The TOR signaling pathway regulates vegetative development,

aflatoxin biosynthesis, and pathogenicity in *Aspergillus flavus*

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Abstract

The target of rapamycin (TOR) signaling pathway is highly conserved and plays a crucial role in diverse biological processes in eukaryotes. However, the underlying mechanism of the TOR pathway in *A. flavus* remains elusive. In this study, we identified and characterized seven genes encoding various components of the TOR pathway in *A. flavus,* and investigated their biological function. The FK506-binding protein Fkbp3 and its lysine succinylation are important for aflatoxin production and rapamycin resistance. As a significant downstream effector molecule of the TorA kinase, the Sch9 kinase regulates aflatoxin B_1 (AFB_1) synthesis, osmotic and calcium stress response in *A. flavus,* and this regulation is mediated through its S_TKc, S_TK_X domains, and the ATP binding site at K340. We also showed that the Sch9 kinase may have a regulatory impact on the high-osmolarity glycerol (HOG) signaling pathway. TipA, the other downstream component of the TorA kinase, plays a significant role in regulating sclerotia formation and cell wall stress response in *A. flavus*. The members of the TapA-phosphatase complexes, SitA and Ppg1, are crucial for various biological processes in *A. flavus*, including vegetative growth, sclerotia formation, AFB_1 biosynthesis, and pathogenicity. Furthermore, we showed that SitA and Ppg1 are involved in regulating lipid droplets (LDs) biogenesis and cell wall integrity (CWI) signaling pathways. In addition, another phosphatase complex, Nem1/Spo7, plays critical roles in hyphal development, conidiation, aflatoxin, and lipid droplets biogenesis. This study provides an important insight into the regulatory

46 network of the TOR signaling pathway and the molecular mechanism of aflatoxin

47 biosynthesis in *A. flavus*.

48 **Keywords:** *Aspergillus flavus*; the TOR signaling pathway; aflatoxin; vegetative

49 development

Introduction

Aspergillus flavus is one of the most important phytopathogenic fungi that

frequently contaminate various plants, causing economic losses in agricultural

commodities and posing serious health concerns in developing countries [1]. *A. flavus*

is also an opportunistic human pathogenic fungus that can cause aspergillosis in

immune-compromised patients [2]. Aflatoxins (AFs), the toxic and carcinogenic

secondary metabolites produced by *A. flavus*, are considered the most potent

carcinogen present in nature, causing liver cancer in both humans and animals [3]. The

aflatoxin biosynthesis is a complex process involving a series of reactions. Although

the majority of the enzyme reactions and genes involved in aflatoxin biosynthesis

have been elucidated [4], the related signaling pathway network and specific regulatory

mechanisms governing aflatoxin biosynthesis remain elusive. Therefore, exploring the

regulatory mechanism of the aflatoxin biosynthesis signaling pathway would provide

new insights for preventing *A. flavus* and aflatoxin contamination.

In eukaryotes, the target of rapamycin (TOR) signaling pathway is highly

conserved and plays essential roles in various significant biological processes,

including ribosome biosynthesis, cell growth, and autophagy [5]. The

serine/threonine-protein kinase Tor serves as a crucial protein component in the TOR signaling pathway, which interacts with other proteins to form multi-protein complexes [6]. In *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, TOR exists in two distinct multiprotein functional complexes, namely TORC1 and TORC2 [7]. TORC1-mediated signaling governs cellular growth by modulating various growth-related mechanisms and exhibits sensitivity to rapamycin. Conversely, TORC2-mediated signaling primarily regulates cytoskeletal remodeling but remains unaffected by rapamycin [7]. In yeast, there are two *tor* genes, *tor1* and *tor2*, whereas in higher eukaryotes such as plants, animals, and filamentous fungi, there is only one *tor* gene [8-10].

In the fungal kingdom, the TOR signaling pathway has been extensively investigated in three prominent species: the budding yeast *S. cerevisiae* [11-12], the fission yeast *Schizosaccharomyces pombe* [13-15], and the human pathogen *Candida albicans* [16-17]. In *S. cerevisiae*, macrolide antibiotic rapamycin interacts with the cytosolic protein Fkbp12 to form a complex, and the Fkbp12-rapamycin complex effectively inhibits the activity of the Tor kinase function by binding to the FRB domain [18]. The Tap42 phosphatase complex serves as the primary target of the Tor kinase. Additionally, the Tap42 protein interacts with the Tip41 protein to collaboratively regulate phosphatases, including PP2A and Sit4 [19-20]. Phosphatase Sit4 can dephosphorylate the transcription factor Gln3, regulating the nitrogen source metabolism pathway [21]. In addition, another immediate effector of TORC1 is the AGC kinase Sch9, which participates in various cellular functions processes, such as ribosome biosynthesis, translation initiation, and entry into the G_0 phase [22]. The TOR

signaling pathway has been documented in various filamentous fungi, including

Fusarium graminearum [23-24], *Magnaporthe oryzae* [25], *Phanerochaete*

chrysosporium [26], *Podospora anserine* [27], *A. nidulans* [28], *A. fumigatus* [29-30], *F.*

fujikuroi [31], *Botrytis cinerea* [32], *F. oxysporum* [33], and *Mucor circinelloides* [34].

However, the TOR signaling pathway has not yet been reported in *A. flavus*.

In eukaryotic cells, the TOR signaling pathway and the mitogen-activated protein

kinase (MAPK) signaling pathways play an important role in regulating adaptive

responses to extra- and intracellular conditions [35]. Several studies have demonstrated

that the TOR signaling pathway interacts with various other signaling pathways, such

as MAPK and cell wall integrity (CWI) pathway. These pathways engage in crosstalk,

forming a complex metabolic network that regulates cellular processes [36-40]. However,

the underlying mechanisms of multiple crosstalks between the TOR and other

signaling pathways in *A. flavus* remain unclear. Therefore, we intended to identify the

genes associated with the TOR signaling pathway and elucidate their roles and

contributions in regulating vegetative development and aflatoxin biosynthesis in *A.*

flavus. Our results demonstrated that the TOR signaling pathway is involved in

multiple cellular processes in *A. flavus*. Our findings revealed a complex interplay

between the TOR pathway and other signaling pathways (such as HOG and CWI) in

A. flavus, which play a crucial role in regulating cellular growth and survival under

environmental stress conditions.

Results

Rapamycin exhibits inhibitory effects on the growth, sporulation, sclerotia formation, and aflatoxin production in *A. flavus*

Rapamycin, a secondary metabolite synthesized by *Streptomyces hygroscopicus*, exhibits efficacy in suppressing specific filamentous fungi. In *F. graminearum*, rapamycin has a significant inhibitory impact on growth and asexual reproduction [23]. To investigate the effects of rapamycin on vegetative development, sclerotia formation, and secondary metabolism in *A. flavus*, we conducted an assay to determine the sensitivity of the wild-type strain to rapamycin. We observed that the wild-type strain exhibited a high sensitivity to rapamycin. We found that 100 ng/mL of rapamycin significantly inhibited mycelial growth and conidia formation (Fig. 1A, 1D, 1E). More importantly, the wild-type strain exhibited a significant reduction in sclerotia formation and aflatoxin synthesis (Fig. 1B, 1C, 1F, 1G). Additionally, rapamycin resulted in a significant decrease in spore germination rate and sparser conidiophores (Fig. S1A, S1B). These results illustrated that the TOR signaling pathway may be involved in regulating the growth, development, and secondary metabolism of *A. flavus*. Calcofluor white is a chemifluorescent blue dye commonly employed for its nonspecific binding affinity to fungal chitin. Fluorescence microscopy analysis revealed a notable reduction in the blue fluorescence on the cell wall following treatment with rapamycin (Fig. S1C). The intracellular lipid droplets within the hyphae were labeled with BODIPY. We observed that the hyphae treated

with rapamycin contained more lipid droplets compared to the control group (Fig.

