1   **Interconnected regulation of carbon catabolite repression and carbon source utilization**

2   **in an oleaginous yeast**

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ABSTRACT

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Cells must sense and respond to available nutrients to survive. Microbes evolved

mechanisms to activate genes necessary to utilize a carbon source specifically when it is

present. To efficiently grow in mixed carbon source environments, microbes repress genes

necessary to utilize carbon sources that require substantial resources to catabolize when a

simpler carbon source is present, known as carbon catabolite repression. We investigated

nutrient utilization in the basidiomycete, oleaginous yeast *Rhodotorula (Rhodosporidium)*

toruloides. *R. toruloides* is a saprophytic fungus that utilizes the building blocks of complex

polysaccharides found in plant cell walls. A transcription factor homologous to the cellulose

degradation regulator CLR-2/ClrB in Ascomycete filamentous fungi, which we named Cbr1, is

required for cellobiose utilization in *R. toruloides*. Although the role of CLR-2/ClrB is limited to

regulating expression of genes involved in cellulose and hemicellulose utilization, Cbr1 is also

involved in fucose and tricarboxylic acid cycle intermediate utilization. Additionally, Cbr1 inhibits

carbon catabolite repression specifically during utilization of glucose-glucose disaccharides,

which may have evolved to limit the glucose-mediated repression of genes encoding proteins

that cleave disaccharides into glucose. In fungi, it is thought carbon source-specific transcription

factors activate genes necessary for carbon source utilization, while carbon catabolite

repression is regulated by transcription factors that broadly repress all nonpreferred carbon

source utilization genes when a preferred carbon source is present. Our data provide evidence

for a noncanonical carbon catabolite repression mechanism and suggest transcriptional

mechanisms regulating carbon catabolite repression may be less broadly conserved than

previously thought.

SIGNIFICANCE STATEMENT

Microbes evolved transcriptional networks regulating nutrient utilization. Carbon sources

requiring substantial resources to catabolize are less preferred than carbon sources requiring

less energy. Canonically, a preferred carbon source represses all nonpreferred carbon source

utilization genes, termed carbon catabolite repression. We identified a transcription factor in the

yeast *Rhodotorula* (*Rhodosporidium*) *toruloides* that specifically inhibits glucose-mediated

repression of glucose-glucose disaccharide utilization and is required for cellobiose, carboxylic

acid, and fucose utilization. Carbon catabolite repression only of specific carbon sources and

co-regulation of carbon catabolite repression with nutrient utilization gene activation establishes

a noncanonical carbon catabolite repression mechanism. Characterization of diverse carbon

catabolite repression mechanisms is important for engineering industrial fungi and in fungal

pathogenesis, where carbon catabolite repression is important for virulence.

INTRODUCTION

Cells must sense and respond to nutrients to successfully grow and divide using the resources available. For fungi, nutrient sensing is critical to establish fungal colonies, compete with other microbes, and establish pathogenic and symbiotic relationships with plants and animals. Saprophytic fungi acquire nutrients from dead plants and other organic matter. The carbon sources found in plant biomass range from simple sugars, like sucrose and fructose, to complex polysaccharides, such as cellulose, found in plant cell walls.

Utilization of complex polysaccharides requires extracellular degradation to break down the insoluble molecules into soluble building blocks that can be imported into fungal cells (1). Many yeast species can utilize the soluble building blocks of polysaccharides found in plant biomass but frequently cannot degrade the insoluble polysaccharides (2). These yeast species are excellent choices for growth and engineering in industrial settings because of their uninucleate, single cellular lifestyle and wide carbon utilization repertoire. The basidiomycete, oleaginous yeast *Rhodotorula toruloides* (previously known as *Rhodosporidium toruloides*) can eat most soluble breakdown products of the carbohydrates found in plant cell walls (3, 4). *R. toruloides* can also accumulate up to 70% of its biomass as fatty acids in conditions in which carbon is abundant but other nutrients are limiting and produces useful secondary metabolites, such as carotenoids (5-11). This makes *R. toruloides* an excellent choice for green biotechnology in which products that might otherwise be sourced from petroleum or other environmentally unsustainable sources are produced in microbes fed by agricultural waste or plant matter grown on marginal land (12).

Most of the work characterizing the genetic pathways regulating utilization of carbon sources has been performed in Ascomycete fungi (1, 13). In these fungi, a network of activating transcription factors activates the genes necessary for utilization of available carbon (14). Plant biomass contains a wide array of carbon sources. These varied carbon sources have differing levels of preference for the fungal cell. When a more preferred carbon source is available, a

process known as carbon catabolite repression downregulates the expression of genes required

for utilization of any less preferred carbon sources present in the environment (1, 15). In

Ascomycete fungi, one of the major regulators of carbon catabolite repression is the

transcription factor CRE-1/CreA/Mig1, which broadly represses the expression of genes

necessary for utilization of any nonpreferred carbon source in the presence of a more preferred

carbon source (15-21). However, the genetic mechanisms through which Basidiomycete fungi

activate genes necessary to utilize nonpreferred carbon sources and repress these genes in the

presence of more preferred carbon sources is significantly less well studied.

We investigated the genetic mechanisms regulating carbon utilization in the

basidiomycete yeast *R. toruloides*. Cellulose is the most abundant component of plant biomass

and is composed of long chains of glucose linked by β-1,4-glycosidic bonds (22). *R. toruloides*

can utilize the disaccharide building block of cellulose, cellobiose (23). We took a phylogenetic

approach to identify the regulator of cellobiose utilization in *R. toruloides*. This led to the

identification of a transcription factor homologous to the cellulose degradation regulator CLR-

2/ClrB in Ascomycete fungi (24) that is required for utilization of cellobiose in *R. toruloides*,

which we named Cbr1.

Characterization of Cbr1 revealed that the role of this transcription factor is significantly

expanded in *R. toruloides*, where it is also required for utilization of tricarboxylic acid (TCA)

cycle intermediates and the deoxy hexose sugar fucose. We used transcriptomic analyses to

identify genes regulated by Cbr1. These genes included two genes encoding secreted β-

glucosidases and two genes encoding transporters. One of these β-glucosidase genes is

necessary for cellobiose utilization, while one of the identified transporters is required for

utilizing the tricarboxylic acid citrate. Cellobiose, fucose, and TCA cycle intermediates are not

utilized through similar pathways, suggesting that *R. toruloides* may inhabit an ecological niche

in which these carbon sources are frequently found together. Further investigation into the role

of Cbr1 demonstrated that this transcription factor inhibits carbon catabolite repression

specifically when a glucose-glucose disaccharide is present as a nonpreferred carbon source.

This role for Cbr1 contrasts with previously identified genetic mechanisms of carbon catabolite

repression regulation, which are involved in the regulation of genes responsible for the

utilization of any nonpreferred carbon source. Taken together, the varied roles of Cbr1 in *R.*

toruloides metabolic regulation present a novel mechanism of carbon catabolite repression in

fungi and may provide insights into the ecological niche of this oleaginous yeast.

