The TOR signaling pathway regulates vegetative development, aflatoxin biosynthesis and pathogenicity in *Aspergillus flavus*

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Abstract

The target of the rapamycin (TOR) signaling pathway is highly conserved and important in eukaryotes. It is involved in the regulation of various biological processes. However, systematic studies on this pathway in the genus *Aspergillus* have not been reported. Here, we identified and characterized nine genes encoding components of the TOR pathway in *A. flavus*, and investigated their biological, genetic and biochemical functions. The FK506-binding protein FKBP3 and its lysine succinylation are important for aflatoxin production and rapamycin resistance. The Tor kinase plays a central role in the global regulation of growth, spore production, aflatoxin biosynthesis and rapamycin stress. As a major downstream effector molecule of Tor kinase, the Sch9 kinase might regulate the calcium and osmotic stress, AFB_1 synthesis of *A. flavus* by its S_TKc, S_TK_X domains and ATP binding site at K340. We also showed that Sch9 kinase might mediate crosstalk between the TOR and the HOG signaling pathways. TapA and TipA, the other downstream components of Tor kinase, play important roles in regulating mycelial growth and sclerotia formation in *A. flavus*. The member of the TapA-phosphatase complexes Sit4 and Ppg1 are important for hyphal development, sexual reproduction, sclerotia formation, AFB_1 biosynthesis, activation of the CWI and TOR signaling pathways in *A. flavus*. In addition, the another phosphatase complex Nem1/Spo7 play critical role in vegetative growth, conidiation, aflatoxin and LD biogenesis. This study provide new insights into constructing the regulatory network of the TOR signaling pathway and

46   revealing the molecular mechanism of the pathogenicity in *A. flavus.*

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

49   development

Introduction

A. flavus is one of the most important phytopathogenic fungi species, which

frequently contaminates 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 the most potent carcinogen present

in nature, causing liver cancer in humans and animals [3]. Although most of the

enzymatic reactions involved in AF biosynthesis have been elucidated and the genes

encoding these enzymes have been isolated [4], the signaling pathway network and

specific regulatory processes involved in AF biosynthesis are still unclear. Therefore,

exploring the regulatory mechanism of the AF biosynthesis signaling pathway would

provide new insights for preventing *A. flavus* and aflatoxins contamination.

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

conserved and plays essential roles in several important biological processes, such as

ribosome biosynthesis, cell growth and autophagy [5]. Several studies have shown that

the TOR signaling pathway interacts with other signaling pathways (MAPK, CWI),

and they crosstalk to form a complex metabolic network to regulate cellular processes

[6-9]. The serine/threonine-protein kinase Tor acts as a crucial protein element in the

TOR signaling pathway, which interacts with other proteins to form multiprotein

complexes. There are two TOR complexes named TORC1 and TORC2 in

Saccharomyces cerevisiae [10]. TORC1-mediated signaling controls cell growth by

regulating many growth-related processes and is sensitive to rapamycin, while

TORC2-mediated signaling is mainly responsible for cytoskeletal remodeling and is

insensitive to rapamycin [11]. However, most organisms, including plants, animals and

filamentous fungi, have a single Tor kinase [12-13].

In the fungal kingdom, most studies on the TOR signaling pathway have been

conducted in budding yeast *S. cerevisiae* [14-15], and fission yeast *Schizosaccharomyces*

pombe [6.16-17]. In *S. cerevisiae*, rapamycin forms a complex with the peptidylprolyl

cis/trans isomerase FKBP12, which binds and inhibits Tor kinase. The Tap42

phosphatase complex is the main target of Tor kinase, and the Tap42 protein interacts

with the Tip41 protein to jointly regulate phosphatases such as Pp2A and Sit4.

Phosphatase Sit4 can dephosphorylate transcription factor GLN3, regulating the

nitrogen source metabolism pathway [18-19]. In addition, the other immediate effector

of TORC1 is AGC kinase Sch9, which participates in other cellular functions

including ribosome biosynthesis [20]. In filamentous fungi, the TOR signaling pathway

has been reported in *Fusarium graminearum* [21-22], *Magnaporthe oryzae* [23],

Phanerochaete chrysosporium [24], *Podospora anserine* [25], *A. nidulans* [26], *A.*

fumigatus [51-52], *F. fujikuroi* [27], *Botrytis cinerea* [28], *F. oxysporum* [29]and *Mucor*

circinelloides [30]. In a word, filamentous fungi TOR signaling branch mediates spatial

and temporal control of cell growth by activating anabolic processes such as ribosome

biosynthesis, lipid droplet biogenesis, carbon and nitrogen metabolism, protein, lipid,

and nucleotide synthesis, and repressing catabolic processes such as autophagy and

apoptosis.

In yeast and filamentous fungi, the TOR signaling pathway modulates cell growth

and vegetative differentiation by sensing changes in external nutrients, energy and

stress [31]. While the underlying mechanisms of multiple crosstalks between TOR and

the other signaling pathway in *A. flavus* pathogens are unclear. Therefore, we intented

to identify the gene of TOR signaling pathway and demonstrate their roles and

contributions in the regulation of vegetative development and aflatoxin biosynthesis

in *A. flavus*. In this study, the results indicated that the TOR signaling pathway plays

crucial roles in various cellular processes including vegetative development, aflatoxin

biosynthesis and pathogenicity in *A. flavus*. Our results also indicated a highly

complicated cross-regulatory relationship between TOR and other signaling pathways

(MAPK, CWI) that maintain cellular growth and survival in response to

environmental stress in *A. flavus*.

Results

Rapamycin inhibits *A. flavus* growth, sporulation, sclerotia and aflatoxin

production

Rapamycin, a secondary metabolite produced by *Streptomyces hygroscopicus*, is

useful in the inhibition of certain filamentous fungi. In *F. graminearum*, rapamycin

exhibited a strong inhibitory effect on growth and asexual reproduction [21], which

also induces lipid droplet (LD) accumulation in *F. graminearum* and other

filamentous fungi [22]. To investigate the effect of rapamycin on vegetative

development, secondary metabolism and LD accumulation of *A. flavu*s, we assayed

the sensitivity of the WT strain to rapamycin. We found that the *A. flavus* WT strain

was very sensitive to rapamycin, and the mycelial growth, the germination of dormant

spores and conidia formation of the WT strain were significantly inhibited on PDA

solid plates supplemented with 100 ng/mL rapamycin (**Fig. 1A**). The radial growth

and the spore production of *A. flavus* WT strain were gradually decreased with the

increasing concentration of rapamycin(**Fig. 1D,1F**). In addition, the rapamycin also

showed intense inhibition on sclerotia and AFB_1 biosynthesis. As shown in **Fig. 1B**

and **1C**, compared to untreated strains, *A. flavus* was unable to synthesize aflatoxin

and form sclerotia in PDA added with 100 ng/mL rapamycin. Furthermore, we

observed that *A. flavus* displayed a dramatic reduction in the rate of spore germination

and sparser conidiophores with rapamycin treatment (**Fig. S2A,S2B**). Calcofluor

white is a chemifluorescent blue dye that is nonspecifically used to bind to the chitin

of fungi. Fluorescence microscopy showed that the blue fluorescence on the cell wall

is significantly diminished when treated with rapamycin (**Fig. S2C**). The intracellular

lipid droplets were stained by BODIPY in the hyphae, and we found that the hyphae

treated with rapamycin contained many more LDs (**Fig. 9A**). These findings

suggested that rapamycin-treated hyphae led to the accumulation of LD biogenesis

and reduction of chitin content. To explore the potential regulatory function of the