S1D). These findings suggest that the TOR pathway may play important roles in

maintaining cell wall integrity and facilitating the biogenesis of lipid droplets.

To investigate the potential regulatory role of the TOR pathway in modulating

the sporulation, sclerotia formation, and aflatoxin biosynthesis in *A. flavus*, we

examined the expression levels of conidia-related, sclerotia formation-related, and

aflatoxin-related genes after 3, 6, and 9 hours of treatment with rapamycin. To

determine the effects of rapamycin on conidiation, qRT-PCR was conducted to assess

the transcript levels of two conidia-related genes, *abaA* and *brlA*. We also conducted

qRT-PCR to evaluate the expression levels of three regulators (*nsdC*, *nsdD*, and *sclR*)

involved in sclerotia development, and genes involved in AFB_1 biosynthesis, such as

the regulatory gene *aflS*, as well as several structural genes (*aflC* and *aflQ*). The

strains treated with rapamycin exhibited a significant reduction in the expression

levels of genes related to sporulation, sclerotia formation, and aflatoxin synthesis (Fig.

1H, 1I, 1J). Overall, these results indicated that the TOR pathway plays a crucial role

in regulating the growth, sporulation, sclerotia formation, and aflatoxin biosynthesis

in *A. flavu*s by modulating the expression of these genes.

The impact of Fkbp3 and its lysine succinylation on AFB_1 biosynthesis and

rapamycin resistance in *A. flavus*

FK506-binding proteins (Fkbps) belong to a highly conserved immunophilin

family, which are involved in various cellular functions, such as protein folding,

immunosuppression, signaling transduction, and transcription [41]. Fkbps function as

molecular switches by binding to target proteins and inducing conformational changes

[41]. In *S. cerevisiae*, Fkbp12 and rapamycin interact to form a complex that exerts a

negative regulatory effect on the activity of the Tor kinase [42]. The *fkbp12* gene

homologue *fprA* in *A. nidulans* shares high levels of homology with that from *S.*

cerevisiae [28]. According to the protein sequence of FprA from *A. nidulans*, four genes

encoding putative proteins with FK506 binding domain, named *fkbp1*

(AFLA_126880), *fkbp2* (AFLA_087480), *fkbp3* (AFLA_010910), and *fkbp4*

(AFLA_128200), have been identified from the *A. flavus* genome. We generated four

fkbp knockout strains using homologous recombination, and all *fkbp* disruption strains

were confirmed by PCR and sequencing analysis (Fig. S2). Phenotypic analyses

showed that the mycelial growth and conidia formation of all the *fkbp* mutants were

similar to the wild-type strain on the PDA medium (Fig. 2A), suggesting that Fkbps

have minimal influence on the process of vegetative development. We evaluated AFB_1

synthesis utilizing thin layer chromatography (TLC), and the findings demonstrated a

noteworthy reduction in AFB_1 synthesis upon deletion of Fkbp3, in comparison to the

wild-type strain (Fig. 2B, 2D). Additionally, the quantity of sclerotia exhibited a

significant decrease in all *fkbp* mutants compared to the wild-type strain (Fig. S3A,

S3B). The aforementioned data indicated that Fkbp3 plays a crucial role in sclerotia

formation and aflatoxin biosynthesis in *A. flavus*.

To determine the specific Fkbp responsible for rapamycin sensitivity, all mutant

strains were cultured on PDA solid plates amended with 100 ng/mL rapamycin. The

strain with disrupted *fkbp3* showed significant resistance to rapamycin, while the

deletion mutants of *fkbp1*, *fkbp2*, and *fkbp4* did not exhibit any alteration in resistance

to rapamycin (Fig. 2A, 2C). These results demonstrated that Fkbp3 serves as the

principal target for rapamycin in *A. flavu*s. In the FK506-sensitivity analysis, we

observed a significant suppression of mycelial growth and conidia formation in

wild-type strain with the addition of 10 ng/mL FK506 to the PDA medium.

Additionally, the deletion of *fkbp3* led to the heightened resistance to FK506

compared to the wild-type strain (Fig. 2A, 2C). These findings suggested that Fkbp3

is mainly involved in the modulation of FK506 resistance in *A. flavus*.

Previous studies have shown that lysine succinylation plays a significant role in

aflatoxin production and pathogenicity in *A. flavus* [43]. Based on the analysis of our

succinylome data, we have identified six reliable succinylation sites (K5, K19, K40,

K42, K55, and K65) on the Fkbp3 protein. To identify the function of Fkbp3

succinylation sites, site-directed mutations were constructed according to the

homologous recombination strategy. Compared to the wild-type strain, all point

mutants exhibited a similar phenotype in vegetative growth and conidiation.

Interestingly, we observed that the K19A mutation resulted in increased resistance to

rapamycin (Fig. 2E, 2F). Additionally, the K19A strain exhibited a significant

reduction in the production of AFB_1 compared to the wild-type strain (Fig. 2G, 2H).

These findings suggested that the succinylation of Fkbp3 at K19 plays a crucial role in

rapamycin resistance and aflatoxin biosynthesis. Furthermore, we found that various

point mutants, including K40A, K42A, and K55A, exhibited reduced levels of AFB_1

production in comparison to the wild-type strain (Fig. 2G, 2H), suggesting that the

succinylation of Fkbp3 at other sites also contributes to AFB_1 biosynthesis in *A. flavus*.

The above results indicated that the K19 site likely plays a more prominent role in

Fkbp3 succinylation compared to other sites.

199 The Sch9 kinase is involved in aflatoxin biosynthesis and the HOG pathway

Sch9, a Ser/Thr kinase belonging to the AGC family, is directly phosphorylated by

TORC1. The phosphorylation of Sch9 is inhibited by rapamycin, as well as by carbon

or nitrogen starvation [22]. The putative *sch9* gene (AFLA_127440) in *A. flavus*

encodes a protein consisting of 706 amino acids, exhibiting 80.31% identity to the

Sch9 protein in *A. nidulans*. To investigate the role of Sch9 in *A. flavus*, we attempted

to create a *sch9* deletion mutant using a homologous recombination strategy. The

Δ*sch9* strain exhibited typical vegetative growth and conidiation similar to the

wild-type strain (Fig. 3B). TLC assay and quantitative analysis showed a significantly

decreased aflatoxin production in the Δ*sch9* strain compared to the wild-type strain

(Fig. 3C, 3G). These results indicated that Sch9 regulates aflatoxin biosynthesis in *A.*

flavus.

