The increase in cell volume and nuclear number of the koji-fungus *Aspergillus oryzae* contributes

to its high enzyme productivity

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Abstract

While the ratio of nuclei to cell volume is well regulated, it remains largely unexplored in

multinucleate organisms. The koji-fungus *Aspergillus oryzae*, traditionally used in Japanese brewing

and fermentation for over a thousand years, is now widely utilized in modern biotechnology as a host

for enzyme production. We discovered that, over time in culture, hyphae become thicker, resulting in

a tenfold increase in cell volume, and the number of nuclei in hyphal cells also increases tenfold,

exceeding 200. The increase in cell volume and nuclear number is unique among the investigated

Aspergillus species and correlates with its high enzyme production capabilities. Since nuclear number

and cell volume are correlated, both must increase simultaneously for either to expand. Our analyses

identified genetic factors and nutritional environmental signals involved in each of these increases.

Increases in nuclear number and cell volume were also observed in other fungi bred for industrial use.

This study not only deepens our understanding of the evolutionary processes that promote high

enzyme productivity through fungal breeding, but also provides insights into the molecular

mechanisms regulating cell volume and nuclear number in multinucleate organisms.

Introduction

In unicellular organisms, cell volume is tightly regulated in coordination with nuclear division timing (1-3). Similarly, in multinucleated filamentous fungi, a correlation exists between cell volume and nuclear number (4, 5). However, the number of nuclei varies across species (6), the factors governing nuclear number and cell volume remain largely unknown. Filamentous fungi are industrially significant microorganisms, and the strains selected through breeding provide ideal research models for studying these evolutionary processes.

Filamentous fungi secrete a variety of hydrolytic enzymes to support their growth, and humans have long harnessed this enzyme secretion ability for the production of a wide range of fermented foods and beverages (7). *Aspergillus oryzae* has been used in Japan for over a thousand years to produce traditional fermented foods like sake, soy sauce, and miso (8, 9). A distinctive feature of the fermentation techniques is solid-state cultivation using substrates like rice, soybeans, and wheat bran. The inoculum of *A. oryzae* used in fermentation, known as "koji," has been commercially produced for around 700 years (10). Koji is created by cultivating koji-fungus on grains, and koji starter manufacturers have selected and bred strains to improve the flavor and color of various fermented products. The *A. oryzae* strains currently in use are mainly preserved and managed by koji manufacturers and research institutions. A notable characteristic of *A. oryzae* is its high ability to secrete starch-degrading enzymes and proteases, which has led to extensive research into its genome and gene expression regulation (11-17).

Although *A. oryzae* shares 99.5% genomic similarity with *Aspergillus flavus*, which produces the carcinogenic aflatoxin (18), there have been no reports of *A. oryzae* producing aflatoxins, and its safety has been confirmed at the molecular level (19, 20). Phylogenomic analyses suggest that *A. oryzae* and *A. flavus* diverged approximately 50,000 to 189,000 years ago (21, 22). Over the following millennia, human use of *A. oryzae* is thought to have driven significant genomic

recombination, resulting in its evolution into a "cell factory" specifically optimized for the breakdown

of sugars and proteins (23).

Additionally, modern biotechnology utilizes filamentous fungi as cell factories to produce

organic acids, enzymes, and pharmaceuticals (24-26). *A. oryzae* also shows high production capacity

as a host for both homologous and heterologous protein production in modern biotechnology (27, 28).

Recently, its application has expanded to include the production of pharmaceutical proteins and

secondary metabolites (29, 30). Furthermore, filamentous fungi involved in fermentation play a crucial

role in creating a more sustainable food system, such as by upcycling agricultural by-products into

food through fungal fermentation and using *A. oryzae* mycelium for alternative meats (31, 32).

While basic and applied research on *A. oryzae* continues, fundamental questions remain

unanswered, such as why *A. oryzae* exhibits high enzyme production capacity and why it excels as a

host for heterologous expression. This study shows that the key lies in the increase in cell volume and

nuclear number, and analyzes the molecular mechanisms.

Result

Increase in nuclear number and cell volume in *Aspergillus oryzae*

In the model strain *A. oryzae* RIB40, hyphae on day 1 of cultivation contain 10-20 nuclei per cell, but

by day 2 of cultivation, apical cells with more than 200 nuclei appear (33). We classified the hyphae

into three categories based on the number and distribution of nuclei, and compared their proportions

after 1 to 3 days of cultivation (see methods, images were shown previously)(33). We found that the

proportion of hyphae with a higher number of nuclei (represented by class III, over 200 nuclei in the

cell) increased as the culture period increased from 1 to 3 days (Fig. 1A, B) (33). This phenotype was

not observed in the model fungus *Aspergillus nidulans* or the closely related species *A. flavus* (Fig.

1A, B) (33). As far as we know, such phenotypes have not been observed in other strains of *Aspergillus*

nidulans, *Aspergillus niger*, *Aspergillus fumigatus*, or other strains commonly used in research.

Among other *Aspergillus* species used in fermentation (9, 10), the proportion of hyphae with a higher

number of nuclei increased in *Aspergillus sojae*, which is used for miso and soy sauce production.

This phenotype was not observed in *Aspergillus luchuensis* nor in its albino mutant *Aspergillus*

luchuensis mut. kawachii, which are used for distilled spirits such as awamori and shochu. Among

several strains of *A. oryzae* used in industrial applications, the RIB915 strain used for soy sauce

fermentation does not show an increase in the number of nuclei, while the RIB128 and RIB430 strains

used in sake brewing exhibit a significant increase in the number of nuclei, suggesting that different

phenotypes were selected through distinct breeding processes.