TOR pathway to affect the growth, sporulation, sclerotia and aflatoxin biosynthesis of

*A. flavu*s, qRT-PCR was used to determine the expression levels of genes related to

conidia, sclerotia and aflatoxin biosynthesis. The transcription levels of sporulation

and sclerotia genes were both significantly downregulated in rapamycin treatment

strains, while the genes related to aflatoxin synthesis were almost not expressed(**Fig.**

1G-1I), which indicated that the TOR pathway is involved in growth, sporulation,

sclerotia and aflatoxin biosynthesis in *A. flavu*s by regulating these genes. All the

above results showed that rapamycin affects the growth, sporulation, sclerotia and

aflatoxin synthesis of *A. flavus*, indicating that the TOR pathway plays important roles

in vegetative growth and secondary metabolism in *A. flavus*.

Effect of FKBP3 and its lysine succinylation on AFB₁ biosynthesis and

rapamycin resistance in *A. flavus*

FK506-binding proteins (FKBPs) are highly conserved immunophilin family and

its members involved in various cellular functions including protein folding,

immunosuppression, signaling transduction and transcription[33]. FKBPs act as

molecular switches, which elicit function through binding and altering the

conformation of target proteins. In *S. cerevisiae*, FKBP12 and rapamycin form a

complex that negatively regulates the Tor kinase activity[33]. According to the protein

sequence of peptidylprolyl isomerase 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) were

identified from the *A. flavu*s genome. These FKBPs contain a single FKBP-type

peptidylprolyl cis-trans isomerase conserved domain. Disruption strains for each

FKBP gene were generated by homologous recombination using the fusion PCR

approach. All FKBP disruption strains were confirmed by PCR and sequencing

analysis. Morphological analyses showed that mycelial growth and conidia formation

of all the FKBP mutants were similar to that of the WT strain on the PDA medium,

suggesting that FKBPs had no significant effects on the vegetative development (**Fig.**

2A). However, the number of sclerotia was significantly reduced in all FKBP mutants

compared to that of the WT strain (**Fig. S3**), indicating that FKBPs were essential for

sclerotia formation. We also assessed AFB_1 production via thin layer chromatography

(TLC), and the results showed that the deletion of FKBP3 led to an obvious decrease

in AFB_1 production compared to that of the WT strain (**Fig. 2B**). Taken together, these

data indicated that FKBPs are involved in sclerotia and aflatoxin biosynthesis in *A.*

flavus.

We found that the *A. flavus* WT strain was very sensitive to rapamycin. To

determine which FKBP is involved in rapamycin sensitivity, all mutants were cultured

in the PDA solid plates supplemented with 100 ng/mL rapamycin. The FKBP3

disrupted strain showed high resistance to rapamycin, but the FKBP1, FKBP2 and

FKBP4 deletion mutants showed no change in resistance to rapamycin (**Fig. 2A**).

These results demonstrated that FKBP3, rather than FKBP1, FKBP2 and FKBP4, is a

major target for rapamycin in *A. flavu*s. For FK506-sensitivity analysis, we found that

mycelial growth and conidia formation of *A. flavus* were severely inhibited on PDA

added with 10 ng/mL FK506, and the deletion of FKBP3 resulted in increased

resistance of *A. flavu*s to FK506 compared to WT strain (**Fig. 2A**), indicating that the

FKBP3 was mainly involved in the regulation of FK506 resistance.

In a previous study, we accomplished a global succinylome analysis of *A. flavus*

[60]. Based on our succinylome result, we identified six reliable succinylation sites (K5,

K19, K40, K42, K55, K65) on FKBP3. Further evolutionary conservation analysis

revealed that lysine at 19 of FKBP3 was highly conserved in the *A. flavus* orthologs,

suggesting that this residue of FKBP3 may be important for an evolutionarily

conserved function, which may play a crucial role in regulating aflatoxin biosynthesis

in *A. flavus*. To these succinylation sites, the site-directed mutations were constructed

according to the homologous recombination strategy. Compared with the *A. flavus*

WT strain, all point mutants exhibited similar phenotype in vegetative growth and

conidiation. Interestingly, we observed that K19A displayed increased resistance to

rapamycin, and AFB_1 production was significantly reduced when compared to the WT

strain (**Fig. 3E, 3G**), suggesting an essential role of K19 succinylation of FKBP3 in

rapamycin resistance and aflatoxin biosynthesis. In addition, other point mutants,

including K40A, K42A and K55A, produced less AFB_1 compared to the WT strain

(**Fig. 3G**), illustrating that the succinylation of FKBP3 on others site are involved in

AF biosynthesis in *A. flavus*. However, the K19 site likely plays a more prominent

role than others sites in FKBP3 succinylation.

Tor kinase plays important roles in *A. flavus*

In *S. cerevisiae*, the FKBP12 and rapamycin forms a gain-of-function complex

interacts specifically with the TOR proteins. The Tor kinases can bind to various

proteins to form complexes such as TORC1 and TORC2. TORC1 can sense signals

such as nutrients, growth factors, and stress in the environment, and participate in the

regulation of signaling pathways such as gene transcription, protein translation,

ribosome synthesis and autophagy[48]. To identify the ortholog of the *S. cerevisiae*

TOR in *A. flavus*, the *S. cerevisiae* TOR protein was used as search queries by BLAST

(https://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi) in the *A. flavus* genome databasein. The *A.*

flavus genome has a single Tor kinase ortholog (AFLA_044350) encoding a protein

with 48.91% similarity to *S. cerevisiae* TOR2. To determine the function of Tor kinase

in *A. flavu*s, we targeted *Tor* for gene deletion. While we failed to obtained a null

mutant, we constructed a single copy deletion strain $\Delta Tor1^+/Tor2^-$ (containing one

copy of the *Tor* gene) constructed by homologous recombination. Compared with the

WT strain, the $\Delta Tor1^+/Tor2^-$ strain grew significantly slower on PDA (**Fig. 3C**), and

produced fewer conidia and sclerotia than the WT strain (**Fig. 3B,S4**). The results

from TLC showed that AFB_1 production of the $\Delta Tor1^+/Tor2^-$ strain was dramatically

decreased compared to that of WT strain (**Fig. 3F**). Furthermore, The qRT-PCR

results showed that the expression levels of the sexual sporulation and aflatoxin

synthesis genes were both downregulated in the $\Delta Tor1^+/Tor2^-$ mutant compared to

WT(**Fig. 3E,3H**). Interestingly, the $\Delta Tor1^+/Tor2^-$ strain cannot survive on PDA

amended with 100 ng/mL rapamycin (**Fig. 3C**). In addition, the $\Delta Tor1^+/Tor2^-$ strain

was more sensitive to osmotic stress and cell wall inhibitor, including NaCl, KCl,

CFW and CR (**Fig.S5**). These findings suggested that TOR is involved in vegetative

growth, asexual development, sclerotia formation, environmental stress and AF

biosynthesis in *A. flavus*.