In yeast, Sch9 plays an important role in the transcriptional activation of

osmostress inducible genes [44]. To characterize the roles of Sch9 in stress response,

we examined the sensitivity of the *sch9* deletion strain to various stresses including

osmotic stress and calcium stress. Compared with the wild-type strain, the Δ*sch9*

mutant significantly increased sensitivity to calcium stress (Fig. S4A, S4B), and

decreased sensitivity to osmotic stress induced by NaCl and KCl (Fig. 3D, 3H). In *A.*

flavus, the Sch9 kinase consists of several domains, including the protein kinase C

conserved region 2 (C2), protein kinase (S_TKc), AGC-kinase C-terminal (S_TK_X)

domain, and an ATP binding site (Fig. 3A). To explore the role of these domains and

the ATP binding site in Sch9 kinase, we constructed deletion strains for both domains

and a $sch9^{K340A}$ mutant. The results revealed that the $sch9^{\Delta S\_TKc}$ strain, $sch9^{\Delta S\_TK\_X}$

strain, and $sch9^{K340A}$ mutant exhibited similar phenotypes in osmotic stress and AFB_1

production as the $\Delta sch9$ mutant (Fig. 3B, 3C, 3D). Therefore, we speculate that the

protein kinase domain, kinase C-terminal domain, and the ATP binding site at K340

play a crucial role in modulating the impact of Sch9 on aflatoxin biosynthesis and

stress response in *A. flavus*.

To investigate the potential function of Sch9 in the HOG and TOR pathways in *A.*

flavus, we conducted a sensitivity analysis of the $\Delta sch9$ strain to rapamycin.

Compared to the wild-type strain, the *sch9* deletion strain exhibited a slightly higher

sensitivity to rapamycin (Fig. 3B, 3F). The MAKP Hog1 is an element of the high

osmolarity glycerol (HOG) pathway. To verify the connection between Sch9 and the

HOG-MAPK pathway, the phosphorylation levels of Hog1 kinase were measured

under osmotic stress (1M NaCl). Western blot analysis showed that the

phosphorylation level of Hog1 increased significantly in the $\Delta sch9$ strain (Fig. 3E).

This finding suggested that Sch9 plays a pivotal role in modulating the response of

Hog1 to osmotic stress. Taken together, these results reflected that Sch9 regulates

osmotic stress response via the HOG pathway in *A. flavus*.

TipA participate in regulation of sclerotia development and cell wall stress

response

240  In *S. cerevisiae*, Tip41 was identified as a Tap42-interacting protein and has been

241 measured to function as a negative regulator of Tap42, which downregulates TORC1

242 signaling via activation of PP2A phosphatase [45]. The putative orthologue of *tip41* in

243 *A. flavus* is named *tipA* (AFLA_047310). The amino acid sequence of TipA exhibits a

244 similarity of 40.49% to Tip41 in *S. cerevisiae*. To elucidate the function of the TOR

245 signaling pathway protein TipA in *A. flavus*, we generated the *tipA* deletion mutants.

246 The Δ*tipA* strain exhibited a slightly reduced number of conidia produced on PDA

247 compared to the wild-type strain (Fig. 4A, 4C). Meanwhile, the Δ*tipA* strain exhibited

248 decreased sensitivity to rapamycin (Fig. 4A, 4E). The Δ*tipA* strain was unable to

249 produce any sclerotia (Fig. 4B, 4F). Whereas Δ*tipA* strain do not affect aflatoxin

250 production(Fig. 4D, 4G). In addition, the Δ*tipA* strain was more sensitive to the cell

251 wall and cell membrane stress, including CR and SDS (Fig. 4H, 4I). Additionally, the

252 expression levels of *nsdC* and *nsdD* exhibited a decrease in Δ*tipA* strain compared to

253 the wild-type strain (Fig. 4J). These results indicated that TipA is crucial for the

254 sclerotial formation and cell wall stress in *A. flavus*.

255 **Phosphatase SitA and Ppg1 are involved in growth, conidiation, and sclerotial**

256 **formation**

257  In *S. cerevisiae*, Tap42 has been identified to interact with the catalytic subunit of

258 type 2A protein phosphatases, including Pph3, Pph21, and Pph22, as well as the type

259 2A-like phosphatases Sit4 and Ppg1[19]. Phosphatase *sitA* (AFLA_108450) and *ppg1*

260 (AFLA_132610) were identified in *A. flavu*s, encoding putative orthologs of *sit4* and

261 *ppg1* in *S. cerevisiae*. To determine the biological functions of phosphatase SitA and

Ppg1 in *A. flavu*s, we disrupted the *sitA* and *ppg1* by homologous recombination

strategy. To further investigate the relationship between phosphatase SitA and Ppg1,

we additionally generated complemented and double deletion mutants. The vegetative

development phenotype analysis showed that the Δ*sitA*, Δ*ppg1*, and Δ*sitA*/Δ*ppg1*

strains grew significantly more slowly than the wild-type strain on PDA (Fig. 5A, 5D).

Additionally, the Δ*sitA*, Δ*ppg1*, and Δ*sitA*/Δ*ppg1* strains were more sensitive to

rapamycin (Fig. 5A, 5E). In addition, the Δ*sitA*, Δ*ppg1*, and Δ*sitA*/Δ*ppg1* strains

formed lower number of conidiophores (Fig. 5A). To gain further insight into the role

of SitA and Ppg1 in the process of conidiation, qRT-PCR was employed to determine

the transcript levels of conidiation-related genes (*abaA* and *brlA*). The expression

levels of the *abaA and brlA* genes were significantly downregulated in the Δ*sitA*,

Δ*ppg1*, and Δ*sitA*/Δ*ppg1* mutants when compared to the wild-type and complemented

strains (Fig. 5G). The analysis of sclerotial formation revealed that the Δ*sitA*, Δ*ppg1*,

and Δ*sitA*/Δ*ppg1* mutants exhibited a complete inability to produce any sclerotia (Fig.

5B, 5E). To further prove these findings, we conducted qRT-PCR to determine the

expression levels of three regulators (*nsdC*, *nsdD*, and *sclR*) of sclerotia development.

Our findings indicated that the expression levels of *nsdC*, *nsdD*, and *sclR* were all

significantly reduced in the Δ*sitA*, Δ*ppg1*, and Δ*sitA*/Δ*ppg1* mutants (Fig. 5H), which

is consistent with the observed decrease in sclerotia production in the Δ*sitA*, Δ*ppg1*,

and Δ*sitA*/Δ*ppg1* mutants. These results showed that SitA and Ppg1 are crucial for

hyphal development, conidiation, and sclerotia formation in *A. flavus*.

SitA and Ppg1 play crucial roles in aflatoxin biosynthesis and pathogenicity

We assayed AFB$_1$ biosynthesis in the $\Delta sitA$, $\Delta ppg1$, and $\Delta sitA/\Delta ppg1$ mutants.

TLC analyses revealed that the $\Delta sitA$ and $\Delta sitA/\Delta ppg1$ strains exhibited a decrease in

AFB$_1$ production, whereas the $\Delta ppg1$ strain showed a significant increase in AFB$_1$

production compared to the wild-type and complemented strains (Fig. 5C, 5F). The

expression levels of genes related to aflatoxin synthesis, including structural genes

(*aflO* and *aflP*) and regulatory genes (*aflR* and *aflS*), were determined by qRT-PCR in

the $\Delta sitA$, $\Delta ppg1$, and $\Delta sitA/\Delta ppg1$ mutants. The results revealed a significant

downregulation of these genes in the $\Delta sitA$ and $\Delta sitA/\Delta ppg1$ mutants, while

upregulated in the $\Delta ppg1$ mutants, compared to the wild-type and complemented

strains (Fig. 5I). These results indicated that SitA and Ppg1 play different roles in

regulating aflatoxin biosynthesis in *A. flavu*s.