RESULTS

Cbr1 is required for wild-type utilization of cellobiose and TCA cycle intermediates

Cellulose is the most abundant component in the plant cell wall. Although *R. toruloides*

cannot degrade cellulose, it can utilize the disaccharide breakdown product of cellulose,

cellobiose (23). Several transcription factors are known to regulate cellulose and cellobiose

utilization in Ascomycete filamentous fungi, including CLR-1/ClrA, CLR-2/ClrB, and XlnR (1, 24-

27). To investigate the genetic mechanisms regulating *R. toruloides* cellobiose utilization, we

searched for transcription factors in the *R. toruloides* genome with homology to these regulators

of cellulose and cellobiose utilization. No clear homolog of CLR-1/ClrA or XlnR existed in the *R.*

toruloides genome (Fig S1). However, we identified a single homolog of CLR-2/ClrB,

RTO4_13588 (Fig 1A and Fig S1).

We hypothesized that RTO4_13588 may play a role in regulating cellobiose utilization in

R. toruloides. To test this hypothesis, we deleted RTO4_13588 and grew the resulting

RTO4_13588Δ strain with cellobiose as the sole carbon source. Growth of cells lacking

RTO4_13588 with glucose as the sole carbon source was indistinguishable from that of wild

type cells (Fig 1B). However, deletion of RTO4_13588 resulted in a complete lack of growth

when cellobiose was provided as the sole carbon source, which could be complemented by

exogenous expression of RTO4_13588 (Fig 1B). The closest homolog to RTO4_13588 in the

model yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* is the transcription factor Gal4, which regulates

galactose utilization in *S. cerevisiae* (Fig 1A) (28). To test whether RTO4_13588 also played a

role in regulating galactose utilization in *R. toruloides*, we grew wild type and RTO4_13588Δ

cells with galactose as the sole carbon source. There was no detectable difference in growth

between wild type cells and cells lacking RTO4_13588 on galactose (Fig S2A). Thus, we named

RTO4_13588, *CBR1* for cellobiose regulator 1.

R. toruloides is capable of growth on a wide variety of soluble carbon sources (3, 23).

We asked whether *CBR1* was also required for growth on any additional carbon sources. Cells

lacking *CBR1* were unable to grow as well as wild type cells on the deoxy hexose sugar fucose,

which could be complemented by exogenous expression of *CBR1* (Fig 1B). The growth of *cbr1Δ*

cells was indistinguishable from that of wild type cells on all other sugars tested (fructose,

xylose, arabinose, galacturonic acid, sucrose, maltose, trehalose, and raffinose) and during

growth on the lignin phenolic building blocks, coumaric and ferulic acid (Fig S2A-S2B). *CBR1*

was not required for utilization of the lipid mimic Tween-80, the fermentation product acetate, or

the amino acids L-alanine, proline, glutamate, or glycine, suggesting *cbr1Δ* cells are capable of

respiration (Fig S2C-S2D). Thus, we hypothesized that *cbr1Δ* cells would be able to grow with

TCA cycle intermediates provided as the sole carbon source. To our surprise, when we grew

wild type, *cbr1Δ*, and *cbr1Δ + CBR1* cells on media containing citrate, α-ketoglutarate,

succinate, fumarate, or malate as the sole carbon source, the *cbr1Δ* cells had significant growth

defects relative to wild type and *cbr1Δ + CBR1* cells (Fig 1B).

The role for Cbr1 in TCA cycle intermediate and fucose utilization could either be an

expanded role for Cbr1 in *R. toruloides* relative to CLR-2/ClrB or a previously uncharacterized

role for CLR-2/ClrB. To distinguish between these two possibilities, we assessed growth of the

model filamentous fungus *Neurospora crassa* wild type and Δ*clr-2* cells in media containing

succinate, α-ketoglutarate, malate, or fucose as the sole carbon source. Wild type *N. crassa*

was only capable of limited growth with TCA cycle intermediates or fucose as the sole carbon

source, and deletion of *clr-2* caused no detectable difference in growth (Fig S3). These data

suggest the role for *CBR1* in regulating TCA cycle intermediate and fucose utilization is an

expanded role for this transcription factor, relative to the role of Cbr1 orthologs in Ascomycete

filamentous fungi.

Cbr1 activates a core regulon of five genes in response to cellobiose, TCA cycle intermediates,

and fucose

We had three possible hypotheses for the genetic mechanism through which Cbr1 could

regulate utilization of cellobiose, TCA cycle intermediates, and fucose: (1) Cbr1 regulates genes

necessary to utilize all three classes of carbon sources in response to any of these carbon

sources, (2) Cbr1 regulates genes necessary to utilize each carbon source only in response to

that specific carbon source, and (3) *R. toruloides* utilization of cellobiose, fucose, and/or TCA

cycle intermediates proceeds through atypical metabolic pathways such that they require the

same transporters and/or catabolic enzymes. To distinguish between these three hypotheses,

we used transcriptional profiling. We exposed exponentially growing wild type and *cbr1Δ* cells to

yeast nitrogen base (YNB) medium lacking a carbon source (no carbon) or supplemented with

1% cellobiose, fucose, or succinate as the sole carbon source for 8 h prior to harvesting the

cells for RNA sequencing (RNAseq). The cellobiose, succinate, and no carbon samples were

submitted for whole transcript RNAseq, and the fucose samples were submitted for 3' RNAseq.

Given the limited characterization of *R. toruloides* gene expression on cellobiose or

succinate, we first examined the transcriptional profile of wild type cells in these conditions

relative to carbon starvation. The expression of 1168 genes was at least four-fold differentially

expressed in wild type cells exposed to cellobiose compared to carbon starvation, with 155

genes increased in expression and 1013 genes decreased. For wild type cells exposed to

succinate as a sole carbon source, 525 genes were at least four-fold differentially expressed

relative to carbon starved cells with 142 genes increased in expression and 383 genes

decreased in expression. Intriguingly, over 75% of genes differentially expressed on succinate

(405/525) were also differentially expressed on cellobiose, supporting the hypothesis that similar

sets of genes are regulated in response to cellobiose and succinate (Fig S4A-C and Dataset

S1-S2).

Cells lacking *CBR1* also showed substantial transcriptional responses to cellobiose and

succinate in comparison to carbon starvation. Five hundred seventy-nine genes were at least

four-fold differentially expressed in cellobiose compared to carbon starvation. Eighty-one of the

179 genes (45%) with higher expression on cellobiose in *cbr1Δ* cells were also higher in

expression in wild type cells exposed to cellobiose, and 319 of the 400 genes (80%) with

decreased expression on cellobiose in *cbr1Δ* cells had the same expression pattern in wild type

cells (Fig S4A, S4D, S4F, and Dataset S1-S2). Similarly, 742 genes were differentially

expressed on succinate compared to carbon starvation in *cbr1Δ* cells. Eighty-six of the 296

genes (29%) with higher expression on succinate in *cbr1Δ* cells were also higher in expression

in wild type cells exposed to succinate, and 256 of 446 genes (57%) with lower expression on

succinate in *cbr1Δ* cells were also decreased in expression in wild type cells exposed to

succinate (Fig S4B, S4E, S4G, and Dataset S1-S2). The significant transcriptional response to

cellobiose and succinate combined with the high degree of transcriptional similarity exhibited by

the *cbr1Δ* and wild type cells suggests that despite not being able to utilize cellobiose or

succinate at wild type levels, *cbr1Δ* cells are still able to respond to the presence of these

carbon sources to some extent.