TOR is a conserved serine/threonine kinase, which possesses HEAT repeats at

the N-terminal region, and the DUF3385, the FAT, Fkbp12-rapamycin binding (FRB),

kinase catalytic and FATC domains at the C-terminal region (**Fig. 3A**).To assess the

role of the FRB domain inside Tor kinase, the FRB domain was deleted with the

method of homologous recombination. Compared with the $\Delta Tor1^{+}/Tor2^{-}$ strain, the

$TOR^{\Delta FRB}$ single-copy deletion mutants exhibited similar defects in vegetative growth,

conidiation, sclerotia formation, cell wall stress and rapamycin sensitivity (**Fig.**

3B,3C,S4,S5). In *F. graminearum*, the S1866L mutation in the FgTor kinase confers

rapamycin resistance [21]. To investigate the function of this conserved site, the

TOR^{S1904L} mutant was constructed by homologous recombination, but site-specific

mutation did not impair rapamycin resistance (**Fig. 3C**). Based on these observations,

we speculated that the FRB domain plays critical roles in the regulation of Tor kinase

on fungal development and rapamycin resistance in *A. flavus*.

Sch9 is involved in regulating sclerotia formation and aflatoxin biosynthesis

Sch9, a Ser/Thr kinase of the AGC family, is required for TORC1 to properly

regulate ribosome biogenesis, translation initiation, and entry into the G_0 phase in *S.*

cerevisiae, and TORC1-dependent phosphorylation is required for Sch9 activity [49].

The *A. flavus* putative *Sch9* (AFLA_044350) gene encode a 706 aminoacid protein

with 80.31% identity to the *A. nidulans* Sch9. To investigate the function of Sch9 in *A.*

flavus, we attempted to generate Sch9 deletion mutant using a homologous

recombination strategy. The Δ*Sch9* strain showed normal vegetative growth and

conidiation similar to the WT strain (**Fig. 4B**). TLC assay and quantitative analysis

showed a significantly decreased aflatoxin production in Δ*Sch9* strain compared to

WT strain (**Fig. 4C**). These results showed that Sch9 regulates aflatoxin biosynthesis

in *A. flavus*.

Sch9 is correlate with the HOG and TOR pathways

In yeast, Sch9 is required for gene expression regulated by Sko1, which is

directly targeted by the Hog1 MAP kinase, and Sch9 interacts *in vitro* with both Sko1

and Hog1[53]. To characterize the roles of Sch9 in stress response, we examined the

sensitivity of Δ*Sch9* to various stresses including osmotic stress and calcium stress.

Compared with the WT strain, Δ*Sch9* significantly increased sensitivity to osmotic

stress generated by NaCl and KCl (**Fig. 4C**). In addition, the Δ*Sch9* strain was more

sensitive to the high concentrations of calcium stress(**Fig. S5**), these results indicated

that the Sch9 as a element for the calcineurin-CrzA pathway in response to calcium

stress. In *A. flavus*, the Sch9 kinase contain protein kinase C conserved region 2 (C2),

protein kinase (S_TKc), AGC-kinase C-terminal (S_TK_X) domain and a ATP

binding site (**Fig. 4A**). To explore the role of these domains and ATP binding site in

Sch9, both domains deletion strains and Sch9^{K340A} mutant were constructed.

Compared with the Δ*Sch9* mutant, the S_TKc deletion strain (*Sch9$^{ΔS\_TKc}$*), S_TK_X

deletion strain (*Sch9$^{ΔS\_TK\_X}$*) and Sch9^{K340A} mutant exhibited similar defects in osmotic

stress and AFB$_1$ production(**Fig.4B-4D**). Therefore, we speculate that protein kinase ,

kinase C-terminal domain and the ATP binding site at K340 play important roles in

the regulation of Sch9 on osmotic and rapamycin resistance in *A. flavus*.

To determine if Sch9 was involved in the HOG and TOR pathways in *A. flavus*,

we examined the sensitivity of Δ*Sch9* to rapamycin. Compared with the WT strain,

the Δ*Sch9* strain was slightly more sensitive to rapamycin(**Fig. 4B**). The MAKP Hog1

is a element of the high osmolarity glycerol (HOG) pathway, so we further examined

the phosphorylation level of Hog1. Western blot analysis showed that the

phosphorylation level of Hog1 increased significantly in the Δ*Sch9* strain (**Fig. 4E**),

indicating that Sch9 influences the Hog1 in response to osmotic stress. Taken together,

these results reflected that Sch9 serves as a mediator of the TOR and HOG pathways

and regulates aflatoxin biosynthesis and multiple stress responses in *A. flavus*.

TapA plays a major role in the growth, sporulation, sclerotia and aflatoxin

production

Tap42, a phosphatase 2A-associating protein, is the direct target of the Tor kinase

in yeast. Recent results suggested that Tap42 mediates many of the Tor functions in

yeast, especially those involved in transcriptional modulation [55]. The *A. flavus*

genome has a Tap42 homolog named TapA (AFLA_092770), which predicted to

encode an 355 amino-acid protein shares 31.9% identity with *S. cerevisiae* Tap42. To

further determine the function of the TOR signaling pathway regulator TapA in *A.*

*flavu*s, we targeted *TapA* for gene deletion. We failed to obtain a null mutant, so we

generated the Δ*TapA 1⁺/TapA 2⁻* strain (containing one copy of the *TapA* gene).

Compared with the WT strain, the Δ*TapA 1⁺/TapA 2⁻* strain led to reduced hyphal

growth and conidiation (**Fig. 5A.5D**), indicating that *TapA* is important for vegetative

growth and conidiation. In addition, the $\Delta TapA\ 1^+/TapA\ 2^-$ strain was unable to

produce any sclerotia (**Fig. 5B**), and almost lost its capability in AFB_1 production

compared to the WT strain, suggesting that TapA is essential for sclerotia formation

and biosynthesis of AFB_1 (**Fig. 5C**). The rapamycin sensitivity test showed that the

$\Delta TapA\ 1^+/TapA\ 2^-$ strain exhibited decreased sensitivity to rapamycin (**Fig. 5A**).