We conducted pathogenicity tests on peanuts and maize to examine the

pathogenicity of the phosphatases SitA and Ppg1 on crops. The results showed that

the wild-type and complemented strains demonstrated complete virulence on all

peanut and maize seeds. In contrast, the $\Delta sitA$, $\Delta ppg1$, and $\Delta sitA/\Delta ppg1$ mutants

displayed compromised colonization on peanut and maize seeds (Fig. 6A). In addition,

the number of conidial productions in these mutants on the infected peanut seeds also

dramatically decreased compared to those of the wild-type and complemented strains

(Fig. 6C). The thin-layer chromatography analyses revealed that the $\Delta ppg1$ mutant

exhibited increased production of AFB$_1$ in peanuts and maize. Conversely, the levels

of aflatoxin produced by the $\Delta sitA$ and $\Delta sitA/\Delta ppg1$ mutants on peanut and maize

were significantly reduced compared to the wild-type and complemented strains (Fig.

6B, 6D). This observation aligns with the above results of aflatoxin biosynthesis from all mutant strains in the YES medium. All these data showed that SitA and Ppg1 are crucial for crop seeds' pathogenicity.

SitA and Ppg1 are involved in regulating cell wall integrity

To explore the role of phosphatases SitA and Ppg1 in response to cell wall stress, all strains were cultivated on PDA amended with CFW, CR, and SDS. We found that the relative growth inhibition of Δ*sitA*, Δ*ppg1*, and Δ*sitA*/Δ*ppg1* mutants induced by cell wall stress was significantly increased compared to the wild-type and complemented strains (Fig. 7A, 7B). Further investigations using qRT-PCR revealed a notable reduction in the expression levels of genes related to the synthesis of cell walls, specifically chitin synthase genes *chsA*, *chsD*, and *chsE* in the Δ*sitA*, Δ*ppg1*, and Δ*sitA*/Δ*ppg1* strains (Fig. 7C). Western blot analysis also revealed that the phosphorylation level of Slt2 was significantly elevated in the Δ*sitA*, Δ*ppg1*, and Δ*sitA*/Δ*ppg1* strains under cell wall stress (200 μg/ml CFW) (Fig. 7D). In conclusion, the phosphatases SitA and Ppg1 play a crucial role in regulating cell wall integrity.

The phosphatase complex Nem1/Spo7 is important for growth, aflatoxin biosynthesis, and LD biogenesis

Lipid droplets (LDs) are highly dynamic spherical organelles, which appear in the cytosol of most eukaryotic cell types[46]. Rapamycin treatment led to the accumulation of lipid droplets in various filamentous fungi [24]. The FgTOR pathway regulates the phosphorylation status of FgNem1 mainly via the FgPpg1/Sit4-FgCak1/other kinase cascade in *F. graminearum* [24]. In this study, we

observed that the treatment of hyphae with rapamycin resulted in the accumulation of

LD biogenesis (Fig. 8A). This finding suggested that the TOR pathway may regulate

the LD biogenesis. However, the underlying regulatory mechanism of LD

biosynthesis remain largely unknown in *A. flavu*s. To investigate the regulatory

mechanism of the TOR pathway in *A. flavus* that controls LD biogenesis, we

examined LD accumulation in Δ*sch9*, Δ*sitA*, and Δ*ppg1* mutants. BODIPY staining

assays revealed that LD biogenesis was not observed in the Δ*sitA* and Δ*ppg1* strains

upon treatment with rapamycin, in contrast to the wild-type and Δ*sch9* strains (Fig.

8A, 8B, 8C, 8D). These results indicated that LD biogenesis induced by rapamycin is

predominantly reliant on the phosphatases SitA and Ppg1 in *A. flavus*. In *F.*

graminearum, the phosphatase FgNem1/FgSpo7 complex was involved in the

induction of LD biogenesis by rapamycin[24]. Phosphatase *nem1* (AFLA_002649) and

spo7 (AFLA_028590) were identified in *A. flavu*s, which encode putative orthologs of

nem1 and *spo7* in *F. graminearum.* To examine the role of the *nem1* and *spo7* genes in

A. flavus, we generated Δ*nem1* and Δ*spo7* mutants using homologous recombination.

The Δ*nem1* and Δ*spo7* mutants displayed a notable reduction in both vegetative

growth and conidiation compared to the wild-type strain (Fig. 9A, 9C, 9D). TLC

assay revealed a significantly decreased aflatoxin production in the Δ*nem1* and Δ*spo7*

compared to the wild-type strain (Fig. 9B). In addition, BODIPY staining showed no

visible lipid droplets in the hyphae of Δ*nem1* and Δ*spo7* after rapamycin treatment

(Fig. 9E). Taken together, these results indicated that Nem1/Spo7 are involved in

vegetative growth, conidiation, aflatoxin production, and LD biogenesis.

Discussion

Aflatoxins (AFs) are a class of toxic secondary metabolites synthesized by *A.*

flavus, including aflatoxin B_1, B_2, G_1, and G_2, among which AFB_1 has been regarded

as the most pathogenic and toxic aflatoxin[47]. Therefore, understanding the regulatory

mechanisms involved in fungal secondary metabolites biosynthesis would be

instrumental for effectively addressing aflatoxin control in *A. flavus*. In this study, we

demonstrated that the target of rapamycin (TOR) signaling pathway plays a pivotal

role in regulating growth, sporulation, sclerotia formation, aflatoxin production, and

various stress responses in *A. flavus*. Through conducting functional studies on genes

within the TOR signaling pathway, we explored the conservation and complexity

exhibited by the TOR signaling pathway in *A. flavu*s. In addition, we constructed a

crosstalk network between the TOR and other signaling pathways (HOG, CWI) and

analyzed the specific regulatory process. We proposed that the TOR signaling

pathway interacts with multiple signaling pathways, including HOG and CWI

pathways, to modulate the cellular responses to diverse environmental stresses (Fig.

10).

We have observed that rapamycin has a significant impact on the growth and

sporulation of *A. flavus* (Fig. 1A). Additionally, it exhibits a strong inhibitory effect on

sclerotia production and aflatoxin biosynthesis (Fig. 1B, 1C). The inhibitory effect has

been documented in various fungal species, including *Candida albicans* [48],

Cryptococcus neoformans [48], *Podospora anserine* [27], *A. nidulans* [28], *Magnaporthe*

oryzae [39]*, and *F. graminearum* [23]. This suggested that the TOR signaling pathway

may have a conserved function in filamentous fungi. The number of FK506-binding

proteins varies among different species: there are four Fkbps proteins in *S. cerevisiae*

and three Fkbps proteins in *S. pombe* [49]. In *S. cerevisiae*, rapamycin can bind to Fkbp

protein, resulting in the irreversible inhibition of the G_1 phase of the cell cycle and the

regulation of cell growth [50]. In *A. nidulans,* the *fkbp12* gene homologue *fprA* displays

considerable sequence similarity with homologues identified in the *S. cerevisiae* [28].

