diamide 1.25 mM. (E)

1190 MM + FeSO$_4$ 200 µM. (F) MM+BPS 200 µM+Ferrozine 300 µM. (G) MM+ZnSO$_4$

1191 200 µM. (H) MM+Phenanthroline 0.025 mM.

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Figure 5 – Production of GT and bmGT in the *A. fumigatus* GT-sensitive TF

deletion strains. (A) Relative abundance of GT and (B) bisdethiobis(methylthio)-

gliotoxin (bmGT) as measured by high performance liquid chromatography

coupled to mass spectrometry. Results are the average of three repetitions ±

standard deviation. Statistical analysis was performed using a one-tailed, paired

t-test when comparing quantities to the relative abundance of the WT strain (*, *p*

< 0.005). (C) Heat map of the results from panels (A) and (B). Heat map scale

and gene identities are indicated. Hierarchical clustering was performed in MeV

(http://mev.tm4.org/), using Pearson correlation with complete linkage clustering.

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Figure 6 – *Aspergilli* RglT and KojR homologues are important for gliotoxin

production and self-protection. (A) Distribution of homologs of the gliotoxin and

kojic acid biosynthetic gene clusters and of the RglT and KojR homologs amongst

Aspergillus and *Penicillium* species. Homologs of the gliotoxin biosynthetic gene

cluster are present across many (but not all) *Aspergillus* and *Penicillium* species,

suggesting that the cluster was present in their common ancestor. Homologs of

the kojic acid biosynthetic gene cluster are present only in *Aspergillus oryzae* and

close relatives, suggesting that the cluster originated much more recently.

Orthologs for RglT and KojR are broadly conserved in both genera, suggesting

they were present in the *Aspergillus – Penicillium* common ancestor. Presence

or absence of biosynthetic gene cluster homologs and of gene orthologs are

depicted in black or white, respectively. (B-D) Pictures and graphs of the *A.*

fumigatus (B), *A. nidulans* (C) and *A. oryzae* (D) wild-type, Δ*rglT*, and Δ*kojR*

strains when grown for 48 h from 10^7 conidia at 37 °C on minimal medium (MM,

A. fumigatus, *A. nidulans*) or PDA (*A. oryzae*) and MM/PDA+30 µg of gliotoxin.

Graphs correspond to the radial diameter of the colony growth that is depicted in

the pictures. Standard deviations represent the average of three biological

replicates with *p < 0.05 in a one-tailed, paired t-test. (E) Detection of kojic acid

(KA) production in *A. oryzae* in medium containing 1 mM ferric ion (FeCl$_3$). A red

colour indicates the presence of KA chelated with ferric ions.

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Figure 7 – GliT and GtmA are dependent on *Aspergilli* RglT and KojR. *A.*

fumigatus, *A. nidulans*, and *A. oryzae* strains were grown for 20 h at 37 °C before

5 µg/ml of GT was added to cultures for 3 hours. RNA was extracted from all

fungal strains, reverse transcribed to cDNA and RT-qPCRs were peformed. The

expression of *gtmA*, *kojR* and *rglT* in the *A. nidulans* WT, Δ*rglT* and Δ*kojR* strains

could not be measured due to either the absence of the gene (*gtmA*) or the

absence of quantifyable mRNA. Results are the average of three biological

replicates ± standard deviation. Statistical analysis was performed using a one-

tailed, paired t-test when compared to the control condition (*, $p < 0.005$). (A-D)

A. fumigatus, *A. nidulans*, and *A. oryzae* wild-type, Δ*rglT*, and Δ*kojR* strains were

grown for 21 h at 37 °C and mycelia was exposed to 5 µg/ml of GT for 3 hours.

RTqPCR analysis for *kojR* (A), *rglT* (B), *gliT* (C and E), and *rglT* (D and F) genes.

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1237   **Supplemental material**

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Supplementary Figure S1. Comparison of RT-qPCR-based expression profiles

of selected *A. fumigatus* and *A. nidulans* genes that were significantly modulated

in the RNA-sequencing experiments.

Supplementary Figure S2. Growth of the wild-type and GT-sensitive mutants in

MM with different sulfur sources. The strains were grown for 72 hs at 37 °C.

Supplementary Figure S3. Base peak chromatograms of the strain Af293, the

A. oryzae Δ*kojR* strain, the *A. oryzae* Δ*rglT* strain, and the wild-type (WT) *A.*

oryzae strain grown on CDA (Czapek-Dox Agar, induces gliotoxin biosynthesis)

at 37°C. Results show that the *A. oryzae* WT and deletion strains do not produce

(A) gliotoxin or (B) bis(methylthio)gliotoxin. The data are presented as extracted

ion chromatograms (XIC) from selected ion monitoring (SIM) using the protonated

mass of gliotoxin (C$_{13}$H$_{15}$N$_2$O$_4$S$_2$; [M+H]$^+$ = 327.0473) and bis(methylthio)gliotoxin

($C_{15}H_{21}N_2O_4S_2$; $[M+H]^+ = 357.0928$) with a window of ± 5.0 ppm. GT and bmGT

were detected in the *A. fumigatus* positive control strain Af293.

Supplementary Table S1. Genes significantly differentiallly expressed in the *A.*

fumigatus wild-type strain exposed to GT in comparison to the GT-free, control

condition.

Supplementary Table S2. Genes significantly differentiallly expressed in the *A.*

fumigatus ΔrglT strain in comparison to the wild-type strain when exposed to GT.

Supplementary Table S3. Genes significantly differentiallly expressed in the *A.*

nidulans wild-type strain exposed to GT in comparison to the GT-free, control

condition. If applicable, the *A. fumigatus* homologue is also indicated.