Furthermore, the expression of *nsdC*, *nsdD* and *sclR* were significantly decreased in

$\Delta TapA1^+/TapA\ 2^-$ strain compared to those in the WT(**Fig. 5F**). These findings

revealed that the TapA plays an important positive role in growth, sporulation,

sclerotia and AF biosynthesis in *A. flavus*.

TipA regulates growth, conidia, sclerotia and aflatoxin biosynthesis.

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

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

signaling via activation of PP2A phosphatase [35]. The putative Tip41 orthologue in *A.*

flavus named TipA(AFLA_047310). The amino acid sequence of TipA shares 40.49%

similarity to *S. cerevisiae* Tap41. To elucidate the function of TOR signaling pathway

protein TipA in *A. flavu*s, we generated the TipA deletion mutant. The $\Delta TipA$ strain

exhibited smaller diameter colonies on PDA compared to the WT strain, and the

number of conidia produced by $\Delta TipA$ strain was significantly reduced than that by

the WT strain on PDA (**Fig. 5A**). In addition, the $\Delta TipA$ strain was unable to produce

any sclerotia (**Fig. 5B**), and TLC analyses indicated that the deletion of TipA led to a

considerable decrease in AFB_1 production on YES (**Fig. 5C**). Meanwhile, the $\Delta TipA$

strain exhibited decreased sensitivity to rapamycin (**Fig. 5A**). Moreover, the

expression levels of genes *nsdC* and *nsdD* showed a decrease in Δ*TipA* strain

compared to WT (**Fig. 5F**). These results indicated that TipA is important for growth,

conidia, sclerotial and aflatoxin biosynthesis in *A. flavu*s.

Phosphatase SitA and Ppg1 are involved in growth, conidiation and sclerotia formation

In *S. cerevisiae*, Tap42 also interacts with the catalytic subunits of Type 2A

phosphatases, such as Pph21, Pph22, Pph3, Sit4 and Ppg1, which is controlled by the

Tor   signaling   pathway   [36].   Phosphatase   SitA(AFLA_108450)   and

Ppg1(AFLA_132610) were identified in *A. flavu*s, which encode putative orthologs of

Sit4 and 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 study the relationship between phosphatase SitA

and Ppg1, we also constructed complement 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 WT strain on PDA (**Fig.**

6A). In addition, the Δ*SitA*, Δ*Ppg1* and Δ*SitA*/Δ*Ppg1* strains formed lower number of

conidiophores (**Fig. 6A**). To gain further insight into the role of SitA and Ppg1 in

conidiation, qRT-PCR was used to determine the transcript levels of conidial

synthesis-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 compared to WT and complemented strains(**Fig. 6G**). The sclerotial

formation analysis results showed that the Δ*SitA*, Δ*Ppg1* and Δ*SitA*/Δ*Ppg1* mutants

were unable to produce any sclerotia (**Fig. 6B**).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 results showed that the expression

levels of *NsdC, NsdD* and *SclR* were all downregulated in the Δ*SitA*, Δ*Ppg1* and

Δ*SitA*/Δ*Ppg1* mutants(**Fig. 6H**), which is consistent with the sclerotia production

observed in the Δ*SitA*, Δ*Ppg1* and Δ*SitA*/Δ*Ppg1*. These results showed that SitA and

Ppg1 are crucial for hyphal development, conidiation and sclerotia formation in *A.*

*flavu*s.

SitA and Ppg1 play different roles in regulating aflatoxin biosynthesis

Previous studies have demonstrated that protein phosphorylation is critical for the

regulation of AFs biosynthesis, which are the toxic and carcinogenic secondary

metabolites of *A. flavus* [37]. We assayed AFB_1 biosynthesis in the Δ*SitA*, Δ*Ppg1* and

Δ*SitA*/Δ*Ppg1* mutants, and TLC analyses indicated that Δ*SitA* and Δ*SitA*/Δ*Ppg1*

strains produced less AFB_1, while the level of AFB_1 produced by Δ*Ppg1* was

markedly increased compared to that of the WT and complemented strains (**Fig. 6C**).

The expression levels of aflatoxin synthesis-related genes (structural genes: *aflO, aflP,*

aflQ and *aflJ*, and regulatory genes: *aflR* and *aflS*) were determined by qRT-PCR in

the Δ*SitA*, Δ*Ppg1* and Δ*SitA*/Δ*Ppg1* mutants, and the result showed that the expression

levels of those genes were drastically downregulated in the Δ*SitA* and Δ*SitA*/Δ*Ppg1*

mutants, while upregulated in Δ*Ppg1* mutants when compared to those of the WT and

complemented strains(**Fig. 6I**). These results indicated that SitA and Ppg1 play

different roles in regulating aflatoxin biosynthesis in *A. flavu*s.

SitA and Ppg1 are important for pathogenicity

To investigate the pathogenicity of phosphatases SitA and Ppg1 on crops, we conducted pathogenicity tests on peanut and maize. The results showed that WT and complement strains resulted in full virulence on all peanut and maize seeds, while the $\Delta SitA$, $\Delta Ppg1$ and $\Delta SitA/\Delta Ppg1$ mutants exhibited more flawed colonization on peanut and maize seeds (**Fig. 7A**). In addition, the number of conidial productions of these mutants on the infected peanut seeds also dramatically decreased compared to those of WT and complement strains (**Fig. 7C**). TLC analyses indicated that the $\Delta Ppg1$ mutant produced more AFB_1 on peanut and maize, while the level of aflatoxin produced by $\Delta SitA$ and $\Delta SitA/\Delta Ppg1$ mutants on peanut and maize were significantly reduced compared to WT and complement strains (**Fig. 7B and 7D**). This is consistent with the above results of aflatoxin biosynthesis of all mutants in the medium. All these data showed that SitA and Ppg1 are important 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 cultured on PDA amended with CFW and CR. We found that the relative growth inhibition of $\Delta SitA$, $\Delta Ppg1$ and $\Delta SitA/\Delta Ppg1$ mutants induced by cell wall stress were significantly increased compared to WT and complement strains (**Fig. 8A and 8B**). Further studies by qRT-PCR showed that expression levels of genes associated with synthetic cell walls, such as chitin synthase genes *chsA*, *chsB*, *chsC* and *chsD*, were significantly decreased in the $\Delta SitA$, $\Delta Ppg1$ and $\Delta SitA/\Delta Ppg1$ strains

(**Fig. 8C**). Western blot analysis showed that the phosphorylation level of Slt2 was

higher in Δ*SitA*, Δ*Ppg1* and Δ*SitA*/Δ*Ppg1* than that in the WT strain (**Fig. 8D**). To sum

up, the phosphatases SitA and Ppg1 maintained the integrity of the cell wall by

positively regulating the expression of those genes.

The phosphatase complex Nem1/Spo7 are important for growth, conidiation,

aflatoxin and LD biogenesis.