In this study, based on the homologous alignment of the protein sequence of FprA, it

was observed that four *fkbp* genes are present in *A. flavus*. Among these, deletion of

fkbp3 exhibited enhanced tolerance to rapamycin (Fig. 2A). So we speculated that

rapamycin forms a complex with Fkbp3 in *A. flavus*, subsequently targeting

downstream target genes to exert its biological function. We found that Fkbp3 is

involved in sclerotia formation and aflatoxin biosynthesis in *A. flavus* (Fig. 2A, S3)*,

and subsequent analysis revealed that the underlying mechanism may be associated

with succinylation modification. The succinylation sites of Fkbp3 were identified

through the utilization of succinylation proteomics data. By constructing point mutant

strains and conducting phenotype experiments, we found that the succinylation of

Fkbp3 at residue K19 is involved in rapamycin resistance and aflatoxin biosynthesis

(Fig. 2E, 2G). Previous studies have demonstrated that Fkbp12 has been identified as

the receptor for FK506 and rapamycin, which inhibits calcineurin and target

rapamycin complex 1 (TORC1), respectively [50]. The deletion of Fkbp12 confers the

resistance to rapamycin in *C. albicans* [48] and *C. neoformans* [48]. The

entomopathogenic fungus *Beauveria bassiana* contains three putative *fkbp* genes, and

disruption of *Bbfkbp12* significantly increases the resistance to rapamycin and FK506

[51]. The plant pathogenic fungus *F. graminearum* harbors three Fkbps proteins, among

which deletion of *Fgfkbp12* leads to resistance to rapamycin [23]. Thus, we propose

that these Fkbps may exhibit analogous functionalities in conferring resistance to

rapamycin. In *Botrytis cinerea*, deletion of *Bcfkbp12* caused a reduction of the

virulence of strain T4, while knockout of the *fkbp12* gene did not affect the

pathogenic development of strain B05.10 [32]. These findings demonstrated that the

fkbp12 homologous genes exhibited conservation in terms of rapamycin resistance.

However, there is significant variation in other biological functions among fungal

species, which may be attributed to species or strain evolutionary divergence.

The Tor kinase functions as a fundamental component of the TOR signaling

pathway, which exhibits evolutionary conservation across fungi, plants, and mammals

[52]. In *S. cerevisiae*, the Tor kinase can interact with a diverse range of proteins,

resulting in the formation of complex structures known as TORC1 and TORC2 [53].

TORC1 can detect various signals, including nutrients, growth factors, and

environmental stress. It plays a crucial role in regulating cellular processes such as

gene transcription, protein translation, ribosome synthesis, and autophagy [54]. A

characteristic that distinguishes TORC1 is its interaction with KOG1 (Raptor in

mammals) and its sensitivity to the rapamycin-FKBP12 complex [55]. Almost all other

eukaryotes, including plants, worms, flies, and mammals, have a single *tor* gene,

whereas *S. cerevisiae* has two *tor* genes [54]. The Tor kinase is widely conserved both

in terms of its structural characteristics and its role as the target of Fkbp-rapamycin.

Typically, the Tor kinase exhibits similar structural characteristics, including the

HEAT-like, FAT, FRB, kinase, and FATC domains. The FRB domain is the binding

region of the Fkbp-rapamycin complex, and rapamycin resistance is usually caused by

the disruption of the FRB domain [54]. The comparison of homology and the analysis

of phylogenetics revealed that there is only one predicted *torA* gene in *A. flavus*. To

ascertain its functionality, several ectopic transformants were obtained through

multiple protoplast transformations, however, no successful knock-out transformants

were obtained. We speculated that the deletion of the *torA* gene may be lethal in *A.*

flavus. This observation aligns with the situation observed in *F. graminearum* [23].

Previous findings demonstrated that the Tor kinase could function as a molecular

switch connecting an iron cue to defend against pathogen infection in *C. elegans* [56].

In *A. fumigatus*, the Tor kinase represents a central regulatory node controlling genes

and proteins involved in nutrient sensing, stress response, cell cycle progression,

protein biosynthesis, and degradation, as well as adaptation to low iron conditions[57].

In summary, the Tor kinase acts as a central regulator in the TOR signaling pathway,

playing a crucial role in the regulation of the cell cycle, protein synthesis, and cellular

energy metabolism.

In *S. cerevisiae*, the protein kinase Sch9 is a major downstream effector of

TORC1, and this kinase is known to have crucial functions in stress resistance,

longevity, and nutrient sensing [44]. In addition, the TORC1-Sch9 pathway acts as a

crucial mediator of chronological lifespan [44]. In filamentous fungi, an intricate

network of interactions exists between the TOR and HOG pathways. In *F.*

graminearum [38], FgSch9 and FgHog1 mutants displayed heightened susceptibility to

osmotic and oxidative stresses. The phosphorylation level of FgHog1 increased

significantly in FgSch9 mutant. Additionally, the affinity capture-MS assay showed

that the Tor kinase was among the proteins co-purifying with FgSch9. These results

suggest that FgSch9 serves as an intermediary for the TOR and HOG signaling

pathways [38]. Furthermore, FgSch9 plays a crucial role in the regulation of various

biological processes such as hyphal differentiation, asexual development, virulence,

and DON biosynthesis[38]. In *A. fumigatus*, the SchA mutant was sensitive to

rapamycin, high concentrations of calcium and hyperosmotic stress, and SchA was

involved in iron metabolism. The SchA mutant exhibited enhanced phosphorylation

of SakA in response to osmotic stress [29]. In this study, we discovered that Sch9 is

involved in regulating aflatoxin biosynthesis (Fig. 3C), and responses to osmotic

stress and rapamycin stress (Fig. 3B, 3D). The S_TKc domain deletion strain

(*sch9*$^{\Delta S\_TKc}$), S_TK_X domain deletion strain (*sch9*$^{\Delta S\_TK\_X}$)**,** and *sch9*^{K340A} mutant

displayed a similar phenotype to the Δ*sch9* strain (Fig. 3B, 3C, 3D). These findings

revealed that Sch9 plays a significant role in the biological synthesis of aflatoxin and

in responding to various stresses. This role is primarily mediated through its kinase

domain, kinase-C domain**,** and ATP binding site K340. We also found that the

phosphorylation level of Hog1 increased significantly in the Δ*sch9* strain under

osmotic stress (Fig. 3E). Based on the above results, we hypothesized that Sch9 was

involved in the osmotic stress response by modulating the HOG pathway.

Tap42, a protein that associates with phosphatase 2A, serves as the direct target

of the Tor kinase in yeast. Tap42 plays a crucial role in various Tor functions,

particularly in the regulation of transcriptional processes [58]. The genome of *A. flavus*

contains a homolog of *tap42* named *tapA* (AFLA_092770), which is predicted to

encode a 355 amino-acid protein (sharing 31.9% identity with *S. cerevisiae* Tap42).