Supplementary Table S4. Genes significantly differentiallly expressed in the *A.*

nidulans ΔrglT strain in comparison to the wild-type strain when exposed to GT.

If applicable, the *A. fumigatus* homologue is also indicated. Also shown are a list

of genes that are dependent or independent on RglT for their expression.

Supplementary Table S5. GT and bmGT production in the *A. fumigatus* wild-

type and transcription factor deletion strains.

Supplementary Table S6. Strains used in this work

Supplementary Table S7. List of primers used in this work

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Table 1 – List of the transcription fator mutants identified as more sensitive to gliotoxin (the domains Organization are based on http://smart.embl-heidelberg.de/).

Gene ID	Structure	Family	Gliotoxin Inhibition of the null mutant (µg/ml)
RglT (AFUA_1G09190)		GAL4-like Zn(II)2Cys6	< 35
AFUA_2G17860		GAL4-like Zn(II)2Cys6	< 35
RgdA (AFUA_3G13920)		KilA-N domain	< 35
OefC (AFUA_3G09670)		GAL4-like Zn(II)2Cys6	< 35
KojR (AFUA_5G06800)		GAL4-like Zn(II)2Cys6	< 35
SreA (AFUA_5G11260)		GATA-type zinc finger	< 35
AFUA_5G12060		GAL4-like Zn(II)2Cys6	< 35
AFUA_5G14390		GAL4-like Zn(II)2Cys6	< 35
AFUA_4G13060		ZnF_C2HC domain	< 35
AFUA_6G09870		GAL4-like Zn(II)2Cys6	< 35
Yap1 (AFUA_6G09930)		Basic-leucine zipper (bZIP)	< 35
AFUA_8G07360		GAL4-like Zn(II)2Cys6	< 35
AFUA_8G07280		GAL4-like Zn(II)2Cys6	< 35
AFUA_8G05460		Basic-leucine zipper (bZIP)	< 35
AFUA_8G03970		GAL4-like Zn(II)2Cys6	< 35
AFUA_3G01100		ZnF_C2HC domain	< 35

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1281   Table 2 – Akaike Information Criterium (AIC) of model fitting for phylogenetic

1282   correlation tests

	Independent	Dependent X	Dependent Y	Interdependent
X: *kojR*; Y: *rglT*	<u>0.767</u>	0.104	0.113	0.016
X: *kojR*; Y: kojic acid BGC	<u>0.704</u>	0.101	0.170	0.025
X: *rglT*; Y: gliotoxin BGC	0.336	<u>0.471</u>	0.068	0.125

1283   BGC = biosynthetic gene cluster

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Figure 4

A.

B.

C.

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure 7

A.

Aspergillus fumigatus wild-type 5 µg/ml gliotoxin/wild-type control
260 down-regulated and 270 up-regulated

Homeostasis of metal ions (Na, K, Ca etc.)
NAD/NADP binding
Detoxification involving cytochrome P450
C-compound and carbohydrate metabolism
Secondary metabolism
Non-vesicular ER transport
Translation
Mitochondrion
Ribosomal proteins
rRNA processing
Respiration
FAD/FMN binding
Electron transport
Ribosome biogenesis
Aerobic respiration
Electron transport and membrane-associated energy conservation
accessory proteins of electron transport/membrane-associated energy
Fe/S binding

0 5 10 15 20 25 30 35 40 45
Genes

B.

Aspergillus fumigatus ΔrglT 5 µg/ml gliotoxin/wild-type 5 µg/ml
269 down-regulated and 694 up-regulated

Metabolism of derivatives of homoisopentenyl pyrophosphate
Degradation of arginine
Heme binding
Phosphate transport
Lipid, fatty acid and isoprenoid metabolism
Homeostasis of phosphate
Transport facilities
Homeostasis of cations
Tetracyclic and pentacyclic triterpenes metabolism
Allantoin and allantoate transport
Siderophore-iron transport
C-compound and carbohydrate metabolism
Cellular import
Fruit body development (sexually or asexually derived spores)
Secondary metabolism

0 20 40 60 80 100 120 140
Genes

C.

-9.19   7.61

Wt gliot/ Wt control
ΔrglT gliot/ Wt glio.

gliM
gliT
gliA
gliF
gliH
gliG
gliP
gliK
gliC
gliN
gliZ
gtmA
gliI
gliJ

0.0 0.5 1.0

D.

-6.93   11.39

Wild-type gliot/ Wt control
ΔrglT gliot/ Wt glio

AFUA_6G13990
AFUA_6G13980
AFUA_6G13970
AFUA_6G13950
AFUA_6G13945
AFUA_6G13940
AFUA_6G13930
AFUA_6G13920   Pyripyropene

AFUA_6G17530
AFUA_6G17540
AFUA_6G17550
AFUA_6G17560
AFUA_6G17500   Naphthopyrone
AFUA_6G01250

AFUA_8G00570
AFUA_8G00560
AFUA_8G00550
AFUA_8G00540
AFUA_8G00520
AFUA_8G00510
AFUA_8G00500
AFUA_8G00490
AFUA_8G00230
AFUA_8G07235
AFUA_8G00420   Fumagillin
AFUA_8G00410
AFUA_8G00400
AFUA_8G00390
AFUA_8G00380
AFUA_8G00370

AFUA_6G12050
AFUA_6G12060   Fumiquinazolines
AFUA_6G12070

AFUA_2G17970
AFUA_2G18000   Fumigaclavine C
AFUA_2G18030
AFUA_2G17990

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3