Lipid droplets (LDs) are spherical organelles, which appear in the cytosol of

some prokaryotic and most eukaryotic cells upon energy surplus. The FgTOR

pathway regulates the phosphorylation status of FgNem1 mainly via the

FgPpg1/Sit4-FgCak1/other kinase cascade in *F. graminearum* [7]. In this study, we

observed that rapamycin-treated hyphae led to the accumulation of LD biogenesis(**Fig.**

9A), suggesting that the TOR pathway may regulate the LD biogenesis. However, the

functions of LDs and the underlying regulatory mechanism of LD biosynthesis are

still largely unknown. In order to explore the regulatory mechanism of the TOR

pathway that regulates LD biogenesis in *A. flavu*s, we examined LD accumulation in

Δ*Sch9,* Δ*SitA* and Δ*Ppg1*. BODIPY staining assays showed that LD biogenesis was

not induced in the Δ*SitA* and Δ*Ppg1* strains treated with rapamycin compared to those

in the WT and Δ*Sch9* strains (**Fig. 9A-D**). These results indicated that LD biogenesis

induced by rapamycin is largely dependent on the phosphatases SitA and Ppg1 in *A.*

*flavu*s. In *F. graminearum,* the phosphatase FgNem1/FgSpo7 complex was involved

in induction of LD biogenesis by rapamycin. Phosphatase Nem1(AFLA_002649) and

Spo7 (AFLA_028590) were identified in *A. flavu*s, which encode putative orthologs

of FgNem1 and FgSpo7 in *F. graminearum.* To investigate the function of Nem1 and

Spo7 gene in *A. flavu*s, Δ*Nem1* and Δ*Spo7* mutants was constructed with homologous

recombination. The Δ*Nem1* and Δ*Spo7* mutants exhibited a significant decrease in

vegetative growth and conidiation compared to WT(**Fig. 10A**). TLC assay and

quantitative analysis showed a significantly decreased aflatoxin production in Δ*Nem1*

and Δ*Spo7* compared to WT(**Fig. 10B**). In addition, BODIPY staining showed no

visible lipid droplets in the hyphae of Δ*Nem1* and Δ*Spo7* after rapamycin

treatment(**Fig. 10C**). Taken together, these results indicated that Nem1/Spo7 are

involved in vegetative growth, conidiation, aflatoxin and LD biogenesis.

Discussion

Aflatoxins (AFs) are a class of toxic secondary metabolites produced 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 [38]. Therefore, understanding the

regulatory mechanism of fungal secondary metabolite biosynthesis would help in

exploiting aflatoxin control in *A. flavu*s. In this study, we demonstrated that the target

of the rapamycin (TOR) signaling pathway plays critical roles in regulating growth,

sporulation, sclerotia and aflatoxin production in *A. flavu*s. Through functional studies

of nine genes in the TOR signaling pathway, we explored the conservation and

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

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

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

pathway interacts with other signaling pathways (MAPK, CWI, calcineurin-CrzA

pathway) to regulate the responses to various environmental stresses(**Fig. 11**). Our

results might provide new insights into the biological control of *A. flavus*.

We found that rapamycin not only affects the growth and sporulation of *A. flavu*s,

but also strongly inhibits sclerotia production and aflatoxin biosynthesis (**Fig. 1A-1C**).

This inhibitory effect has been observed in a variety of fungi, including *Candida*

albicans [39], *Cryptococcus neoformans* [39], *Podospora anserine* [40], *Aspergillus*

nidulans [26], *Magnaporthe oryzae* [8], and *Fusarium graminearum* [21], suggesting that

the function of the TOR signaling pathway may be conserved in filamentous fungi.

The number of FK506-binding proteins varies among species: there are four FKBPs

protein in *S. cerevisiae* and three FKBPs protein in *S. pombe* [34]. In *S. cerevisiae*,

rapamycin can bind to FKBP protein, irreversibly inhibit the G_1 phase of the cell cycle

and control cell growth [46]. The entomopathogenic fungus *Beauveria bassiana*

contains three putative *FKBP* genes, and disruption of *BbFKBP12* significantly

increases the resistance to rapamycin and FK506 [41]. The plant pathogenic fungus *F.*

graminearum harbors three FKBPs protein, among which deletion of *FgFKBP12*

leads to resistance to rapamycin [21]. In this study, we showed that FKBP3 is involved

in sclerotia and aflatoxin biosynthesis and rapamycin resistance in *A. flavu*s(**Fig.**

2A-2C), and the conserved site K19 of *FKBP3* regulated the aflatoxin biosynthesis

and rapamycin resistance(**Fig. 2E-2G**). Previous research has shown that FKBP12

was characterized as the receptor of FK506 and rapamycin, which has been the most

extensively documented in different fungi. The deletion of *FKBP12* confers the

resistance to rapamycin in *C. albicans* [39] and *C. neoformans* [39]. Similar phenotypes

are observed in other fungi, such as *F. graminearum*[21], *B. bassiana* [41]and *Mucor*

circinelloides[30], and the *FKBP12* mutants have significantly increased resistance to

rapamycin and FK506 in these filamentous fungi. In *Botrytis cinerea* [28], the deletion

of *BcFKBP12* cause a reduction of the virulence of strain T4, while knockout of the

FKBP12 gene did not affect the pathogenic development of the strain B05.10. Thus,

we proposed that these FKBPs may perform similar functions in fungi.

The Tor kinase acts as a core element of the TOR signaling pathway, which is

evolutionarily conserved in fungi, plants and mammals [45]. TOR assembles into two

distinct multiprotein complexes: TORC1 and TORC2. A defining feature of TORC1 is

the interaction of TOR with KOG1 (Raptor in mammals) and its sensitivity to a

rapamycin-FKBP12 complex [61]. Tor kinase is widely conserved both structurally and

as the target of FKBP-rapamycin. Almost all other eukaryotes, including plants,

worms, flies, and mammals, have a single Tor gene, whereas *S. cerevisiae* has two Tor

genes [47]. Tor kinase is widely conserved both structurally and as the target of

FKBP-rapamycin, which have similar domains including HEAT-like, FAT, FRB,

kinase and FATC domains. The FRB domain is the binding region of the

FKBP-Rapamycin complex, and rapamycin resistance is caused by the disruption of

the FRB domain[47]. The homology comparison and phylogenetic analysis revealed

that there is the only Tor kinase gene predicted in *A. flavus*. To determine its function,

we generated the *Tor* single-copy deletion mutant by homologous recombination. We

found that Tor was involved in the vegetative growth and asexual development of *A.*

*flavu*s(**Fig. 3C**). In addition, Tor responds to various stresses including osmotic and

oxidative stresses, cell wall-damaging agents and rapamycin(**Fig. 3F, S6**). Our results

revealed that Tor kinase and its FRB domain play very important roles in the

morphogenesis, mycotoxin biosynthesis, and multiple stress responses of *A. flavus.*

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

connecting an iron cue to defend against pathogen infection in *C. elegans* [57]. In *A.*

fumigatus, 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[58]. In *F.*

graminearum, the Tor point mutation (S1866L) prevents Fkbp12-rapamycin complex

from binding to the FgFRB domain of FgTor [21]. We also constructed a point mutant

strain TOR^{S1904L}, but the sensitivity to rapamycin is consistent with the WT strain,

which may be related to the functional variances of the Tor site (S1866L) in different

species.