To further determine the function of the TapA regulator in the TOR signaling pathway

of *A. flavus*, we conducted targeted gene deletion experiments on *tapA*. We failed to

obtain a null mutant, we hypothesised that *tapA* knockout was lethal in *A. flavus*. In *S.*

pombe, the protein Tip41, which interacts with Tap42, plays a significant role in the

cellular responses to nitrogen sources by regulating type 2A phosphatases [59]. In *S.*

cerevisiae, Tap42-phosphatase complexes associate with TORC1, whereas Tip41

functions to attenuate TORC1 signaling by stimulating the PP2A phosphatase [45].

Unlike its yeast counterpart Tip41, TIPRL, a mammalian Tip41-like protein, exerts a

positive influence on mTORC1 signaling by interacting with PP2Ac [60]. While the

interaction between Tip41 and Tap42 was not observed in the filamentous fungi. The

yeast two-hybrid (Y2H) assay showed that FgTip41 interacts with the phosphatase

FgPpg1 rather than FgTap42, while the FgTap42 bind with phosphatases FgPp2A,

implying that FgTap42, FgPpg1, and FgTip41 form a heterotrimer in *F. graminearum*

[23]. In the rice blast fungus *M. oryzae*, MoTip41 does not interact with MoTap42.

However, MoTip41 can bind with the phosphatase MoPpe1, thereby facilitating

crosstalk between the TOR pathway and the cell wall integrity pathway [40]. In this

study, we found that TipA played a crucial role in sclerotia production and cell wall

stress in *A. flavus* (Fig. 4B, 4H). However, the interaction between TapA and TipA is

not yet clear in *A. flavus*.

In *S. cerevisiae*, Tap42 can bind and regulate various PP2A phosphatases,

including Pph3, Pph21, Pph22, Sit4, and Ppg1. This interaction plays a crucial role in

the TOR signaling pathway, particularly in response to rapamycin treatment or

nutrient deprivation [45]. The phosphatase Sit4 plays a crucial role in regulating cell

growth, morphogenesis, and virulence in *C. albicans* [61]. FgSit4 and FgPpg1 are

associated with various cellular processes, including mycelial growth, conidiation,

DON biosynthesis, and virulence in *F. graminearum* [23]. In addition, FgSit4 and

FgPpg1 are involved in the regulation of various signaling pathways, such as the CWI

pathway and lipid droplets biogenesis regulation pathway [23]. In this study, we found

that the phosphatase SitA and Ppg1 play critical role in vegetative growth, conidiation,

sclerotia formation, and aflatoxin biosynthesis in *A. flavus* (Fig. 5A, 5B, 5C).

Additionally, the phosphatase SitA and Ppg1 also affect pathogenicity and LD

biogenesis (Fig. 6A, 8C, 8D). In addition, SitA, Ppg1, and TipA exhibits similar

functions in sclerotia production and cell wall stress response. Based on these

observations, we hypothesized that TapA-phosphatase complexes play a collaborative

role in the regulation of the sclerotia formation and cell wall stress response in *A.*

flavus.

After the deletion of the *sitA* and *ppg1* genes, the expression level of genes

related to cell wall synthesis has decreased significantly, resulting in damage to the

cell wall and showing a higher sensitivity to cell wall integrity stress (Fig. 7C).

Western blotting results showed that the phosphorylation level of MAPK kinase Slt2

has increased significantly in the Δ*sitA* and Δ*ppg1* strains under cell wall stress,

indicating that SitA and Ppg1 exert a negative regulatory effect on the CWI pathway

(Fig. 7D). In *M. oryzae*, MoPpe1 and MoSap1 serve as an adaptor complex that

connects the CWI and TOR signaling pathways. Activation of the TOR pathway

results in the inhibition of the CWI pathway [39]. In addition, the phosphatase MoPpe1

interacts with the phosphatase-associated protein MoTip41, facilitating the exchange

of information between the TOR and CWI signaling pathways [39]. These results

suggest that the phosphatase Ppe1 engages in interactions with various proteins to

effectively coordinate the TOR and CWI signaling pathways, thereby regulating the

growth and pathogenicity of the rice blast fungus *M. oryzae* [39]. Taken together, we

speculated that the phosphatase SitA and Ppg1 might exhibit differential regulation in

the CWI and TOR pathways across species in order to fulfill their respective

functions.

In *F. graminearum,* the phosphatase complex FgNem1/Spo7-FgPah1 cascade

plays significant roles in fungal development, DON production, and lipid droplet (LD)

biogenesis [24]. In this study, our results indicated that Nem1 and Spo7 are important

for vegetative growth and secondary metabolism of *A. flavus* (Fig. 9A, 9B). We have

also discovered that LD biogenesis is facilitated by the Nem1/Spo7 and SitA/Ppg1

pathways (Fig. 8C, 8D, 9E). These observations suggest that the PP2A phosphatases

play a central role as core phosphatases in the LD biogenesis signaling network.

However, there are likely other kinases involved in the regulation of LD biogenesis.

To gain a comprehensive understanding of the precise molecular mechanism, further

research should focus on investigating the interplay between phosphatases and other

kinases.

In conclusion, we identified the complex regulatory network that provides insight

into the interplay between the TOR, HOG, and CWI signaling pathways, and how

they collectively regulate the development, aflatoxin biosynthesis, and pathogenicity

of *A. flavus*. By elucidating the functions of genes associated with the TOR signaling

pathway, our research could establish a solid foundation for comprehending the

molecular mechanism underlying the aflatoxin biosynthesis of *A. flavus*. This, in turn,

can provide novel insights into the management of aflatoxin contamination and the

mitigation of *A. flavus* infection.

Materials and methods

Strains and cultural conditions

538   The *A. flavus* strains in this study were shown in Table S1. All strains were

539   cultivated on three different types of agar media: potato dextrose agar (PDA), yeast

540   extract-sucrose agar (YES), and yeast extract-glucose agar (YGT). The growth and

541   conidiation assays were conducted at 37℃. Additionally, aflatoxin production was

542   assessed using YES liquid medium at 29℃.

Constructions of gene deletion and complemented mutants

The construction of gene deletion and complemented strains was carried out

using the SOE-PCR strategy, following previously established protocols [62]. The

primers utilized for the amplification of the flanking sequences of each gene can be

found in Table S2. The putative gene deletion mutants were validated through PCR

assays using the appropriate primers (Fig. S2), and their confirmation was

subsequently obtained through sequencing analysis.

Growth, conidiation, and sclerotia analysis

To evaluate mycelial growth and conidia formation, 1 μL of 10^6 spores/mL conidia

of all strains was point inoculated onto the center of the PDA medium, and then

cultured at 37°C for 5 days in the dark. The conidia were washed with 0.07%

Tween-20 and counted using a hemocytometer and microscope [43]. For sclerotia

formation analysis, each strain was inoculated and cultivated on CM agar medium at

37°C in the dark for 7 days, and then 75% ethanol was used to wash away mycelia

and conidia on the surface of the medium [63]. These assays were repeated at least

three times.

Extraction and quantitative analysis of aflatoxin

To extract and quantify aflatoxins (AFs) production, 1 μL of 10^6 spores/mL

conidia of all strains was point inoculated onto liquid YES medium, and cultures were

then incubated at 29°C in the dark for 6 days. AFs were extracted from the media and

detected using thin layer chromatography (TLC) [63]. In addition, the standard AFB_1

was employed for visual comparison, and AFs were quantitatively analyzed using the

Image J tool. The assays were repeated at least three times.