The distribution of nuclei in the hyphae of *A. oryzae* RIB40 was visualized through 3D

reconstruction (Fig. 1C, Movie 1). In the class I hyphae, the nuclei were spaced relatively evenly,

whereas in the class III hyphae with increased nuclei, the nuclei were densely packed and arranged in

a disordered manner. Furthermore, the nuclear size in the class III hyphae was significantly smaller

than that in the class I hyphae (Fig. 1D, E). Nuclear division is synchronized in the hypha even when

there are more than 200 nuclei (33), suggesting that DNA replication occurs similarly in most nuclei.

The germination rate of conidia and the colonies formed from individual conidia show no significant

abnormalities, suggesting, that nearly all nuclei possess normal genomes and chromosomes.

Strains without an increase in nuclear number had hyphae with diameters ranging from 2 to

7 μm, while strains with an increase in nuclear number had some hyphae of similar thickness but often

exhibited thicker hyphae exceeding 10 μm (Fig. 1F). We compared the number of nuclei and cell

volume within the first 100 μm from the hyphal tip, due to variation in the distance from the hyphal

tip to the septum, among *A. oryzae* strains (RIB40, RIB128, RIB915) and *A. flavus* (Fig. 1G). A strong

positive correlation was observed between number of nuclei and cell volume. This is consistent with

previously reports that the number of nuclei per hyphal volume remains constant (4, 5).

Thick hyphae with increased nuclei emerge by branching

Time-lapse imaging using the *A. oryzae* RIB40 expressing H2B-GFP indicated that thick hyphae with

increased nuclei emerged by branching from hyphae without increased nuclei (Fig. 2A, Movie 2). In

the emerged thick hyphae, rapid nuclear division occurred at the sites of branching (Fig. 2B, Movie

3). Immediately after branching, the thick hyphae showed a significantly faster rate of nuclear

proliferation, increasing 4–5 times within 8 hours compared to the thin hyphae immediately after

branching (Fig. 2C). Branches from hyphae with increased nuclei produced both hyphae with and

without increased nuclei (Fig. 2D).

Time-lapse imaging was conducted over a wider area, and image processing was applied to

color-code the nuclei: green for those in hyphae with increased nuclei and white for those in hyphae

without increased nuclei (Fig. 2E, Movie 4, Fig.S1A, see methods). Up to 24 hours after inoculation,

most hyphae were thin with no increase in nuclei number, but thick hyphae with increased nuclei

began to appear as time progressed (Fig. 2E, F). Since thick hyphae elongated faster than thin hyphae

(Fig. 2G), thick hyphae outgrew and overtook thin hyphae, eventually dominating the colony

perimeter (Fig. 2E, F).

Transmission electron microscopy confirmed basic nuclear structures, such as the nuclear

membrane and nucleolus, in both thick and thin hyphae (Fig. S1B). As hyphal diameter increased, cell

walls became more uneven and thicker (Fig. 2H, I). This finding corresponds with Raman

spectroscopy results showing pronounced peaks corresponding to cell wall polysaccharides in thick

hyphae (Fig. S1C)(34). Additionally, peaks associated with active mitochondria were prominent in

thick hyphae (Fig. S1C)(35), which was further confirmed by fluorescence staining (Fig. S1D). The

surface structure and mechanical properties of the cell wall were analyzed using atomic force

microscopy. Thick hyphae exhibited greater surface roughness and higher elasticity compared to thin

hyphae (Fig. 2J, K, Fig. S1E, F).

Increase in nuclear number and enzyme secretion

We compared the amounts of secreted proteins in *A. oryzae* RIB40, RIB128, RIB915, *A. nidulans*, and

A. flavus (Fig. 3A). The strains that show an increase in nuclear number had significantly higher levels

of protein secretion than the strains that do not. In this condition, α-amylases are the dominant proteins

secreted by *A. oryzae* (15). The amylase enzyme activity was compared between in *A. oryzae* RIB40,

which shows an increase in nuclear number, and *A. oryzae* RIB915, which does not show an increase.

In RIB40, starting from day 2, when hyphae with increased nuclear numbers appeared, the enzyme

activity per fungal biomass significantly increased more than RIB915 (Fig. 3B).

To compare the amylase activity between hyphae with a higher and a lower number of nuclei,

amylase activity was monitored under conditions where a single hypha grew in a microfluidic channel

with a fluorescent substrate (Fig. 3C, S2A, Movie 5)(36). After 12 hours, the fluorescence intensity in

the channel with thick hyphae was about three times higher than that in the channel with thin hyphae,

indicating that thicker hyphae secreted more amylase than thinner hyphae (Fig. 3D).

We found that addition of yeast extract increased in both hyphal width and nuclear number

in the RIB915 strain (Fig. 3E, Fig. S2B). In *A. oryzae* RIB40, the addition of yeast extract did not

make the already thick hyphae any thicker but increased the proportion of thicker hyphae. Addition of

yeast extract increased protein secretion approximately 1.8 times in RIB40 and 8.5 times in RIB915

(Fig. 3F). Althouth the addition of yeast extract did not cause a dramatic increase in nuclear number

in *A. nidulans*, hyphal width increased by 1.4-times and protein secretion increased by 5.1-times.

The addition of nucleic acids, peptone, or casamino acids to the minimal medium increased

the number of nuclei in *A. oryzae* RIB915, while vitamin B did not cause a significant change in

nuclear number (Fig. S2C). Although the addition of individual amino acids did not show the same

effect as yeast extract, the addition of asparagine, proline, glutamine, and branched-chain amino acids

increased the proportion of hyphae with increased nuclei by 40-50% (Fig. 3G, Fig. S2D). The amino

acids that induced nuclear number increase also led to an increase in protein secretion, indicating a

positive correlation between the ratio of class III hyphae and the increase in secreted proteins (Fig. 3H,

Fig. S2E). Since the amino acids inducing an increase in nuclear number may activate the TOR

pathway (37), *A. oryzae* RIB40 was grown with low concentration of rapamycin, a TOR pathway

inhibitor, which minimally affects colony size. Under the conditions, RIB40 did not produce hyphae

with an increased number of nuclei (Fig. 3I-K, Fig. S2F). Rapamycin decreased the ratio of hyphae

with increased nuclei even in the medium with yeast extract (Fig. S2G).