Although the expression of many fungal transcription factor genes is upregulated in the

condition in which the transcription factor plays a role, *CBR1* expression was not induced in

response to either cellobiose or succinate compared to carbon starvation (Fig S5A and Dataset

S1-S2). To directly regulate gene expression, Cbr1 must be present in the nucleus. We

hypothesized Cbr1 might be transported into the nucleus under conditions where it plays a role.

To test this hypothesis, we tagged Cbr1 with green fluorescent protein (mEGFP) and the histone

H2A subunit *HTA1* (RTO4_12090) with mRuby2 and exposed these cells to carbon starvation or

glucose, cellobiose, or succinate as the sole carbon source to identify the localization pattern of

Cbr1. Cbr1 colocalized with the histone H2A subunit under all four conditions, suggesting that

Cbr1 is expressed and present in the nucleus during exposure to glucose, cellobiose, succinate,

and carbon starvation (Fig S5B).

213   To gain insight into the mechanism behind the growth defects of cells lacking *CBR1* we

examined genes that were decreased in expression in *cbr1Δ* relative to wild type cells. Using a

four-fold differential expression cutoff, 284, 18, 25, and 25 genes were lower in expression in

cbr1Δ compared to wild type cells on cellobiose, succinate, carbon starvation, and fucose,

respectively (Fig 2A-D and Dataset S1-S2). In concordance with the hypothesis that cellobiose,

carboxylic acid, and fucose utilization are, at least in part, transcriptionally linked via *CBR1*,

genes annotated as part of the Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG) (29) 2-

oxocarboxylic acid metabolism category were enriched in the *CBR1* regulon on cellobiose (Fig

2E). Additionally, carbohydrate metabolism KEGG (29) and gene ontology (GO) (30, 31) related

categories were enriched on succinate, no carbon, and fucose. Further analysis revealed the

carbohydrate-related enrichments primarily consisted of genes annotated as having putative β-

glucosidase activity, which is responsible for cleaving cellobiose into two glucose molecules (Fig

2E).

226   Given the limited number of genes lower in expression in *cbr1Δ* cells relative to wild type

cells for all conditions except cellobiose and the substantial overlap in transcriptional responses

between cellobiose and succinate, we hypothesized that genes necessary for utilization of the

individual carbon sources would be differentially expressed in a *CBR1*-dependent manner

across multiple carbon sources. Only five genes were differentially expressed by at least four-

fold in at least three of the four conditions: two encoding putative β-glucosidases (RTO4_16716

and RTO4_16717) that are adjacent in the *R. toruloides* genome, two encoding putative major

facilitator superfamily transporters (RTO4_10339 and RTO4_13825), and one encoding a

putative phosphoglycerate mutase (RTO4_11229) (Fig 2A-D and Dataset S1-S2).

Cbr1-regulated β-glucosidases are necessary for cellobiose utilization

The expression of two predicted β-glucosidase genes in a *CBR1*-dependent fashion, led

us to hypothesize that one or both β-glucosidase genes is essential for cellobiose utilization. An

amino acid alignment using LALIGN revealed 72% identity and 90% similarity between the two

proteins, suggesting a potential for redundancy, so to test this hypothesis we deleted

RTO4_16716 and RTO4_16717, together and individually (32). RTO4_16716Δ RTO4_16717Δ

cells grew like wild type on glucose, citrate, succinate, and fucose, but were unable to grow on

cellobiose (Fig 3A and S6A). Analysis of the individual deletion mutants revealed that deletion of

RTO4_16717 alone was sufficient to eliminate growth on cellobiose and complementation

exogenously with RTO4_16717 under its native promoter restored the ability to grow on

cellobiose (Fig 3B). Cells lacking RTO4_16716 alone grew as well as wild type cells on

cellobiose (Fig 3B). These data indicate RTO4_16717 encodes the primary β-glucosidase for

cellobiose utilization. Thus, we named RTO4_16717 and RTO4_16716, *BGL1* and *BGL2*,

respectively, for β-glucosidase 1 and 2.

Both *BGL1* and *BGL2* have predicted secretion signals, leading us to hypothesize that

cleavage of cellobiose by the β-glucosidases may occur extracellularly. To address this

hypothesis, we exposed exponentially growing wild type, *cbr1*Δ, and *cbr1*Δ + *CBR1* cells to

media containing glucose, cellobiose, or succinate. After 20 h of incubation, we harvested

supernatants to measure secreted β-glucosidase activity. β-glucosidase activity was detected in

the supernatants of wild type cells exposed to cellobiose indicating that β-glucosidases are

indeed secreted by *R. toruloides* (Fig 3C). Consistent with our transcriptomics data, and despite

the lack of a role for *BGL1* and *BGL2* in carboxylic acid utilization, β-glucosidase activity was

also detectable in the supernatant of wild type cells grown on succinate. Deletion of *CBR1*

eliminated β-glucosidase activity in the supernatant of cellobiose and succinate cultures. This

activity was restored in the supernatant of cultures of *cbr1Δ + CBR1* cells, indicating the

secreted β-glucosidase activity was dependent on *CBR1* (Fig 3C).

β-glucosidase activity was not constitutively present in *R. toruloides* supernatants, as

glucose cultures had no detectable β-glucosidase activity (Fig 3C). A lack of β-glucosidase

activity in glucose culture supernatants could either be due to reduced expression of β-

glucosidase genes or reduced secretion of β-glucosidase proteins relative to growth on

cellobiose and succinate. To distinguish between these possibilities, we performed reverse

transcription quantitative PCR (RT-qPCR) on *BGL1* in wild type cells exposed to cellobiose,

succinate, glucose, and carbon starvation. Corroborating our RNAseq data, *BGL1* expression

was highest on cellobiose, followed by succinate, and then carbon starvation (Fig 3D). During

exposure to glucose, *BGL1* expression was nearly undetectable, indicating the lack of β-

glucosidase activity in the glucose culture supernatant was due to reduced expression of β-

glucosidase genes (Fig 3C and 3D). These data may indicate β-glucosidase expression is

regulated by carbon catabolite repression and that β-glucosidases potentially act as "scout"

enzymes during carbon starvation similar to some polysaccharide degrading enzymes in some

filamentous fungi (1, 14).

Given that *bgl1Δ* cells cannot grow when cellobiose is the sole carbon source (Fig 3B),

we hypothesized Bgl1 was the source of the secreted β-glucosidase activity. To test this

hypothesis, we incubated exponentially growing *bgl1Δ* cells in media containing cellobiose,

succinate, or glucose for 20 h. While the β-glucosidase activity present in the cellobiose *bgl1Δ*

culture supernatant was 22-fold lower than that of wild type culture supernatants, it was

detectable, and β-glucosidase activity of succinate *bgl1Δ* cultures was even more pronounced

(Fig 3C and S6C). This reduction in β-glucosidase secretion was mitigated in *bgl1Δ + BGL1*

cells (Fig 3C). The low level of β-glucosidase activity remaining in *bgl1Δ* cells could either result

from Bgl2 secretion or secretion of an unidentified protein. To distinguish between these

possibilities, we exposed *bgl1Δ bgl2Δ* and *bgl1Δ bgl2Δ + BGL1 BGL2* cells to cellobiose,

succinate, or glucose for 20 h. Cells lacking both *BGL1* and *BGL2* had no detectable β-

glucosidase activity, and this could be rescued by complementation with wild type copies of

BGL1 and *BGL2* (Fig 3C and S6C). These data suggested Bgl2 does contribute to the β-

glucosidase activity present in cellobiose and succinate culture supernatants. To test this

hypothesis, we measured β-glucosidase activity secreted by *bgl2Δ* cells. Although, *BGL2* was

dispensable for growth on cellobiose, deletion of *bgl2* resulted in a 2.8-fold reduction of β-

glucosidase activity on both cellobiose and succinate (Fig 3C). These data show that both Bgl1

and Bgl2 are responsible for the secreted β-glucosidase activity of *R. toruloides*.