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

TORC1, which plays important roles in stress resistance, longevity and nutrient

sensing [59]. In addition, the TORC1-Sch9 pathway acts as a crucial mediator of

chronological lifespan [50]. In filamentous fungi, there is a complex network of

interactions between TOR and HOG pathways. In *F. graminearum* [7], FgSch9 and

FgHog1 mutants exhibited increased sensitivity to osmotic and oxidative stresses, and

this defect was more severe in the FgSch9/FgHog1 double mutant. The

phosphorylation level of FgHog1 increased significantly in Δ*FgSch9*, and the affinity

capture-MS assay showed that TOR was one of the proteins co-purifying with FgSch9.

These results suggest that FgSch9 serves as a mediator for the TOR and HOG

pathways[7]. In addition, FgSch9 regulates hyphal differentiation, asexual

development, virulence and DON biosynthesis, which is also involved in the

regulation of sensitivity to rapamycin, cell wall-damaging agents, fungicide, osmotic

and oxidative stresses[7]. 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 showed increased phosphorylation of SakA upon

osmotic stress[51]. In this study, we discovered that Sch9 is involved in regulating

aflatoxin biosynthesis (**Fig.4C**), and responses to various stresses including osmotic

stress, cell wall-damaging agents and rapamycin (**Fig.4B**). 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 exhibited similar phenotype with $\Delta Sch9$ strain(**Fig. 4C-4D**). These

findings revealed that Sch9 plays an important role in the   biological synthesis of

aflatoxin and multiple stresses mainly via its kinase domain, kinase-C domain and

ATP binding site k340. We also found that the phosphorylation level of Hog1

increased significantly in the $\Delta Sch9$ strain(**Fig. 4E**). Based on the above results, we

speculated that Sch9 serves as a mediator for the complex network of interactions

amongst the TOR and HOG signaling pathways.

In *S. pombe*, Tip41 (a Tap42-interacting protein) plays an important role in the

cellular responses to nitrogen sources by regulating type 2A phosphatases [42]. In *S.*

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

downregulates TORC1 signaling via activation of PP2A phosphatase [34]. Unlike yeast

Tip41, TIPRL, a mammalian Tip41-like protein, has a positive effect on mTORC1

signaling through the interaction with PP2Ac [43]. While the interaction between Tip41

and Tap42 was not observed in the filamentous fungi. The Y2H assay showed that the

FgTip41 interacts with phosphatase FgPpg1 rather than FgTap42, while the FgTap42

bind with phosphatases FgPp2A, implying that FgTap42, FgPpg1 and FgTip41 form a

heterotrimer in *F. graminearum* [21]. FgTip41 is associated with mycotoxin production

and pathogenicity in *F. graminearum*, but Δ*FgTip41* had no detectable changes in

sensitivity to rapamycin[21]. In the rice blast fungus *M. oryzae*, MoTip41 does not

interact with the MoTap42, but MoTip41 can bind with phosphatase MoPpe1 to

mediate crosstalk between TOR and cell wall integrity signaling[9]. In this study, we

found that the TapA and TipA were essential for growth, conidia, sclerotia and

aflatoxin biosynthesis in *A. flavu*s(**Fig. 5A-5C**). The *TapA* single-copy deletion

mutant exhibited decreased sensitivity to rapamycin. However, the TipA deletion

mutant had no detectable changes in sensitivity to rapamycin. These results indicated

that the functions of TapA and TipA in *A. flavus* were similar to its ortholog in the

filamentous fungi.

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

Pph3, Pph21, Pph22, Sit4 and Ppg1, participating in the TOR signaling pathway in

response to rapamycin treatment or nutrient deprivation [35]. Sit4 plays an important

role in cell growth and environmental stimuli responses, such as high glucose

environment, high temperature and hygromycin [44]. FgSit4 and FgPpg1 are associated

with various cellular processes, including mycelial growth, conidiation and DON

biosynthesis virulence in *F. graminearum* [21]. In addition, FgSit4 and FgPpg1 are

involved in the regulation of various signaling pathways, such as the TOR signaling

pathway, CWI pathway and lipid droplets biogenesis regulation pathway [22]. In this

study, we found that the phosphatase SitA and Ppg1 play critical role in vegetative

growth, conidiation, pathogenicity, LD biogenesis, sclerotia formation and aflatoxin

biosynthesis in *A. flavus*(**Fig. 6A-6C**). Additionally, SitA and Ppg1 also affect cell

wall integrity stresses response and rapamycin sensitivity. 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. Western blotting results showed that the

phosphorylation level of MAPK kinase Slt2 has increased significantly in the Δ*SitA*

and Δ*Ppg1* strains(**Fig. 8D**), indicating that SitA and Ppg1 have a negative regulation

on the CWI pathway. We concluded that phosphatases SitA and Ppg1 serve as a

mediator for the TOR and CWI pathways in *A. flavus*. In *M. oryzae*, MoPpe1 is the

homologue of *S. cerevisiae* serine/threonine protein phosphatase Sit4/Ppe1, which is

required for vegetative growth, conidiation and full virulence. MoPpe1 and MoSap1

function as an adaptor complex linking CWI and TOR signaling and the activation of

the TOR pathway leads to suppression of CWI signaling[8]. In addition, the

phosphatase MoPpe1 interacts with phosphatase-associated protein MoTip41 to

mediate crosstalk between TOR and CWI signaling[8]. These results suggest that

phosphatase ppe1 interacts with different proteins to coordinate the TOR and CWI

signaling pathways in regulating the growth and pathogenicity of rice blast fungus *M.*

oryzae. Taken together, we speculated that phosphatase SitA and Ppg1 may regulate

CWI and TOR pathways differently between species to perform their function.

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

plays important roles in fungal development, DON production and LD biogenesis[22].

In this study, our results indicated that Nem1 and Spo7 are important for asexual

development and secondary metabolism of *A. flavus*. We also found that LD

biogenesis mediated by the Nem1/Spo7 and SitA/Ppg1 in *A. flavu*s. These

observations imply the PP2A phosphatases are core phosphatase in the LD biogenesis

signaling network, there should be other kinases involved in regulating the LD

biogenesis. It seems that phosphatases may be related to cross-talking among the TOR

and LD biogenesis signaling network. The exact molecular mechanism is required to

investigate the relationship between phosphatase and other kinase and to explore

regulatory mechanism and biological functions of the LDs.