Stress assay

To determine the roles of the gene in *A. flavus* responding to various

environmental stresses, 1 μL of 10^6 spores/mL conidia of all strains were point

inoculated onto these PDA solid plates supplemented with various agents. These

agents included 1M NaCl, 1M KCl, and 1M CaCl$_2$ for inducing osmotic stress, as

well as 100 μg/mL SDS, 200 μg/mL Calcofluor white (CFW), and 200 μg/mL Congo

red (CR) for inducing cell wall stress. After 5 days of incubation at 37°C in the dark,

the relative rates of inhibition were determined [43]. The assays were repeated at least

three times.

Seeds infection assays

576   To measure the pathogenicity of *A. flavus*, all peanut and maize seeds were

577 washed in 0.05% sodium hypochlorite, 75% ethanol, and sterile water, respectively.

578 Subsequently, all peanut and maize seeds were immersed in sterile water containing

579 10^6 spores/mL of all strains at 29°C in the dark for 60 min. After the conidia adhesion,

580 the seeds were cultured at 29°C for 6 days in the dark [64].

Quantitative RT-PCR

For the real-time quantitative PCR (qPCR) assays, the *A. flavus* strains were

cultivated in the PDA medium at 29°C for 3 days in the dark. Total RNA was

extracted from the mycelia of all strains, and cDNA was synthesized with the First

Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit, and then the cDNA was used as the template for

qRT-PCR analysis with SYBR Green qPCR mix. The relative transcript level of each

gene was calculated by the $2^{-\Delta\Delta CT}$ method [65].

Western blot analysis

To extract the total protein, the mycelia of each strain were cultivated in YES

liquid medium for 48 h, then the sample was grinded under liquid nitrogen to a fine

powder and transferred to a 1.5 mL microcentrifuge tube added with RIPA lysis buffer

and 1 mM PMSF protease inhibitor. Proteins were separated by 12% SDS-PAGE and

transferred onto a polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) membrane. Phosphorylation levels

of Hog1 and Slt2 were detected by Phospho-p38 MAPK antibody (Cell Signaling

Technology, Boston, MA, USA) and Phospho-p44/42 MAPK (Erk 1/2) antibody (Cell

signaling Technology, MA, USA), respectively. The experiment was conducted three

times independently.

Statistical analysis

All data were measured with means ± standard deviation (SD) of three biological

replicates. Graph Pad Prism 7 software was used for conducting statistical and

significance analysis, and p-values < 0.05 represented statistical significance.

Student's *t*-test was used to compare the two means for differences, whereas Tukey's

multiple comparisons were used for testing multiple comparisons.

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Author contributions

Guoqi Li and Xiaohong Cao designed the experiments. Guoqi Li, Xiaohong Cao, and Qianhua Zeng performed the experiments. Guoqi Li, Xiaohong Cao, and Shihua Wang analyzed the data. Guoqi Li, Elisabeth Tumukunde, and Shihua Wang wrote the manuscript. The manuscript was discussed and revised by all the authors.

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Fig. 1 Impacts of rapamycin on the growth, sporulation, sclerotia formation,and aflatoxin production of *Aspergillus flavus*.

(A) Colony morphology of the WT strain cultured on PDA medium amended with different concentrations of rapamycin at 37°C for 5 days.

(B) Colony phenotype of the WT strain grown on CM medium amended with different concentrations of rapamycin at 37°C for 7 days.

(C) TLC assay of AFB_1 production by the WT strain cultured in YES liquid media amended with different concentrations of rapamycin at 29°C for 6 days.

(D) Statistical analysis of the colony diameter by the WT strain treated with different concentrations of rapamycin described in (A).

(E) Conidial quantification of the WT strain treated with different concentrations of rapamycin as mentioned in (A).

(F) Quantitative analysis of sclerotium formation by the WT strain treated with different concentrations of rapamycin described in (B).

(G) Relative quantification of AFB_1 production by the WT strain treated with different concentrations of rapamycin as mentioned in (C)

(H) Relative expression levels of conidia-related genes in WT strain treated with 100 ng/mL rapamycin after 3, 6, 9 h.

(I) Relative expression levels of sclerotia-related genes in WT strain treated with 100 ng/mL rapamycin after 3, 6, 9 h.

(J) Relative expression levels of aflatoxin biosynthesis regulatory and structural genes in WT strain treated with 100 ng/mL rapamycin after 3, 6, 9 h.

Fig. 2 Disruption of *fkbp3* significantly increases the resistance of *A. flavus* to rapamycin and FK506.

(A) Phenotype of the WT and all mutant strains (Δ*fkbp1*, Δ*fkbp2*, Δ*fkbp3*, and Δ*fkbp4*) grown on PDA amended with rapamycin and FK506 at 37°C for 5 days.

(B) TLC analysis of AFB$_1$ production by the WT and all mutant strains (Δ*fkbp1*, Δ*fkbp2*, Δ*fkbp3*, and Δ*fkbp4*) cultured in YES liquid medium at 29°C for 6 days.

(C) The growth inhibition rate of the WT and all mutant strains (Δ*fkbp1*, Δ*fkbp2*, Δ*fkbp3*, and Δ*fkbp4*) under rapamycin and FK506 stress.

(D) AFB$_1$ quantitative analysis of the WT and all mutant strains (Δ*fkbp1*, Δ*fkbp2*, Δ*fkbp3*, and Δ*fkbp4*) as described in (B).

(E) Phenotype of the WT and all mutant strains (Δ*fkbp3*, K5A, K19A, K40A, K42A, K55A, and K65A) grown on PDA amended with 100 ng/mL rapamycin at 37°C for 5 days.

(F) The growth inhibition rate of the WT and all mutant strains (Δ*fkbp3*, K5A, K19A, K40A, K42A, K55A, and K65A) under rapamycin stress.

(G) TLC assay of AFB$_1$ production by the WT and all mutant strains (Δ*fkbp3*, K5A, K19A, K40A, K42A, K55A, and K65A) cultured in YES liquid medium at 29°C for 6 days.

(H) Relative quantification of AFB$_1$ production in the WT and all mutant strains (Δ*fkbp3*, K5A, K19A, K40A, K42A, K55A, and K65A) as mentioned in (G).

Fig. 3 The Sch9 kinase participates in aflatoxin biosynthesis and the HOG pathway.

(A) The structure diagram of the Sch9 kinase.

(B) Phenotype of the WT, $\Delta sch9$, $sch9^{\Delta C2}$, $sch9^{\Delta S\_TKc}$, $sch9^{\Delta S\_TK\_X}$, and $sch9^{K340A}$ strains grown on PDA medium amended with 100 ng/mL rapamycin at 37°C for 5 days.

(C) TLC assay of AFB$_1$ production from the WT, $\Delta sch9$, $sch9^{\Delta C2}$, $sch9^{\Delta S\_TKc}$, $sch9^{\Delta S\_TK\_X}$, and $sch9^{K340A}$ strains cultured in YES liquid medium at 29°C for 6 days.

(D) The phenotypes of the WT, $\Delta sch9$, $sch9^{\Delta C2}$, $sch9^{\Delta S\_TKc}$, $sch9^{\Delta S\_TK\_X}$, and $sch9^{K340A}$ strains on YGT media amended with 1 M NaCl and 1 M KCl for 3 days.