It was possible either that β-glucosidase genes were the only Cbr1-regulated genes

necessary for cellobiose utilization or that other genes were also required. To distinguish

between these two possibilities, we expressed *BGL1* under the constitutive *AAC1*

(RTO4_12704) promoter (33) at the *YKU70* (RTO4_11920) locus in a *cbr1Δ* background (*cbr1Δ*

+ P_{AAC1}-BGL1). Constitutive expression of *BGL1* in *cbr1Δ* cells resulted in wild type levels of

growth on cellobiose when cells were inoculated at very low densities (Fig 3B). However, when

cells were inoculated at higher starting densities, similar to those used to quantify extracellular

β-glucosidase activity, *cbr1Δ + P_{AAC1}-BGL1* cells had a growth advantage on cellobiose relative

to wild type cells (Fig S6D-S6E). Correspondingly, *cbr1Δ + P_{AAC1}-BGL1* cellobiose culture

supernatants had 3.2-fold higher β-glucosidase activity than wild type culture supernatants (Fig

S6F). These data suggest *BGL1* is the only Cbr1-regulated gene required for cellobiose

utilization and constitutive expression of *BGL1* yields a density-dependent growth advantage

when cellobiose is the sole carbon source.

307   Given that *cbr1Δ + P_{AAC1}-BGL1* cells are capable of growth on cellobiose, suggesting

that β-glucosidase activity is the only Cbr1-regulated requirement for cellobiose utilization, we

hypothesized that the growth defect of *cbr1Δ* and *bgl1Δ bgl2Δ* cells on cellobiose could be

rescued by β-glucosidases secreted into the media by wild type cells. To test this hypothesis, we

inoculated wild type, *cbr1Δ*, and *bgl1Δ bgl2Δ* cells into YNB 1% cellobiose supplemented with

filtered, spent supernatant from wild type cells grown on cellobiose, succinate, or glucose. As a

control for growth on residual carbon in the spent supernatant, we also inoculated these strains

into YNB without a carbon source supplemented with spent supernatant (Fig S7). Cultures of

cbr1Δ and *bgl1Δ bgl2Δ* cells grown in cellobiose supplemented with spent supernatants from

wild type cellobiose and succinate cultures grew significantly more than when *cbr1Δ* and *bgl1Δ*

bgl2Δ cells were grown on cellobiose alone (Fig 3E-3F). Taken together, our data demonstrate

that Cbr1 regulates genes encoding secreted β-glucosidases in response to cellobiose and TCA

cycle intermediates and that extracellular degradation of cellobiose by β-glucosidases is

required for cellobiose utilization by *R. toruloides.*

CBR1-mediated transcriptional response to cellobiose is dependent on extracellular β-

glucosidases

324   Rescue of the growth of *cbr1Δ* cells on cellobiose by constitutively expressed *BGL1* or

spent supernatant containing β-glucosidase activity provoked the question of whether cellobiose

is the signaling molecule activating the *CBR1*-dependent transcriptional response to cellobiose

or if the signal is a catabolic derivative of cellobiose. We differentiated between these

possibilities in two ways.

We first compared the transcriptional profile of *bgl1Δ bgl2Δ* cells exposed to cellobiose,

which have no extracellular β-glucosidase activity but contain wild type copies of *CBR1* and any

unknown cellobiose receptor(s) or transporter(s), to that of wild type and *cbr1Δ* cells using 3'

RNAseq. The transcriptional profiles of *bgl1Δ bgl2Δ* cells were more similar to that of *cbr1Δ* cells

than to wild type cells (Fig 4A-C, S8, and Dataset S3-S4). Thirty-five genes were at least four-

fold differentially expressed in *bgl1Δ bgl2Δ* cells relative to wild type cells (12 increased and 23

decreased in expression) (Fig 4A and Dataset S3-S4). Twenty-three of these genes were also at

least four-fold differentially expressed in *cbr1Δ* cells compared to wild type cells (Fig 4B and

Dataset S3-S4). In contrast, only five genes were at least four-fold differentially expressed in

bgl1Δ bgl2Δ relative to *cbr1Δ* cells, which included a 38-fold upregulation of the *CBR1*-regulated

predicted transporter gene RTO4_13825 (Fig 4C and Dataset S3-S4). The increased

expression of RTO4_13825 in *bgl1Δ bgl2Δ* cells relative to both *cbr1Δ* and wild type cells, raised

the question of whether any of the other genes in the core Cbr1 regulon were involved in

cellobiose sensing or utilization. Cells lacking RTO4_13825, RTO4_10339, or RTO4_11229 all

grew as well as wild type on cellobiose (Fig S9). These data indicate the signal for the *CBR1*-

dependent cellobiose response requires secreted β-glucosidases, suggesting cellobiose is likely

not the signaling molecule for Cbr1 activation.

The activity of β-glucosidases cleaves cellobiose into two glucose molecules. Thus, a

second way we answered the question of whether cellobiose or a catabolic derivative of

cellobiose acted as a signaling molecule was to ask whether low glucose concentrations would

activate expression of Cbr1-regulated genes. To mitigate changes in glucose concentration due

to metabolism, we used the non-metabolizable glucose analog 2-deoxyglucose. We exposed

wild type cells to 10-fold dilutions of 2-deoxyglucose (100 μM to 0.1 μM), 1% 2-deoxyglucose,

1% cellobiose, or carbon starvation for 1 h and 4 h and measured transcription of *BGL1* using

RT-qPCR. As expected, cells exposed to cellobiose expressed *BGL1* at high levels and this

expression was repressed during exposure to 1% 2-deoxyglucose (Fig 4D). Exposure to 1 μM

2-deoxyglucose resulted in a two to three-fold increase in *BGL1* expression relative to carbon

starvation at both timepoints (Fig 4D). While this *BGL1* activation did not rise to the same

magnitude as exposure to cellobiose itself, perhaps due to differences in the precise glucose

concentration, the rate at which the glucose enters the cell, or a lack of resources due to

starvation when 2-deoxyglucose is the sole carbon source, activation of *BGL1* expression in 1

μM 2-deoxyglucose suggests a low glucose concentration acts as a signal to activate β-

glucosidase expression.

A Cbr1-regulated transporter gene is necessary for citrate utilization

Two genes encoding major facilitator superfamily transporters (RTO4_13825 and

RTO4_10339) and a gene encoding a predicted phosphoglycerate mutase (RTO4_11229) were

also members of the *CBR1* core regulon. We hypothesized that these genes may be necessary

for growth on TCA cycle intermediates and/or fucose. To test this hypothesis, we grew

RTO4_13825Δ, RTO4_10339Δ, and RTO4_11229Δ cells on media containing glucose, fucose,

the tricarboxylic acid citrate, or the dicarboxylic acids succinate, α-ketoglutarate, malate, or

fumarate as the sole carbon source. The growth of cells lacking RTO4_10339 or RTO4_11229

was indistinguishable from that of wild type cells under all conditions tested (Fig S9). In contrast,

cells lacking RTO4_13825 were unable to grow on citrate but grew as well as wild type cells on

all other carbon sources tested (Fig 5A and S9A). Thus, we named RTO4_13825 *TCT1* for

tri<u>c</u>arboxylic acid <u>t</u>ransporter.