In conclusion, we identified the complex regulatory network that elucidates how

crosstalk between TOR, HOG and CWI signaling modulates the development,

aflatoxin biosynthesis and pathogenicity of *A. flavus*. By resolving the functions of

genes related to the TOR signaling pathway, our findings can lay a solid foundation

for an in-depth understanding of the molecular mechanism of *A. flavus* pathogenicity,

which would provide novel insight for controlling AF contamination and reducing *A.*

flavus infection.

Materials and methods

Strains and cultural conditions

The *A. flavus* strains in this study were shown in S1 Table . All strains were cultured on potato dextrose agar (PDA), yeast extract-sucrose agar (YES) and yeast extract-glucose agar (YGT) at 37°C for growth and conidiation assays respectively, and YES liquid medium and Potato dextrose broth (PDB) were used to detect aflatoxin production at 29°C.

Constructions of gene deletion and complementation mutants

The gene deletion and complementation strains were constructed using the SOE-PCR strategy according to previously described methods [32]. The primers used to amplify the flanking sequences of each gene were listed in S2 Table. The putative gene deletion mutants were verified by PCR and RT-PCR assays with the relevant primers(Fig S1) and further confirmed by sequencing analysis.

Growth, conidiation and sclerotia analysis

To assess mycelial growth and conidia formation, 1 μL of 10^6 spores/mL conidia of all strains were point inoculated onto the center of YES, PDA and YGT agar medium respectively, and then cultured at 37°C for 5 days in the dark. The colony diameters were measured every day, and the conidia were washed by 0.07% Tween-20 and counted using a hemocytometer and microscope[37]. For sclerotia formation analysis, each strain was inoculated and grown on CM agar medium at 37°C in the dark for 7 days, and then 75% ethanol was used to wash away mycelia

592   and conidia on the surface of the medium[60].The assays were repeated at least three

593   times.

Extraction and quantitative analysis of aflatoxin

To extract AF and quantify the AF production, 1 μL of 10^6 spores/mL conidia of

all strains were point inoculated onto liquid YES or PDB medium and cultures were

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

detected by thin layer chromatography (TLC)[60].In addition, the standard AFB_1 was

used for visual comparison, and AF was quantitative analyzed by 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 different agents, including

1M NaCl,1M KCl and 1M $CaCl_2$ treatment for osmotic stress, 100μg/mL SDS, 200

μg/mL Calcofluor white (CFW) and 200 μg/mL Congo red (CR) treatment for cell

wall stress. After 5 days of incubation at 37°C in the dark, the relative inhibition rates

were calculated[37]. The assays were repeated at least three times.

Seeds infection assays

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

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

and then all peanut and maize seeds were soaked in sterile water supplemented with

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

the seeds were cultured at 29°C for 6 days in the dark[60].

Quantitative RT-PCR

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

in 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 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[62].

Western blot analysis

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

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

powder and transfered 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[60]. 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 statistical and significance

analysis, and p-values < 0.05 was 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 growth, sporulation , sclerotia and aflatoxin production of *Aspergillus flavus*.

(A) The *A. flavus* wild-type (WT) strain was incubated on PDA amended with different concentrations of rapamycin at 37 °C for 5 days .

(B) Colony phenotype of 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 WT strain cultured in YES liquid media at 29°C for 6 days.

(D) Statistical analysis of the 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 rapamycinas as mentioned in (A).

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

(G) Relative transcript levels of conidia-related genes in WT strain treated with 100 ng/mL rapamycin cultured for 48 h.

(H) Relative transcript levels of sclerotia-related genes in WT strain treated with 100 ng/mL rapamycin cultured for 48 h.

(I) Relative transcript levels of aflatoxin biosynthesis regulatory and structural genes in WT strain treated with 100 ng/mL rapamycin cultured for 48 h.

Fig. 2 Disruption of FKBP3 significantly increases the resistance of *A. flavus* to rapamycin and FK506.

(A)   Phenotype of *A. flavus* WT and all mutant strains (Δ*FKBP1*, Δ*FKBP2*, Δ*FKBP3* and Δ*FKBP4*) grown on PDA amended with 100 ng/mL rapamycin at 37°C for 5 days.

(B) TLC assay 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 stress.

(D)   AFB$_1$ quantitative analysis of the WT and all mutant strains (Δ*FKBP1*, Δ*FKBP2*, Δ*FKBP3* and Δ*FKBP4*) described in (B).

(E)   Phenotype of 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 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 AFB1 production in WT and all mutant strains (Δ*FKBP3,* K5A, K19A, K40A, K42A, K55A and K65A) as mentioned in (G).

A

low complexity (246-255)

Domain of unknown function (DUF3385) (735-895)

FAT domain (1371-1743)

Rapamycin binding domain (1850-1949)

PI3Kc domain (2018-2307)

FATC domain (2353-2384)

B

WT   ΔTor1⁺/Tor2⁻   TOR^ΔFRB   TOR^S1904L

C

WT   ΔTor1+/Tor2-   TOR^ΔFRB   TOR^S1904L

PDA

Rapamycin

D

Growth repression (%)

- WT
- ΔTor1+/Tor2-
- TOR^ΔFRB
- TOR^S1904L

Rapamycin

E

Relatetive gene expersion

- WT
- ΔTor1+/Tor2-
- TOR^ΔFRB

abaA   brlA

F

AFB1   WT   ΔTor1⁺/Tor2⁻   TOR^ΔFRB   TOR^S1904L

G

AFB1 concentration (μg /ml)

- WT
- ΔTor1+/Tor2-
- TOR^ΔFRB
- TOR^S1904L

YES

H

Relatetive gene expersion

- WT
- ΔTor1+/Tor2-

aflR   aflS   aflO   aflP

Fig. 3 Tor kinase plays important roles in *A. flavus*.

(A) The structure diagram of Tor kinase.

(B) Morphology of conidiophores of *A. flavus* WT, $\Delta Tor1^{+}/Tor2^{-}$, $TOR^{\Delta FRB}$ and TOR^{S1904L} strains grown on PDA medium at 37°C for 5 days as observed by microscope.

(C) Phenotype of WT, $\Delta Tor1^{+}/Tor2^{-}$, $TOR^{\Delta FRB}$ and TOR^{S1904L} strains grown on PDA amended with 100 ng/mL rapamycin at 37°C for 5 days.

(D) The growth inhibition rate of WT, $\Delta Tor1^{+}/Tor2^{-}$, $TOR^{\Delta FRB}$ and TOR^{S1904L} strains under rapamycin stress.

(E) Relative transcript levels of conidia-related genes in WT, $\Delta Tor1^{+}/Tor2^{-}$, $TOR^{\Delta FRB}$ strains.

(F) TLC assay of AFB_1 production by the WT, $\Delta Tor1^{+}/Tor2^{-}$, $TOR^{\Delta FRB}$ and TOR^{S1904L} strains cultured in YES liquid medium at 29°C for 6 days.