Transcriptome analyses in hyphae with increased nuclei

To investigate gene expression changes in hyphae with increased nuclei, transcriptome analysis was

performed under six conditions: In minimal medium; *A. oryzae* RIB40, which shows increased nuclei,

A. oryzae RIB915 and *A. nidulans*, which do not show increased nuclei. In minimal medium with yeast

extract, *A. oryzae* RIB40 and RIB915, which shows increased nuclei, and *A. nidulans,* which do not

show increased nuclei (Fig. 4A, Fig. S2B). In RIB915, supplementation with yeast extract led to a

more than four-fold increase in the expression of 660 genes, among which 449 genes did not show

such increase in RIB40 or *A. nidulans* (Fig. 4B, Table S1). GO analysis of these genes revealed that

process related to cell wall synthesis and divalent metal ion transport were significantly enriched (Fig.

4C).

To capture gene expression changes associated with increased nuclei with higher resolution,

thick and thin hyphae from RIB40 were dissected using laser microdissection, collected separately,

and subjected to transcriptome analysis (Fig. 4D, Movie 6). Clear differences in gene expression

pattern were observed between thick and thin hyphae (Fig. 4E). 558 genes that were more than four-

fold upregulated in thick hyphae but not in thin hyphae (Table S2). GO analysis of the upregulated

genes indicated an enrichment of processes related to biogenesis of ribosome and cellular component

(Fig. 4F). Among them, 21 matched those from Table S1 (Fig. 4G, Table S3). Of these, 13 had GO

annotations, which were related to conidiation, cell wall synthesis, Ca^{2+} transport and rRNA

processing (Fig. 3H). KEGG map visualization indicates that overall ribosomal gene expression

increased in the thick hyphae than the thin hyphae (Fig. S3A).

Among the gene list, we focused on *msy1* and *msy2*, which are involved in Ca^{2+} transport

and maintaining cell volume homeostasis in *Schizosaccharomyces pombe* (38, 39). Disruption of the

orthologue genes, *msyA* and *msyB,* in *A. oryzae* RIB40 did not have a significant impact on colony

growth, hyphal morphology and number of nuclei in minimal medium (Fig. S3B). Under hypoosmotic

shock conditions, the Δ*msyA* often indicated cell lysis near the hyphal tips (Fig. 4I, J). Under

hypoosmotic conditions, water influx into the cells causes hyphal cell expansion, but the volume and

turgor pressure are regulated to prevent cell lysis. The *msyA* disruption, however, impairs the

regulation of the hyphal cell expansion, leading to hyphal lysis (Fig. S3C-E).

SNP analysis among industrial strains with distinct phenotypes

The fact that currently used *A. oryzae* strains are managed and preserved by koji manufacturers and

research institutions is a notable advantage of *A. oryzae* research. Whole-genome sequencing and

comparative genome analysis of 82 *A. oryzae* strains with different applications have shown that these

strains cluster into several clades (24). We investigated whether nuclear numbers increase in 20 strains

selected from six different clades (Fig. 5A). In the minimal media supplemented with yeast extract, all

strains exhibited an increase in nuclear number (Fig. S4A). In the minimal media without yeast extract,

three strains from Clade C showed an increase in nuclear number, whereas strains from Clades A, B,

and E did not (Fig. 5A, B, Fig. S4A). Clades F and G included both strains with increased nuclear

numbers and strains without. SNP analysis of ORFs in Clades F and G revealed 108 mutations in

Clade F between TK-32 and TK-38, and 23 mutations in Clade G between TK-41 and TK-47 (Table

S4 and S5).

Among these, AO090038000626; *rseA*, predicted glycosyl transferase, was the only

common gene. This gene has been identified as a mutation in a *A. sojae* mutant with high extracellular

enzyme production (40). It is also shown that deletion of *rseA* in *A. nidulans* leads to cell wall defects

and promotes enzyme secretion (40). Comparison of mutations in *rseA* among strains in Clade C, F

and G indicates a few amino acid substitutions within the ORF, but no common mutations

corresponded to the phenotype (Fig. 5C, Fig. S4B). Structural prediction suggests that the mutations

are located inside the enzyme domain (Fig. S4C).

The disruption of the *rseA* in *A. oryzae* RIB40 resulted in significant growth delay, increased

branching, and the absence of hyphae with increased nuclei (Fig. 5D, Fig. S4D). The *rseA* gene DNA

fragments from the strains with increased nuclei (RIB40, TK-47) or from the strain without increased

nuclei (TK-41) were amplified by PCR and introduced ectopically into RIB915 (Fig. 5E). The strains

expressing *rseA* from RIB40 or TK-47 exhibited an increase in hyphal width and a corresponding

increase in the proportion of hyphae with more nuclei, whereas the strain expressing *rseA* from TK41

showed no increase in hyphal width or nuclear number (Fig. 5E, F, Fig. S4E).

Industrial breeding strains from other genera

To investigate whether the phenomenon of increased nuclear numbers also applies to other industrial

fungi, we compared the bred strain of *Trichoderma reesei* (QM9414) for cellulase production and its

control strain (QM6a)(41), as well as the bred strain of *Penicillium chrysogenum* (IFO4688) for

penicillin production and wild type strain (42). In minimal medium, no significant differences in

hyphal width or nuclear number were observed between the bred and control strains, whereas with the

addition of yeast extract, a notable increase in nuclear number and hyphal width was observed only in the bred strains (Fig. 5G, H, Fig. S5A-C). The addition of yeast extract significantly increased cellulase and protease activity only in the bred strain of *T. reesei* and *P. chrysogenum,* respectively (Fig. 5I, J). These results suggest that even in modern biotechnology, where high enzyme or compound producing strains are bred, strains with increased nuclear numbers were selected, like the traditional breeding practices of koji-fungi.