To gain further insight into the roles of *TCT1* and *CBR1* in citrate utilization we

conducted RNAseq on wild type, *cbr1*Δ, and *tct1*Δ exponentially growing cells exposed to citrate

as the sole carbon source for 24 h. Only 20 genes were at least four-fold differentially expressed

in *cbr1*Δ relative to wild type cells (Fig 5B and Dataset S5-S6). Surprisingly, these 20 genes did

not include *TCT1* or genes predicted to play a role in citrate metabolism. Of the other genes in

the *CBR1* core regulon, *BGL1* and *BGL2* were decreased in expression by 6.7 and 3.2-fold,

respectively, in *cbr1Δ* relative to wild type cells, but RTO4_10339 and RTO4_11229 were not

differentially expressed in this comparison (Fig 5B and Dataset S5-S6). Only one gene,

RTO4_15140, had decreased expression in *tct1Δ* cells relative to wild type cells. The expression

of RTO4_15140 was also decreased in *cbr1Δ* relative to wild type cells (Fig 5B and Dataset S5-

S6). RTO4_15140 is predicted to encode a P-type ATPase transduction domain A containing

protein with a single transmembrane domain, and its role in citrate utilization, if any, is unclear.

The similarity of the transcriptional profiles of *tct1Δ* and wild type cells may suggest that *tct1Δ*

cells are able to sense citrate, despite not being able to grow.

Cbr1 inhibits carbon catabolite repression during glucose-glucose disaccharide utilization

Our data show that *R. toruloides* β-glucosidases are secreted into the media where they

cleave the cellobiose β-1,4-glycosidic bond, releasing two glucose molecules (Fig 3C). Glucose

is a highly preferred carbon source in most fungi. Thus, we hypothesized glucose import would

repress genes necessary for cellobiose utilization via carbon catabolite repression (1, 14, 15).

BGL1 expression is almost undetectable when wild type cells are exposed to 1% glucose or at

least 100 µM 2-deoxyglucose (Fig 3D and 4D). If *BGL1* expression is repressed by higher levels

of glucose, we hypothesized it would be possible to inhibit growth of wild type cells on cellobiose

when the non-hydrolyzable glucose analog 2-deoxyglucose was added. Indeed, addition of 61

µM 2-deoxyglucose to 1% cellobiose fully inhibited *R. toruloides* growth (Fig 6A). Thus, glucose

is preferred over cellobiose by *R. toruloides*.

This relative carbon preference represents a biological challenge during utilization of

substrates in which glucose is released during degradation; a negative feedback loop could

repress genes necessary to utilize the substrate in response to the released glucose, slowing

growth on the carbon source. We hypothesized that *CBR1* may play a role in inhibiting carbon

catabolite repression to bypass this negative feedback loop. To test this hypothesis, we grew

wild type, *cbr1∆*, and *cbr1∆ + CBR1* cells in media with a nonpreferred carbon source and 2-

deoxyglucose. Cells lacking *CBR1* were significantly more sensitive to 2-deoxyglucose than wild

type or *cbr1∆ + CBR1* cells when the glucose-glucose disaccharides maltose or trehalose were

the carbon source, suggesting Cbr1 was acting as a negative regulator of carbon catabolite

repression (Fig 6B).

Canonically, regulators of carbon catabolite repression act to regulate a broad range of

nonpreferred carbon source utilization genes (1, 14-21). We hypothesized *CBR1* would play a

similar role in *R. toruloides*. However, the growth of *cbr1∆* cells exposed to 2-deoxyglucose in

combination with the glucose-fructose disaccharide sucrose, the hexose monosaccharide

fructose, the pentose monosaccharide xylose, the amino acid proline, or the lipid mimic Tween-

80 was indistinguishable from wild type cells (Fig 6C-6E). To measure the role of *CBR1* in

regulating genes involved in alcohol utilization, we used allyl alcohol, which is converted to the

toxic molecule acrolein by alcohol dehydrogenases. The expression of these alcohol

dehydrogenases is repressed when glucose is present (34). Wild type and *cbr1∆* cells were

equally sensitive to allyl alcohol when glucose was present, indicating that glucose-mediated

repression of alcohol dehydrogenases is also not dependent on Cbr1 (Fig 6F). To determine

whether any of the genes in the *CBR1* core regulon play a role in carbon catabolite repression,

we tested the 2-deoxyglucose sensitivity of *bgl1∆ bgl2∆*, *tct1∆*, RTO4_10339∆, and

RTO4_11229∆ cells. The sensitivity to 2-deoxyglucose of these strains during exposure to

trehalose, maltose, sucrose, proline, xylose, fructose, and tween-80 was indistinguishable from

wild type cells (Fig S10). These data indicate that Cbr1 inhibits carbon catabolite repression of

glucose-glucose disaccharides either by directly regulating gene expression or through genes

outside of the *CBR1* core regulon.

A role for Cbr1 Ascomycete homologs in carbon catabolite repression regulation has not

been identified, so we asked whether the *N. crassa* Cbr1 homolog CLR-2 plays a similar role.

The sensitivity of wild type and Δ*clr-2* cells to 2-deoxyglucose was indistinguishable during

growth on the glucose-glucose disaccharide trehalose or the monosaccharide xylose (Fig S11).

These data indicate the role for Cbr1 in *R. toruloides* in inhibiting carbon catabolite repression of

glucose-glucose disaccharides is an expanded role for Cbr1 relative to the model Ascomycete

ortholog CLR-2.

DISCUSSION

The regulation of gene expression in response to nutrient availability requires cells to

integrate information from activating and repressing environmental nutrient signals. There have

been limited investigations of the genetic regulators of cellulose and cellobiose utilization in

Basidiomycetes. A recent study identified Roc1 as a regulator of cellulase-encoding genes in the

basidiomycete wood-decaying fungus *Schizophyllum commune* (35). However, homologs of

Roc1 do not exist outside of the Agaricomycetes (35). In *Ganoderma lucidum*, the R2R3-type

MYB transcription factor *Gl*Myb activates cellulase gene expression (36). In Ascomycete

filamentous fungi, CLR-2/ClrB regulates cellulose degradation and utilization through the direct

activation of genes encoding cellulases (24, 37). We identified the CLR-2/ClrB ortholog Cbr1 in

the oleaginous, basidiomycete yeast *R. toruloides* (Fig 1). Although Ascomycete and

Basidiomycete fungi are separated by approximately 400 million years of evolution (38), our

study shows that Cbr1 has a role in utilization of the cellulose breakdown product cellobiose (Fig

1). *N. crassa* CLR-2 does not directly regulate the expression of genes encoding β-

glucosidases, which are regulated by CLR-1 (NCU07705) in *N. crassa* (24, 37). However, a role

for Cbr1 in cellobiose utilization suggests that there is conservation in the role of CLR-

2/ClrB/Cbr1 between Ascomycete filamentous fungi and Basidiomycete yeast.