(E) The phosphorylation levels of Hog1 in the WT and $\Delta sch9$ strains were determined with or without osmotic stress.

(F) The growth inhibition rate of the WT, $\Delta sch9$, $sch9^{\Delta C2}$, $sch9^{\Delta S\_TKc}$, $sch9^{\Delta S\_TK\_X}$, and $sch9^{K340A}$ strains under rapamycin stress.

(G) Quantitative analysis of AFB$_1$ as shown in (C).

(H) The growth inhibition rate of the WT, $\Delta sch9$, $sch9^{\Delta C2}$, $sch9^{\Delta S\_TKc}$, $sch9^{\Delta S\_TK\_X}$, and $sch9^{K340A}$ strains under osmotic stress.

Fig. 4 TipA regulates clerotia development and cell wall stress in *A. flavus*.

(A) Phenotype of the WT and Δ*tipA* strains grown on PDA amended with 100 ng/mL rapamycin at 37°C for 5 days.

(B) Phenotypic characterization of the WT and Δ*tipA* strains grown on CM medium at 37°C for 7 days.

(C) Morphology of conidiophores in the WT and Δ*tipA* strains observed by microscope.

(D) TLC assay of AFB_1 production by the WT and Δ*tipA* strains cultured in YES liquid medium at 29°C for 6 days.

(E) The growth inhibition rate of the WT and Δ*tipA* strains under rapamycin stress.

(F) Amount of sclerotia produced by the WT and Δ*tipA* strains.

(G) AFB_1 quantitative analysis of the WT and Δ*tipA* strains described in (D).

(H) Colony morphology of the WT and Δ*tipA* strains grown on PDA media supplemented with 200 µg/mL CR, 200µg/mL CFW, and 100 µg/mLSDS at 37°C for 5 days.

(I) The growth inhibition rate of the WT and Δ*tipA* strains under cell wall and cell membrane stress.

(J) Relative expression levels of sclerotia formation genes in the WT and Δ*tipA* strains.

Fig. 5 The impact of the phosphatases SitA and Ppg1 on the growth, conidiation, and aflatoxin biosynthesis in *A. flavus*.

(A) Colony morphology of the WT, single knockout, and double knockout strains cultured on PDA medium amended with 100 ng/mL rapamycin at 37°C for 5 days.

(B) Colony morphology of the WT, single knockout, and double knockout strains cultured on CM medium at 37°C for 7 days.

(C) TLC analysis of AFB_1 production from the WT, single knockout, and double knockout strains cultured in YES liquid medium at 29°C for 6 days.

(D) Growth diameter of the WT, single knockout, and double knockout strains on PDA media.

(E) The growth inhibition rate of the WT, single knockout, and double knockout strains under rapamycin stress.

(F) AFB_1 quantitative analysis of the WT, single knockout, and double knockout strains.

(G) Relative expression levels of conidia synthesis genes in the WT, single knockout, and double knockout strains.

(H) Relative expression levels of sclerotia synthesis genes in the WT, single knockout, and double knockout strains.

(I) Relative expression levels of aflatoxin biosynthesis genes in the WT, single knockout, and double knockout strains.

Fig. 6 Pathogenicity analysis of the phosphatase SitA and Ppg1 in *A. flavus*.

(A) Phenotypes of peanut and maize infected by the WT, single knockout, and double knockout strains.

(B) TLC was used to detect the AFB_1 from peanut and maize infected by the WT, single knockout, and double knockout strains.

(C) Quantitative analysis of conidia production from peanut and maize infected by the WT, single knockout, and double knockout strains.

(D) Quantitative analysis of AFB_1 from peanut and maize infected by the WT, single knockout, and double knockout strains.

A

B

C

D

Fig. 7 Sensitivity of phosphatase SitA and Ppg1 to cell wall damaging agents in *A. flavus*.

(A) Morphology of the WT, single knockout, and double knockout strains grown on YES media supplemented with 200 µg/mL CR, 200 µg/mL CFW, or 100 µg/mL SDS at 37°C for 5 days.

(B) The growth inhibition rate of the WT, single knockout, and double knockout strains under cell wall and cell membrane stress.

(C) Relative expression levels of cell wall synthesis genes (*chsA*, *chsD* and *chsE*) in the WT, single knockout, and double knockout strains.

(D) The phosphorylation level of Slt2 in the WT, single knockout, and double knockout strains was detected with or without cell wall stress.

Fig. 8 Phosphatase SitA and Ppg1 are involved in regulating lipid droplet biogenesis.

(A) The intracellular lipid droplets were stained by boron dipyrromethene difluoride (BODIPY) in hyphae of the WT strain and observed under fluorescence microscopy. The phenotype of lipid droplets accumulation in the mycelia of the WT strain treated with or without 100 ng/mL rapamycin for 6 h (Bar, 10 μm).

(B) Phenotype of lipid droplets accumulation in the mycelia of the Δ*sch9* strain treated with or without 100 ng/mL rapamycin for 6 h (Bar, 10 μm).

(C) Phenotype of lipid droplets accumulation in the mycelia of the Δ*sitA* strain treated with or without 100 ng/mL rapamycin for 6 h (Bar, 10 μm).

(D) Phenotype of lipid droplets accumulation in the mycelia of the Δ*ppg1* strain treated with or without 100 ng/mL rapamycin for 6 h (Bar, 10 μm).

Fig. 9 Phosphatase complex Nem1/Spo7 play significant role in growth, conidiation, aflatoxin, and lipid droplet biogenesis.

(A) Phenotype of the WT, Δ*nem1*, and Δ*spo7* strains grown on PDA amended with 100 ng/mL rapamycin at 37°C for 5 days.

(B) TLC assay of AFB$_1$ production from the WT, Δ*nem1*, and Δ*spo7* strains cultured in YES liquid medium at 29°C for 6 days.

(C) Growth diameter of the WT, Δ*nem1*, and Δ*spo7* strains on PDA media.

(D) Statistical analysis of the sporulation by the WT, Δ*nem1*, and Δ*spo7* strains.

(E) Phenotype of lipid droplets accumulation in the mycelia of the WT, Δ*nem1*, and Δ*spo7* strains treated with or without 100 ng/mL rapamycin for 6 h (Bar, 10 μm).

Vegetative development, stress responses, aflatoxin biosynthesis, and pathogenicity

Fig. 10 The proposed model of the target of rapamycin (TOR) pathway in *A. flavus*.

Based on the above results, we propose a hypothesis regarding the TOR signaling pathway model in *A. flavus*. Rapamycin forms a complex with Fkbp3, and this particular complex can bind to the TorA kinase, thereby impeding its regular functionality. Sch9, functioning as a downstream element of the TorA kinase, regulates aflatoxin biosynthesis and HOG signaling pathway. As another important target of the TorA kinase, TapA-phosphatase complex is involved in the regulation of growth, sporulation, sclerotia, aflatoxin production, CWI signaling pathway, lipid droplet synthesis, and other processes. In conclusion, the TOR signaling pathway plays a crucial role in various aspects of *A. flavus*, including vegetative development, stress response, aflatoxin biosynthesis, and pathogenicity.