Discussion

In *A. oryzae* some strains, hyphae grow about three times thicker and contain roughly ten times more nuclei than the initial hyphae (Fig. 1). These thicker hyphae emerge from existing branches, where nuclear division is promoted, resulting in the formation of hyphae with an increased number of nuclei (Fig. 2). A clear correlation was observed between hyphal cell volume and nuclear number (Fig. 1G). This consistency aligns with findings in other organisms, from unicellular yeast to multicellular plants and animals, where the nuclear-to-cytoplasmic ratio is tightly regulated, allowing cell cycle progression only upon reaching a critical cell size (1-3). Both the G1/S and G2/M transitions are controled by size checkpoints, with specific mechanisms differing between species (44, 45).

In *A. nidulans*, it is known that the duration of the G1 and G2 phases is regulated by temperature (46). While the mechanisms governing the G1/S phase transition remain unclear (47), the G2/M phase transition has been shown to involve the following: During the interphase of *A. nidulans*, NimX (CDK1) binds to NimE (cyclin B), and its activity is regulated through phosphorylation by AnkA (Wee1 kinase) and NimT (Cdc25 phosphatase)(48-50). The activated NimX-NimE complex subsequently dephosphorylates by NimT and activates NimA (Never-in-Mitosis A) protein kinase (51, 52). NimA is essential for the transition from G2 to mitosis, and its expression is tightly regulated during the cell cycle (52). The mRNA level of *nimA* and *nimT* begin to increase in G2, reach a plateau

during late G2 and M phases, and are sharply degraded at the end of mitosis upon re-entry into interphase (52, 53), meaning high expression levels of *nimA* and *nimT* result in a longer G2 phase. In thick hyphae, *nimA* and *nimT* mRNA was hardly detected, suggesting that thick hyphae sense cell volume in some way and subsequently shorten the G2 phase (Fig. 6A). The expression level of *nimE* was low in both thick and thin hyphae, with no significant difference observed. As known in other organisms, its function is likely regulated through phosphorylation and the protein degradation.

Branching is thought to occur through the degradation and reconstruction of the cell wall at the branching site (54). SNP analysis between industrial strains with different phenotypes identified RseA, a predicted glycosyltransferase (Fig. 5). Deletion of *rseA* caused defects in cell wall synthesis in *A. nidulans*, leading to increased enzyme secretion (40, 55). Although the targets of RseA are unknown, RseA could be involved in the cell wall integrity by modifying glycosyl chains on enzymes responsible for cell wall synthesis and degradation. Mutations in *rseA* may impair the regulation of cell wall loosening at the branching site, resulting in the formation of thicker hyphae. In fact, in the thick hyphae of RIB40, localized imbalances in cell wall components have been demonstrated by TEM and AFM.

Thicker hyphae can only form if high turgor pressure is maintained within the hyphae, in addition to changes in cell wall remodeling during branching. *msyA* and *msyB*, whose orthologues are calcium channels involved in the regulation of cell volume, were identified among the genes that show a significant increase in expression in thicker hyphae (Fig. 4)(38, 39). Analysis of the knockout strains demonstrated the function of cell volume regulation adapted to increased turgor pressure in hypoosmotic conditions. The function of these calcium channels is likely crucial for maintaining the balance of turgor pressure and cell volume.

The Target of Rapamycin (TOR) pathway is a central regulator of cellular growth, responding to a variety of nutrients, such as amino acids, and carbon sources, as well as environmental

factors like oxygen levels, osmotic pressure, pH, and temperature stress (56, 57). Upon sensing these

inputs, the TOR pathway influences translation activity, metabolic flow, and cell size (57, 58). In both

yeast and mammalian models, amino acids like branched-chain amino acids (BCAAs), glutamine, and

alanine are crucial for nutrient sensing, forming the basis for TOR signaling activation (58-60). These

amino acids are like those contributing to nuclear increase in the RIB915 strain (Fig. 3G). Furthermore,

TOR inhibition by rapamycin in the RIB40 strain suppressed the formation of hyphae with increased

nuclei (Fig. 3I-K). Consistent with the activation of translation by the TOR pathway, the expression

of ribosome-related genes was elevated in thicker hyphae (Fig. S3A). The TOR pathway directly

regulates mitochondrial activity (61). Thick hyphae exhibited heightened mitochondrial density and

activity (Fig. S1C, D), suggesting that the TOR pathway support the high ATP demand associated with

rapid biosynthesis.

Cell volume and nuclear number mutually regulate each other, meaning that thicker hyphae

always possess more nuclei. For the formation of thicker hyphae with numerous nuclei, an increase in

cell volume and a corresponding increase in nuclei must occur simultaneously (Fig. 6A). In our model,

cell wall loosening at a branching site and regulation of cell volume by turgor pressure constitute

necessary conditions for increasing cell volume and maintaining thick hyphae. RseA and MsyA may

be involved in these processes. At the same time, enhanced translational capacity, possibly due to

increased expression of ribosomal genes associated with TOR activation, and mechanisms that

accelerate the cell cycle represent another essential condition that enables an increase in nuclear

number. Both genetic potential and nutritional environmental signals are likely required for the

formation of thick hyphae with a high number of nuclei. In the *A. oryzae* RIB915 strain, the number

of nuclei and cell volume increased in response to specific amino acids, whereas in the *A. oryzae*

RIB40 and other strains, both increased even without the addition of such amino acids, suggesting that

they possesses the genetic potential to respond independently of nutritional signals. When thick

hyphae were cultured on fresh medium, thin hyphae initially emerged, suggesting the necessity of

sustained high metabolic activity. Weakening the cell wall by treatment with a low concentration of

calcofluor white did not lead to hyphal thickening or an increase in nuclear number. On the contrary,

thick hyphae have thicker cell walls (Fig. 2H-K), which are necessary to maintain the increased cell

volume.