Our characterization of Cbr1 showed that Cbr1 regulates utilization of citrate through the

regulation of the predicted transporter gene *TCT1* and regulates cellobiose utilization through

the regulation of the β-glucosidase genes *BGL1* and *BGL2* (Fig 7). Cbr1 is also necessary for

wild type levels of growth on fucose and the dicarboxylic acid TCA cycle intermediates, but the

genetic mechanisms through which Cbr1 regulates utilization of these carbon sources remains

unclear. It is possible that the two uncharacterized genes in the *CBR1* core regulation, the

predicted transporter RTO4_10339 and the predicted phosphoglycerate mutase RTO4_11229,

play roles in fucose and/or dicarboxylic acid utilization, but that their action is redundant with

other genes in the *R. toruloides* genome. Utilization of these substrates could also, at least

partially, occur through a mechanism outside of the *CBR1* core regulon, potentially including

genes regulated by *CBR1* that did not meet our strict criteria to be part of the *CBR1* core

regulon (Fig 2 and S4). It will be the role of future studies to characterize these genetic

mechanisms and roles for RTO4_10339 and RTO4_11229 in the *CBR1* pathway.

In other fungal species, genes necessary for utilization of multiple carbon sources are

also sometimes regulated by a single transcription factor. For example, CLR-2 in *N. crassa*

regulates cellulose utilization, mannan utilization, and a small number of genes involved in

hemicellulose utilization (14, 24, 37, 39). In *Trichoderma reesei*, *Penicillium oxalicum*, and some

Aspergilli, the transcription factor Xyr1/XlnR regulates utilization of both cellulose and

hemicellulose (25-27). ARA-1/Ara1 regulates both arabinan and galactose utilization in *N.*

crassa and *T. reesei* (14, 40), and FarA regulates utilization of both fatty acids and the lignin

component ferulic acid (41, 42). In *Candida albicans*, Adr1 is required for growth on citrate and

substrates that feed into the TCA cycle, like glutamate and malate (43). However, in these

examples linkage of these carbon sources can easily be explained either by the presence of

both carbon sources in the plant cell wall (i.e, cellulose and hemicellulose or arabinan and

galactose) or catabolism through linked metabolic pathways (i.e., fatty acids and ferulic acid or

citrate, glutamate, and malate).

Cellobiose, fucose, and TCA cycle intermediates are not linked by any known metabolic

pathways, and our data do not support the hypothesis that they are catabolized through the

same noncanonical metabolic pathway in *R. toruloides*. The Cbr1-regulated β-glucosidase

genes are critical for cellobiose utilization but not fucose or TCA cycle intermediate utilization

(Fig 3 and S6A), while Tct1 is critical for citrate utilization but not cellobiose or fucose utilization

(Fig 5A and Fig S9A). Aside from *CBR1* itself, we did not identify any genes that were necessary

for utilization of all the carbon sources regulated by *CBR1*: cellobiose, fucose, and TCA cycle

intermediates. Thus, we speculate the coregulation of cellobiose, fucose, and TCA cycle

intermediates may suggest that in nature *R. toruloides* frequently encounters cellobiose, fucose,

and TCA cycle intermediates in close proximity. One possible explanation for this is that *R.*

toruloides scavenges cellobiose and fucose during plant cell wall degradation by filamentous

fungi, which also secrete organic acids, such as citrate or succinate, to acidify their environment

and may contain fucose in their cell walls (44-47). Activation of β-glucosidase genes prior to

encountering cellobiose released during cellulose degradation via a response to organic acids

secreted by filamentous fungi or fucose present in fungal cell walls could confer a growth

advantage to *R. toruloides* over microbes that only activate β-glucosidase genes in response to

cellobiose itself. Indeed, transferring a large population of cells constitutively expressing *BGL1*

from glucose to cellobiose that do not require time to activate β-glucosidase genes resulted in a

reduced lag phase compared to wild type cells that must activate β-glucosidase genes in

response to cellobiose (Fig S6D).

Carbon catabolite repression is the genetic mechanism through which fungal cells

prioritize utilization of carbon sources that require less energy to metabolize over carbon

sources that require more energy to metabolize (1). Known genetic mechanisms of regulating

carbon catabolite repression regulate the expression of genes required for utilization of all less

preferred carbon sources when a more preferred carbon source is present (14-21). Cbr1

demonstrates a regulatory mechanism through which cells inhibit carbon catabolite repression

specifically during utilization of glucose-glucose disaccharides (Fig 6). We speculate that this

mechanism may allow cells to continue expressing genes necessary for hydrolyzing

disaccharide sugar bonds even when this hydrolysis produces preferred monosaccharides like

glucose (Fig 7). Genetic linkage of carbon catabolite repression inhibition with the activation of

genes necessary to utilize a nonpreferred carbon source has not previously been described in

fungi. Additionally, regulation of genes involved in utilization of a specific class of nonpreferred

carbon sources in response to a preferred carbon source represents a novel form of carbon

catabolite repression regulation. A more complete understanding of mechanisms of carbon

catabolite repression in fungi is important for improving rational engineering of fungi for

industrial fermentation of plant-derived substrates. Additionally, fungi that do not regulate carbon

catabolite repression like wild type cells have reduced virulence (19, 48-50), so understanding

diverse mechanisms of carbon catabolite repression present throughout the fungal kingdom is

critical in controlling fungal disease.

MATERIALS and METHODS

Strains and culturing

R. toruloides strains used in this study are listed in Table S1. All strains were derived

from the wild type reference strain IFO 0880 (also called NBRC 0880, obtained from Biological

Resource Center, NITE (NBRC), Japan). The starting strain for genetic manipulations was the

non-homologous end-joining deficient *yku70Δ* strain (51). *R. toruloides* was transformed using

Agrobacterium tumefaciens-mediated transformation as previously described (11), using *A.*

tumefaciens EHA 105 and plasmids derived from pGI2 (52). All strains were confirmed by PCR

and/or DNA sequencing of transformed loci. For details see SI Materials and Methods. *R.*

toruloides strains were grown from freezer stocks on YPD (VWR) + 2% agar (BD Difco™

Bacto™) plates at 28°C for 2 d to 3 d prior to inoculation into liquid YPD to grow strains at 28°C

with constant shaking at 250 rpm to exponential phase growth prior to starting experiments.

N. crassa strains used in this study are listed in Table S2. These strains were derived

from the wild type reference strain FGSC 2489 and obtained from the Fungal Genetics Stock

Center (53, 54). *N. crassa* cells were grown from freezer stocks on Vogel's minimal medium (55)

+ 2% sucrose + 1.5% agar (BD Difco™ Bacto™) slants for 2 d at 28°C in the dark and 4 d at

28°C in constant light. *N. crassa* conidia were harvested from slants with sterile double distilled

H$_2$O for inoculation.

All *R. toruloides* experiments were performed with yeast nitrogen base (YNB) with

NH$_4$SO$_4$ without amino acids (MP Biomedicals) + 12 mM K$_2$HPO$_4$ (Fisher) + 38 mM KH$_2$PO$_4$

(Fisher) + 100 nM Fe(II)SO$_4$ pH 6.2 with the indicated carbon source at 1% w/v with the

exception of coumaric acid and ferulic acid, which were added at a concentration of 0.2% w/v,

and citrate which was added at a concentration of 8.5 mM. All *N. crassa* experiments were

performed using Vogel's minimal medium (55) with 50 mM NH$_4$Cl instead of 25 mM NH$_4$NO$_3$

(VMM NH$_4$Cl) and the indicated carbon source at 1% w/v. Carbon sources used are listed in

Table S3.