(G) Quantification analysis of AFB_1 as in (F).

(H) Relative transcript levels of aflatoxin biosynthesis regulatory and structural genes in WT and $\Delta Tor1^{+}/Tor2^{-}$ strains.

Fig. 4 Sch9 is correlated with the HOG and TOR pathways.

(A)   The structure diagram of Sch9 kinase.

(B)   Phenotype of *A. flavus* WT, $\Delta Sch9$, $Sch9^{\Delta C2}$, $Sch9^{\Delta S\_TKc}$, $Sch9^{\Delta S\_TK\_X}$ and $Sch9^{K340A}$ strains grown on PDA amended with 100 ng/mL rapamycin at 37°C for 5 days.

(C)   TLC assay of AFB_1 production by 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)   Colonies of WT, $\Delta Sch9$, $Sch9^{\Delta C2}$, $Sch9^{\Delta S\_TKc}$,$Sch9^{\Delta S\_TK\_X}$ and $Sch9^{K340A}$ strains on PDA media amended with 1 M NaCl and 1 M KCl for 3 days.

(E)   The expressed levels of phospho-Hog1 were detected in WT and $\Delta Sch9$ strains.

(F)   The growth inhibition rate of 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 promotion rate of WT, $\Delta Sch9$, S$ch9^{\Delta C2}$, $Sch9^{\Delta S\_TKc}$, $Sch9^{\Delta S\_TK\_X}$ and $Sch9^{K340A}$ strains under osmotic stress.

Fig. 5 TapA and TipA regulate growth, sclerotia and aflatoxin biosynthesis in *A. flavus*.

(A) Phenotype of the *A. flavus* WT, $\Delta TapA1^+/TapA2^-$ and $\Delta TipA$ strains grown on PDA amended with 100 ng/mL rapamycin at 37°C for 5 days.

(B) Colony phenotype of the WT, $\Delta TapA1^+/TapA2^-$ and $\Delta TipA$ strains grown on CM medium at 37°C for 7 days.

(C) TLC assay of AFB_1 production by the WT, $\Delta TapA1^+/TapA2^-$ and $\Delta TipA$ strains cultured in YES liquid medium at 29°C for 6 days.

(D) Fluorescent images of hyphal cells for the WT, $\Delta TapA1^+/TapA2^-$ and $\Delta TipA$ strains stained with calcofluor white (CFW).

(E) Amounts of sclerotia produced by the WT, $\Delta TapA1^+/TapA2^-$ and $\Delta TipA$ strains.

(F) Relative transcript levels of sclerotia-related genes in WT and $\Delta TapA1^+/TapA2^-$ strains.

(G) Relative quantification of AFB1 production as in (C).

(H) Relative transcript levels of aflatoxin biosynthesis regulatory and structural genes in WT and $\Delta TapA1^+/TapA2^-$ strains.

Fig. 6 Phosphatases SitA and Ppg1 are involved in growth, conidiation and aflatoxin biosynthesis in *A. flavus.*

(A) The colony morphology of *A. flavus* WT, single knockout and double knockout strains of *SitA* and *Ppg1* cultured on PDA medium amended with 100 ng/mL rapamycin at 37°C for 5 days.

(B) The colony morphology of *A. flavus* WT, single knockout strain and double knockout strain of *SitA* and *Ppg1* cultured on WKM medium at 37°C for 7 days.

(C) TLC detection of WT, single knockout and double knockout strains of *SitA* and *Ppg1* cultured in YES liquid medium at 29°C for 6 days.

(D) Comparison of conidial production among WT, single knockout and double knockout strains on PDA media.

(E) Sclerotia statistics of WT, single knockout and double knockout strains.

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

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

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

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

Fig. 7 Phosphatase SitA and Ppg1 are important for pathogenicity in *A. flavus*.

(A) Phenotypes of peanut and maize infected by *A. flavus* WT, single and double knockout strains of *SitA* and *Ppg1*.

(B) TLC detection of toxin from peanut and maize infected by WT, single knockout and double knockout strains.

(C) Spores statistics from peanut and maize infected by WT, single and double knockout strains.

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

Fig. 8 Phosphatase SitA and Ppg1 are involved in regulating cell wall integrity.

(A)   Morphology of *A. flavus* WT, single knockout and double knockout strains of *SitA* and *Ppg1* grown on PDA 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)   Expression levels of cell wall synthesis genes (*chsA*, *chsD*, *chsE* and *β-1,6*) in WT, single knockout and double knockout strains.

(D)   Phosphorylation level of Slt2 in WT, single knockout and double knockout strains was detected by Western blotting.

Fig. 9 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 *A. flavus* WT strain and observed under a fluorescence microscopy. The Phenotype of lipid droplets accumulation in the mycelia of *A. flavus* WT strain treated with or without 100 ng/mL rapamycin cultured for 6 h. Bar, 10 μm.

(B) The phenotype of lipid droplets accumulation in the mycelia of Δ*Sch9* strain treated with or without 100 ng/mL rapamycin cultured for 6 h.Bar, 10 μm.

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

(D) The phenotype of lipid droplets accumulation in the mycelia of Δ*Ppg1* strain treated with or without 100 ng/mL rapamycin cultured for 6 h. Bar, 10 μm.

Fig. 10 Phosphatase complex Nem1/Spo7 play an important role in growth, conidiation and aflatoxin and lipid droplet biogenesis.

(A) Phenotype of the *A. flavus* 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 by the *A. flavus* WT, Δ*Nem1* and Δ*Spo7* strains cultured in YES liquid medium at 29°C for 6 days.

(C) Statistical analysis of the diameter and sporulation by the *A. flavus* WT, Δ*Nem1* and Δ*Spo7* strains.

(D) The Phenotype of lipid droplets accumulation in the mycelia of the *A. flavus* WT, Δ*Nem1* and Δ*Spo7* strains treated with or without 100 ng/mL rapamycin cultured for 6 h. Bar, 10 μm.

Fig. 11 The proposed model of target of the rapamycin (TOR) pathway in *A. flavus*.

Based on the above results, we hypothesized the TOR signaling pathway model in *A. flavus*. Rapamycin forms a complex with FKBP3, and this complex can bind to the Tor kinase to inhibit its normal function. Sch9 as a downstream component of the Tor kinase, regulates sclerotia formation, aflatoxin biosynthesis, the TOR and HOG signaling pathways. In addition, We speculate that the Sch9 as a element for the calcineurin-CrzA pathway in response to calcium stress. As another important target of the Tor kinase, Tap42-phosphatase complex is involved in the regulation of growth, sporulation, sclerotia, aflatoxin production, CWI signaling pathways, lipid droplet synthesis and other processes. In conclusion, the TOR signaling pathway plays an important role in the vegetative development, stress responses, aflatoxin biosynthesis and pathogenicity in *A. flavus*.