A. nidulans and *A. flavus* did not exhibit an increase in nuclear number. *A. sojae* displayed

increased nuclear numbers, whereas *A. kawachii* and *A. luchuensis* did not (Fig. 1). The 20 strains of

A. oryzae selected from different clades showed an increase in nuclear number in the minimal medium

supplemented with yeast extract. In the medium without yeast extract, there were strains that showed

an increase in nuclear number and others that did not. These differences might be due to variations in

their applications or the selection of strains with diverse characteristics, such as not only enzyme

activity but also their impact on the flavor, aroma, and color of the final products. Additionally, there

might be dominant mutations that activate TOR pathway even in the minimal medium. Multiple gene

mutations were identified as contributing to the phenotype of increased hyphal volume and nuclear

number, suggesting that the phenotype was not the result of a single mutation but rather the gradual

accumulation of mutations through breeding. The koji-fungus strains used to produce high-quality

sake and soy sauce have been selectively bred over many years, long before the advent of modern

biotechnology, to enhance their saccharolytic and proteolytic activities. Modern biotechnological bred

strains such as *T. reesei* QM9414 and *P. chrysogenum* IFO4688 also exhibit a phenotype of thicker

hyphae with increased nuclear numbers under nutrient-rich conditions (Fig. 5). This consistency

suggests that by breeding naturally multinucleate filamentous fungi under nutrient-rich conditions, it

is possible to obtain strains with increased nuclear numbers and enhanced enzyme or compound

production.

A previous study reported an increase in the number of nuclei in *A. nidulans* (62, 63). Here,

we examined the nuclear distribution of *A. nidulans* grown on the culture media, however, did not find class III hyphae as observed in *A. oryzae*. Even in *A. nidulans*, conidiophore stalks contain a high number of nuclei. It has been shown that *A. oryzae* has a taller conidiophore stalk (64). In the thick hyphae of *A. oryzae*, the expression level of *flbA*, an early regulator of conidiophore development (65), was elevated. This suggests that differentiation to aerial hyphae may be involved in the increase of hyphal volume and nuclear number.

We investigated whether the reduction in nuclear size observed in thick hyphae was due to a change from diploid to haploid status. However, no difference in GFP-histone fluorescence intensity was detected between thick and thin hyphae (Fig. S5D). In both RIB40 and RIB915 strains, no significant difference in conidial size was observed despite the large difference in the number of nuclei within the hyphae (Fig. S5E). These results suggest that both thick and thin hyphae remain haploid, and that the smaller nuclear size observed in thick hyphae is likely due to a higher nuclear density. This is likely related to the phenomenon in which a decrease in cell size is accompanied by a reduction in nuclear size (66).

The number of nuclei in filamentous fungi varies greatly among species (67). For example, *Neurospora crassa* hyphal cells can exceed 100 nuclei, which correlates with its exceptionally rapid growth rate and high protein secretion capacity (68). An increase in the number of nuclei per cell is expected to enhance transcription and translation per cell, thereby improving enzyme production and secretion capacity (Fig. 6B). Whereas, maintaining a high nuclear number requires a substantial amount of energy, and in conditions where external nutrient supply is insufficient, cells rapidly die. Thus, the tendency to maintain a high nuclear number could be a selective pressure unlikely to occur in nature. The regulation of nuclear number and its ecological strategy are intriguing in other fungi such as *N. crassa*, which rapidly spreads after wildfires (69), and arbuscular mycorrhiza fungi that form symbiotic relationships with plants and contain thousands of nuclei within hyphae lacking septa

(70). In any case, koji-fungus strains were bred specifically for high enzyme production in nutrient-

rich environments, and we propose that some of them acquired the specialized trait of increased cell

volume and nuclear number through selection. This study elucidates the evolutionary processes driven

by breeding selection in *A. oryzae* and the underlying mechanisms contributing to high enzyme

productivity. These findings not only offer new approaches for optimizing filamentous fungi for

bioindustry applications but also lead to the elucidation of the molecular mechanisms regulating cell

volume and nuclear number in multinucleated organisms.

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Methods

Strains and Culture Conditions. The filamentous fungal strains used in this study are listed in Table

S6. *A. oryzae* RIB40 expressing H2B-GFP, UtH2BG stain, is described previously (33). Minimal

medium for *Aspergillus* species was shown in Table S7. When peptone, casamino acids, or yeast

extract was added, the final concentration was 1%. Amino acids were added at a final concentration

of 0.1%, B vitamins (biotin, pyridoxine hydrochloride, thiamin hydrochloride, riboflavin, PABA, and

nicotinic acid) were added at 100 μM, and nucleotides (inosine and uridine) were added at 10 mM.