R. toruloides and N. crassa growth experiments

R. toruloides colonies were inoculated into liquid YPD and grown at 28°C with constant

shaking at 250 rpm to exponential phase. Cells were then washed and inoculated into 750 μL of

the indicated media in 48-well plates at 0.01 OD600/mL or 0.1 OD600/mL, except for the growth

curve in Fig S6D, which was inoculated at 0.5 OD600/mL as measured by an Eppendorf

BioPhotometer with a 10 mm path length. Plates were incubated at 28°C with constant shaking

(3 mm orbit, 600 rpm for individual time points and 3 mm orbit, 425 rpm for kinetic growth

experiments). Growth was measured as OD600 on an Agilent BioTek Synergy HTX for

individual time points or an Agilent BioTek Epoch2 for kinetic growth experiments. For details

see SI Materials and Methods.

N. crassa conidia were inoculated into either 100 mL of liquid VMM NH$_4$Cl with the

indicated carbon source in 250 mL flasks or 3 mL of liquid VMM NH$_4$Cl with the indicated carbon

source in round-bottomed, deep-well 24-well plates. After 24 h (flasks) or 7-10 d (24-well plates)

biomass was harvested, dried for 24 h in a 60°C drying oven, and weighed. For details see SI

Materials and Methods.

Phylogenetic tree generation

The Basic Local Alignment Search Tool for proteins (BLASTP) was used to identify

homologs of CLR-1, CLR-2, and XLR-1 from *N. crassa* (OR74A) and ClrA, ClrB, and XlnR from

Aspergillus nidulans (A4) in the proteomes of *N. crassa*, *A. nidulans*, *S. cerevisiae* (S288C)*,* and

R. toruloides (IFO 0880). CLR-1, CLR-2, and XLR-1 from *N. crassa* (OR74A) and ClrA, ClrB,

and XlnR from *A. nidulans* (A4) protein sequences were obtained from Mycocosm (56).

Homologs with E < 10^{-10} were aligned via MUSCLE (57) in MEGA11 (58) and the phylogenetic

tree was generated using FastTree (59) using the maximum likelihood method based on the

Jones-Taylor-Thornton matrix-based model and visualized in MEGA11. The reliability of each

split in the tree was computed using the Shimodaira-Hasegawa test on three alternate

topologies around that split. Trees were visualized in MEGA11 (58) and rooted on the midpoint.

Microscopy

Fluorescent microscopy was performed using a Nikon Eclipse Ti2-E inverted microscope

equipped with a prime BSI express CMOS camera using a CFI Plan Apochromat 100X oil

objective. For details see SI Materials and Methods.

RNA sequencing and transcript abundance

Flasks containing 100 mL of YNB without a carbon source or YNB with the indicated

carbon source were inoculated with the indicated exponentially growing cells at 0.1 OD600/mL

(measured by an Eppendorf BioPhotometer). Culture conditions and sequencing methods for

each dataset are summarized in Table S4. Cells were harvested and flash frozen in liquid N_2.

RNA was extracted using the Quick-RNA Fungal/Bacterial Miniprep Kit (Zymo), followed by

either treatment with the TURBO DNA-free kit (Invitrogen) for standard RNAseq or DNase I

treatment (NEB) and purification with the Monarch® Spin RNA Cleanup Kit (NEB) for 3'RNAseq.

Standard RNAseq was performed at the California Institute for Quantitative Biosciences at the

University of California Berkeley (QB3-Berkeley) on an Illumina NextSeq 2000 with 150 bp

paired end reads. 3'RNAseq was performed at the Biotechnology Resource Center at Cornell

University on an Illumina NovaSeqX with 150 bp paired end reads.

Reads were aligned to the *R. toruloides* IFO 0880 genome (v4) (11). For standard

RNAseq, transcript abundance (transcripts per million, TPM) was quantified using Salmon v.

1.10.0 (60). For 3'RNAseq, reads were aligned using STAR v. 2.7.11b (61), counted with HTSeq

v. 2.0.9 (62), and counts per million (CPM) values were calculated by dividing counts for a gene

by total counts for the sample and multiplying by 10^6. The GFF file used to analyze 3'RNAseq

data is available in Dataset S7. Differential expression was determined using DESeq2 v. 1.50.1

(63). RNAseq data were deposited in the Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) at the National

Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) and are accessible through GEO series accession

numbers GSE293943 (64) (standard RNAseq) and GSE313844 (65) (3'RNAseq). For details

see SI Materials and Methods.

Functional enrichment analysis

KEGG and GO enrichment analyses were performed using the enricher function of the

clusterProfiler R package v. 4.18.1 with Benjamini-Hochberg multiple hypothesis testing

correction (66). For details see SI Materials and Methods.

Reverse transcription quantitative PCR

To measure *BGL1* expression, wild type cells were exposed to the indicated carbon
source in 100 mL of the indicated media in 250 mL flasks and incubated at 28°C with shaking at
200 rpm for the indicated length of time. Cells were harvested, flash frozen in liquid N_2, and RNA
was purified as described above. RT-qPCR was performed using the Luna$^®$ Universal One-Step
RT-qPCR Kit (NEB) on a CFX96^{TM} Real-Time System (Bio-Rad). For details see SI Materials
and Methods.

β-glucosidase enzyme activity assays

β-glucosidase activity was measured using p-nitrophenyl-β-D-glucopyranoside (EMD
Millipore Corp.). For details see SI Materials and Methods.

Spent media growth assays

Filtered supernatants of wild type cells growing in YNB 1% glucose, YNB 1% cellobiose,
or YNB 1% succinate were added to YNB lacking a carbon source or YNB 1% cellobiose at the
indicated concentration. The indicated strains were inoculated into this media at 0.01 OD600/mL
(measured by an Eppendorf BioPhotometer) in 750 μL in 48-well plates and incubated at 28ºC
with shaking at 600 rpm (3 mm orbit). For details see SI Materials and Methods.

Statistical significance tests

All statistical analyses were performed in Rstudio (v2025.09.2+418; R v4.5.2) using
either a one-way or two-way ANOVA with a Tukey post-hoc test (bar graphs), a Welch's two-
sample *t*-test (bar graphs), or a general linear model with post-hoc analysis using the emmeans
function of the emmeans R package (67) with a holm multiple comparison correction (line

graphs). Statistical significance for differential expression of RNAseq data was determined using

DESeq2 (63). All experiments were performed with a minimum of three biological replicates.

Data availability

Raw RNAseq data is available in GEO at the NCBI through accession numbers

GSE293943 (64) (standard RNAseq) and GSE313844 (65) (3'RNAseq). Processed RNAseq

data is available in Datasets S1-S6. The numerical values used to generate all other graphs are

in Dataset S9. Strains constructed in this study are available upon request.

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811   Means.