Genetic Manipulation. To delete target genes, genome editing plasmids and circular donor DNA

plasmids were constructed as described previously (71). The sgRNA cassette was designed under the

U6 promoter with the following target sequences: GTGACGATCTACGGTAACGC for the *msyA* gene,

GATCAGTTGAGCGTCCCCTA for the *msyB* gene, and AGCTAGCGCAGCCGGTCTGC for the

rseA gene. The genome editing plasmid was constructed by introducing the sgRNA expression cassette

into the SmaI restriction site of the pRGE-gRT6 plasmid (71). For the donor plasmid, 1 kb fragments

upstream and downstream of the target genes were amplified, ligated, and inserted into the linearized

pUC19 vector (Takara Bio). Both plasmids were applied for transformation using the *A. oryzae* RIB40

strain. To amplify *rseA* region, spanning 1 kb upstream to 1 kb downstream, the templates used were

A. oryzae RIB40, TK-42, and TK-47 strains. The amplified fragments were inserted into the HindIII

site of the pPTRI vector (TaKaRa) to construct the plasmid. Transformations were performed using

the protoplast-PEG method according to the manufacturer's protocol for pPTRI. Transformants were

selected on the minimal medium plates containing 0.1 mg/l pyrithiamine. Integration of constructs was

confirmed by PCR analysis.

Microscopy. Images were captured using an Axio Observer Z1 inverted epifluorescence microscope

(Carl Zeiss) equipped with Plan-Apochromat objectives, an AxioCam 506 mono camera, and a

Colibri.2 LED light source. The stage temperature was maintained at 30°C with a thermoplate (Tokai

Hit). Nuclei were stained with SYBR Green (Takara), mitochondria with Rhodamine 123 (Invitrogen),

the cell membrane with FM4-64 (Invitrogen). Images were collected using Zen (Carl Zeiss) and

ImageJ software.

Image Analysis. The distribution pattern of nuclei was classified into the following three types; Class

I: nuclei distribute at a constant interval without overlapping; Class II: nuclei align but sometimes

overlap; Class III: nuclei scattered throughout hyphae but not aligned. Nuclei, hyphal size, and

fluorescence intensity were quantified using Zen and ImageJ software. Z-stack 3D reconstruction and

nuclear color coding were performed with Imaris (Oxford Instruments). Hyphal elongation distances

were analyzed using the MTrackJ plugin in ImageJ. For Fig. 2E, nuclei were binarized, and those in

non-increased hyphae were displayed in white based on size and circularity.

Transmission Electron Microscopy (TEM). The culture samples were embedded in 1% water agar

and fixed with 2.5% glutaraldehyde in 0.1 M phosphate buffer (pH 7.0) at room temperature for 2

hours. Sample preparation and sectioning were performed at the Institute of Medicine, University of

Tsukuba. Observations were conducted using a JEM-1400 transmission electron microscope (JEOL).

Imaging with Microfluidic Devices. Microfluidic devices were fabricated as described previously

(33). Two types of devices were constructed: a 2D observation device to visualize hyphal expansion

(Fig. S1A) and a single-hypha isolation device for enzymatic activity measurement (Fig. S2A).

Conidia suspensions were loaded into a 10 ml plastic syringe (SS-10ESZ, Terumo) and connected to

polyethylene tubing (inner diameter 0.38 mm, outer diameter 1.09 mm, BD Intramedic). Air was

expelled from the syringe, and the suspension was injected into the device inlet. The number of conidia

flowing through the microfluidic channel was adjusted under a microscope. The syringe was then

replaced with another containing medium, and the medium was delivered at the minimum flow rate

using a syringe pump (YSP-101, YMC). The device was incubated at 30°C on a thermal stage (TOKAI

HIT) and imaged using an Axio Observer Z1 microscope (Carl Zeiss). α-amylase activity in the device

was measured using the EnzChek Ultra amylase assay kit (Invitrogen).

Enzyme Activity Assays. Fungal conidia 10^4 were inoculated onto 25 ml of medium in a petri dish

and statically cultured at 30 °C for 4 days. Protein concentration and enzymatic activities in the culture

supernatant were measured. Protein quantification was performed using the Bradford assay (Protein

Assay Kit, BIO-RAD), with bovine gamma globulin as the standard. Carboxymethyl cellulase

(CMCase) activity was determined by measuring reducing sugars using the 3,5-dinitrosalicylic acid

method. CMCase activity was assayed at 50 °C for 15 min in a reaction mixture containing 50 mM

sodium acetate buffer (pH 5.0) and 1% carboxymethyl cellulose. One unit of enzyme activity was

defined as the amount of enzyme required to release 1 μmol of reducing sugar (as glucose equivalent)

per minute. α-amylase activity was measured using an α-Amylase Assay Kit (Kikkoman Biochemifa)

according to the manufacturer's instructions. Acid carboxypeptidase (ACP) activity was determined

using the Acid Carboxypeptidase Assay Kit (Kikkoman Biochemifa) following the provided protocol.

RNA-seq Analysis. Sterilized cellophane was placed on agar plates, and conidia were inoculated.

After culturing at 30 °C for 3 days, samples were frozen, homogenized with a mortar and pestle, and

total RNA was extracted using the RNeasy Mini Kit (QIAGEN). Library preparation, sequencing, and

partial data analysis were performed by the Faculty of Medicine, University of Tsukuba. Sequencing

was conducted using 36 bp paired end reads on the Illumina NextSeq 500, and reads were mapped to

the *A. oryzae* RIB40 reference genome using the CLC Genomic Workbench (QIAGEN). For laser

microdissection, sterilized membrane slides (Carl Zeiss) were immersed in MM liquid, and conidia

were inoculated onto the membrane. After static culturing at 30 °C for 3 days, sections were collected

using a PALM MicroBeam laser microdissection system (Carl Zeiss). RNA was extracted from 500-

700 sections respectively using the RNeasy Mini Kit. Library preparation and sequencing were

performed by Takara Bio Inc., using 150 bp paired end reads on the Illumina NovaSeq 6000. Reads

were mapped to the *A. oryzae* RIB40 reference genome using the CLC Genomic Workbench. Genes

showing a ≥4-fold change in expression were considered significant, and gene ontology (GO)

enrichment analysis of biological processes was performed using ShinyGO 0.81 (72). Heatmaps were

visualized using the Python Seaborn package (73). Gene annotations were obtained from FungiDB.

Low Osmotic Pressure Shock Analysis. Conidia were spot inoculated onto the minimal medium

containing 1 M NaCl and cultured at 30 °C for 3 days. Colony tips were treated with distilled water

for 3 min, and the number of tip ruptures was counted. Hyphal tip swelling was assessed by staining

hyphae cultured in the minimal medium liquid for 3 days with FM4-64, mounting them on a coverslip

with a small volume of medium, and adding an equal volume of distilled water.

Raman Spectroscopy. The conidia were inoculated into minimal medium liquid in a glass-bottom

dish and cultured at 30 °C for 3 days. Raman spectra were acquired using an XploRA PLUS Raman

microscope, as described previously (32). Hyphae attached to the dish bottom were irradiated with a

455 532 nm laser at 0.93 mW for 30 seconds. Spike artifacts caused by cosmic rays were manually removed.

456 Ten spectra were averaged, and background signals attributed to the medium and glass were subtracted.

457 **Protein Structure Analysis**. RseA protein structure was predicted using AlphaFold2 and visualized

458 with PyMOL (v1.20). Domains were annotated using InterPro.

459 **Atomic Force Microscopy (AFM).** The conidia were inoculated into minimal medium liquid on a

460 Poly-L-Lysine-coated (Sigma Aldrich) glass-bottom dish (ibidi) and cultured at 30 ºC for 3 days. We

461 used a JPK Nanowizard 4 (Bruker) equipped with an inverted fluorescence microscope (Eclipse Ti2,

462 Nikon). The temperature was maintained at 30 ºC using a dish heater integrated into the stage. BL-

463 AC40TS-C2 cantilevers (Olympus, spring constant approximately 0.1 N/m) were used for AFM

464 imaging under the following conditions: QI mode, 1.5×1.5 μm or 0.5×0.5 μm scan size, 128×128

465 pixels, Z-length 1 μm, setpoint 0.1 nN, and Z speed 166 μm/s. The Young's modulus was calculated

466 using JPKSPM Data Processing software (Bruker). After averaging and baseline subtraction, Young's

467 modulus was calculated using a Hertz model with a triangular pyramid half-cone angle of 35°.

468 **SNP analysis.** The genome data of *A. oryzae* required for SNP identification was obtained from the

469 National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI). and mapped to *A. oryzae* RIB40 reference

470 sequence using BWA-MEM2 (74). The SNPs were listed by FreeBayes (75), and detailed comparative

471 analysis of genomes was performed on Integrative Genome Viewer (IGV) manually.

472 **RNA seq.** The RNA seq data have been deposited in DDBJ as BioProject PRJDB19992.

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 Figure legends.

Figure 1. Increase in number of nuclei and cell volume in *Aspergillus* species. (A) The nuclear

distribution in the tip cells was categorized into Classes I–III. The ratio of hyphae in each class was

measured in *Aspergillus* species at 24, 48, and 72 hours of growth (n=50). Data for *A. oryzae* RIB40

and *A. nidulans* are reproduced from a previous study (33). (B) Colony morphology after 3 days of

culture on the minimal medium. The nuclear distribution in the hyphae at the colony periphery stained

with SYBR Green. Scale bars: hyphae, 20 μm; colonies, 1 cm. (C) 3D images of hyphae without

increased nuclei (left) and with increased nuclei (right) in *A. oryzae* RIB40 from Movie 1. Each

nucleus is indicated with different colors by Imaris soft. Scale bar: 5 μm. (D) Comparison of nuclear

size in Class I hyphae (2.4 μm) and Class III hyphae (1.6 μm), indicated by white lines. (E) Box plots

of nucleus diameters in hyphae without increased nuclei and those with increased nuclei (n=35, ** p

< 0.01, t-test). (F) Box plots of hyphal width at the colony periphery grown for 72 hours (n=10–14, **

p< 0.01, * p< 0.05, t-test). Strains with increased nuclei are marked in red, and those without are

marked in blue. (G) Correlation between nuclear number and cell volume of hyphae at 100 μm from

the tips in *A. oryzae* RIB40, RIB128, RIB915, and *A. flavus*.

Figure 2. Thick hyphae with increased nuclei emerge by branching. (A) Time-lapse image sequence

of *A. oryzae* RIB40 expressing H2B-GFP showing the emergence of thick hyphae with increased

nuclei by branching from Movie 2. Scale bar: 20 μm. Elapsed time is indicated in min. (B) Image

sequence of successive nuclear division within the newly emerged branched hypha from Movie 3.

Scale bar: 10 μm. Elapsed time is indicated in min. (C) Time course of nuclear number per hypha.

Nuclear numbers were counted with the start time of branching set as 0, every hour for 5 to 10 h.

Thick; hyphal width >7 μm, Thin; hyphal width <5 μm. (D) Branching from hyphae with increased

nuclei generates both thick hyphae with increased nuclei (left) and thin hyphae without increased

nuclei (right). Scale bars: 20 μm. (E) Image sequence of mycelial growth showing hyphae with

increased nuclei (green) and without increased nuclei (white) from Movie 4. Scale bars: 200 μm.

Elapsed time is indicated in h. (F) Line histogram of hyphal width at the colony periphery at 20, 40,

and 60 h, calculated from Movie 4 (n=40). (G) Correlation between hyphal width and maximum

elongation rate calculated from Movie 4 (n=45). The maximum elongation rate is determined from

elongation rates measured every hour over 10 hours period. (H) TEM images of *A. oryzae* RIB40

hyphae. Hyphal diameter and cell wall thickness are indicated white and black text respectively. Scale

bar: 1 μm. (I) Correlation plots of hyphal width and cell wall thickness based on TEM images. Thick

hyphae (>7 μm) are marked in red, and thin hyphae (<7 μm) are marked in blue. (J) 3D surface images

of *A. oryzae* RIB40 hyphal tips in the thick hypha (upper) and the thin hypha (lower) constructed using

AFM. (K) Surface roughness of cell walls in thick (red) and thin (blue) hyphae along the arrows in J.

Figure 3. Correlation between number of nuclei and enzyme secretion. (A) Secreted protein per

biomass in strains with increased nuclei (red) and without increased nuclei (blue) after 4 days of culture

in minimal medium with 1% maltose (mean ± S.E., n=3, ** $p < 0.01$, t-test). (B) Time course of α-

amylase activity per biomass in *A. oryzae* RIB40 and RIB915 cultured in minimal medium with 1%

maltose (mean ± S.E., n=3). (C) Measurement of α-amylase activity in a single hypha using a

microfluidic device. A fluorescent substrate increases in fluorescence upon hydrolysis by α-amylase.

ROIs for thick hypha are marked in red, and thin hypha in blue. Scale bar: 10 μm. (D) Temporal

changes in fluorescence intensity measured in individual flow channels, as described in C. (E) Box

plots of hyphal width in colonies grown in minimal medium with or without 1% yeast extract (n=10–

18, ** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$, t-test). Conditions with increased nuclei are marked in red, and those

without in blue. (F) Secreted protein per biomass in minimal medium with or without 1% yeast extract

(mean ± S.E., n=3, ** $p < 0.01$, t-test). (G) Ratio of class I-III hyphae in *A. oryzae* RIB915 colonies

grown in minimal medium supplemented with 1% yeast extract or 0.1% individual amino acids (n=50).

(H) Correlation between the ratio of Class III hyphae and secreted protein per biomass in the 0.1%

amino acid-supplemented medium. (I) Images of hyphae and nuclear distribution in *A. oryzae* RIB40

grown on minimal medium with or without 0.5 ng/ml rapamycin. Scale bars: 10 μm. (J) Ratio of class

I-III hyphae in *A. oryzae* RIB40 cultured on minimal medium containing 0, 0.5, 5, or 100 ng/ml

rapamycin (n=50). (K) Box plots of hyphal width in the colonies cultured under the conditions in J

(n=11-18, ** $p < 0.01$, t-test).

Figure 4. Transcriptome analyses in hyphae with increased nuclei. (A) Heatmap of gene expression in

A. oryzae RIB40, RIB915, and *A. nidulans* grown in the minimal medium with or without 1% yeast

extract. The top 500 genes with the largest variation in expression are shown. (B) Venn diagram of

genes upregulated more than four-fold in the medium with yeast extract. (C) GO process analysis of

genes uniquely upregulated in *A. oryzae* RIB915 grown in the medium with yeast extract. (D) Image

sequence of cutting and collecting the targeted hypha by using laser microdissection. Scale bar: 100

μm. (E) Heatmap of gene expression in thick (n=3) and thin (n=2) hyphae dissected from *A. oryzae*

RIB40. The top 300 genes with the largest expression differences are shown. (F) GO process analysis

of genes upregulated more than four-fold in thick hyphae compared to thin hyphae. (G) Venn diagram

of 449 genes upregulated in RIB915 with yeast extract and 558 genes upregulated in thick hyphae of

RIB40. (H) GO annotations of 13 genes from the 21 shared genes in G. Genes related to cell wall

processes are shown in green, cell membrane in blue, Ca^{2+} transport in yellow, and rRNA processing

in orange. (I) Images of hyphae of RIB40 and Δ*msyA* strains after 3 min of low osmotic stress. Scale

bar: 200 μm. (J) Ratio of hyphal tip lysis under the hypoosmotic shock (mean ± S.E., n=50, ** $p <$

0.01, t-test).

Figure 5. Comparison of industrial bred strains in *A. oryzae, T. reesei* and *P. chrysogenum*. (A)

Phylogenetic clade A-F of *A. oryzae* TK strains. The strains with increased nuclei are indicated in red.

(B) Colonies and hyphae stained with SYBR Green of strains in clades C, F, and G grown for 3 days

on the minimal medium. Scale bar: 20 μm. (C) Sequence differences in *rseA* gene among strains in

clades C, F, and G. UTR regions are marked in pink, exons in purple, and nucleotide differences in

white. (D) Colonies and hyphae stained with SYBR Green of RIB40 and the Δ*rseA* strain grown for 3

days on the minimal medium. Scale bar: 10 μm. (E) Colonies and hyphae stained with SYBR Green

of RIB915 expressing *rseA* gene from RIB40 and TK-47 strains with increased nuclei, and TK-41

strain without increased nuclei. Scale bar: 20 μm. (F) Hyphal width of RIB915 and strains in E (n=14–

23). Strains with *rseA* from strains with increased nuclei are marked in red, and those without are

marked in blue. (G) Hyphal images stained with SYBR Green of *T. reesei* (QM9414) and *P.*

chrysogenum (IFO4688) grown for 3 days on the minimal medium with or without 1% yeast extract.

Scale bar: 20 μm. (H) Ratio of class I-III hyphae in the *T. reesei* and *P. chrysogenum* control and bred

strains cultured on the minimal medium with or without 1% yeast extract for 3 days (n=50). (I)

CMCase activity per biomass of *T. reesei* industrial and control strains under the conditions in G (mean

± S.E., n=3, ** $p < 0.01$, t-test). (J) Protease activity per biomass of *P. chrysogenum* industrial and

control strains under the conditions in G (mean ± S.E., n=3, ** $p < 0.01$, t-test).

Figure 6. (A) Molecular mechanism by which cell volume and nucelar number regulate each other and

each increases simultaneously. (B) An increase in the number of nuclei per hyphal cell enhances

transcription, translation, and enzyme secretion per cell.