FIGURES

Fig 1. *CBR1* (RTO4_13588) is involved in utilization of cellobiose, TCA cycle

intermediates, and fucose. (A) Protein sequences of *N. crassa* CLR-2 and *Aspergillus*

nidulans ClrB homologs were used to build a phylogenetic tree using the maximum likelihood

method based on the Jones-Taylor-Thornton matrix-based model using FastTree (59). Numbers

at nodes indicate the reliability of each split in the tree as computed using the Shimodaira-

Hasegawa test on three alternate topologies around that split with 1,000 resamples. *R.*

toruloides proteins are indicated with maroon diamonds. *N. crassa* proteins are indicated with

orange squares. *A. nidulans* proteins are indicated with green circles. *S. cerevisiae* proteins are

indicated with blue triangles. **(B)** Growth curves (OD600) of the indicated strains grown in YNB

with the indicated carbon source at 1% except for citrate which was at 8.5 mM. Lines are the

average and bars or colored bands are the standard deviation of three biological replicates. *p_{adj}

$< 10^{-4}$ and **$p_{adj} < 10^{-10}$ for *cbr1*Δ vs wild type (WT) and *cbr1*Δ vs *cbr1*Δ + *CBR1* as determined

by pairwise comparisons of estimated marginal means with a holm multiple comparison

correction.

Fig 2. Cbr1 regulates a core regulon of five genes. (**A-D**) Scatterplots of the $\log_2$(average

expression) of all genes in wild type (WT) cells versus the $\log_2$(fold change) in gene expression

in *cbr1Δ* relative to wild type cells when cells were exposed to (**A**) cellobiose, (**B**) succinate, (**C**)

media lacking a carbon source, or (**D**) fucose. Genes with $p_{adj} < 0.05$ are indicated in red or blue

if they had higher or lower expression in *cbr1Δ* cells than wild type cells, respectively. Genes

differentially expressed by a least four-fold in at least three of the four conditions (*CBR1* core

regulon) are circled in orange and labeled with their protein IDs. Genes in grey were not

significantly differentially expressed in *cbr1Δ* relative to wild type cells. Black dotted lines

indicate four-fold differential expression. Standard RNAseq (**A-C**) was used to determine gene

expression in transcripts per million (TPM) and fold change during exposure to cellobiose,

succinate, and carbon starvation. 3'RNAseq (**D**) was used to determine gene expression in

counts per million (CPM) and fold change during exposure to fucose. (**E**) Genes expressed at

least four-fold lower in *cbr1Δ* cells for each carbon source were tested for Kyoto Encyclopedia of

Genes and Genomes (KEGG) (29) (left) and gene ontology (GO) (30, 31) (right) functional

category enrichment. Comparisons were only displayed if they had at least one statistically

significantly enriched category for each analysis. Dot color represents the number of genes

differentially expressed belonging to a given category. Dot size represents the percent of genes

belonging to a given category that were differentially expressed relative to all genes in that

category. The text of GO biological process and molecular function categories are colored black

and red, respectively. The expression of *CBR1* was left out of the scatterplots, KEGG, and GO

enrichment analyses, since the change in expression of this gene was due to its deletion in the

cbr1Δ strain.

Fig 3. Cbr1-dependent expression of secreted β-glucosidase genes *BGL1* (RTO4_16717)

and *BGL2* (RTO4_16716) is necessary for cellobiose utilization. (**A-B**) Growth (OD600) of

the indicated strains in the indicated carbon sources. (**C**) β-glucosidase activity secreted by the

indicated strains into culture supernatants after 20 h growth on the indicated carbon sources. β-

glucosidase activity is normalized to the β-glucosidase activity of wild type (WT) cells grown on

cellobiose. Corresponding growth (OD600) at time of supernatant harvest is in Fig S6B. (**D**)

BGL1 expression of wild type cells exposed to the indicated carbon source for 4 h relative to

BGL1 expression during exposure to cellobiose for 4 h. (**E-F**) Normalized growth (OD600) of the

indicated strains in 1% cellobiose supplemented with the indicated percentage of spent

supernatant from wild type cells grown in (**E**) 1% cellobiose, or (**F**) 1% succinate. To account for

growth due to nutrients remaining in the supplemented supernatant, growth was normalized by

subtracting the growth of each replicate on media lacking a carbon source supplemented with

the same concentration of spent supernatant. Growth curves without normalization, the growth

of cells in media without a carbon source supplemented with spent supernatants, and the β-

glucosidase activity present in the spent supernatants are in Fig S7. Lines are the average and

bars or colored bands are the standard deviation of at least three biological replicates in **A**, **B**, **E**,

and **F**. Bars are the average and dots are the individual data points of at least three biological

replicates in **C** and **D**. In **A** and **B**, colored stars indicate a significant difference in growth of the

respectively colored strain compared to wild type cells and, when applicable, the respective

complement strain. In **E** and **F**, colored stars indicate a significant difference in growth of the

respectively colored strain compared to growth of that strain with no supplemented supernatant.

*p_{adj} < 0.05 and **p_{adj} < 10^{-7} as determined by either (**A**, **B**, **E**, and **F**) pairwise comparisons of

estimated marginal means with a holm multiple comparison correction, (**C**) a two-way ANOVA

with a TukeyHSD post-hoc test, or (**D**) a one-way ANOVA with a TukeyHSD post-hoc test.

Fig 4. *CBR1*-mediated transcriptional response to cellobiose is dependent on secreted β-

glucosidases. (**A-C**) Scatterplots of the $\log_2$(average expression) of all genes in (**A-B**) wild type

(WT) or (**C**) *cbr1Δ* cells versus the $\log_2$(fold change) in gene expression for the indicated

comparison when cells were exposed to cellobiose as measured by 3'RNAseq. Genes with p_{adj}

< 0.05 are indicated in red or blue if they had higher or lower expression, respectively, in (**A and**

C) *bgl1Δ bgl2Δ* cells or (**B**) *cbr1Δ* cells. The genes in the *CBR1* core regulon are circled in

orange and labeled with their respective protein IDs. The expression of *CBR1*, *BGL1,* and *BGL2*

were left out of the scatterplots involving their respective deletion strains. (**D**) *BGL1* expression

in wild type cells exposed to carbon starvation for 1 h followed by exposure to the indicated

concentrations of cellobiose or 2-deoxyglucose (2-DG) as the sole carbon source for 1 h or 4 h.

Expression values were normalized to the average expression of *BGL1* on no carbon for each

timepoint and $\log_2$ transformed. Bars are the average and dots are the values of three biological

replicates. *p_{adj} < 0.05 relative to the no carbon condition for the respective time point, as

determined by two-way ANOVA with a TukeyHSD post-hoc test.

Fig 5. *TCT1* (RTO4_13825) is required for citrate utilization. (**A**) Growth (OD600) of the

indicated strains in YNB 1% glucose or 8.5 mM citrate. Lines are the average and bars are the

standard deviation of at least three biological replicates. *$p_{adj} < 10^{-7}$ of *cbr1Δ* vs wild type (WT),

tct1Δ vs WT, and *tct1Δ* vs *tct1Δ* + *TCT1* as determined by pairwise comparisons of estimated

marginal means with a holm multiple comparison correction. (**B**) Heatmap of the $\log_2$(fold

change) in the expression of genes at least four-fold differentially expressed in one or more of

the indicated comparisons when cells were exposed to citrate as the sole carbon source, as

measured by 3'RNAseq. Orange bars to the right of the heatmap indicate significance using the

criteria of $p_{adj} < 0.05$ and at least four-fold change in expression, while grey bars indicate genes

that do not meet those criteria in the indicated comparison (N.S., not significant). The

expression of *CBR1* and *TCT1* were left out of the heatmaps since changes in expression were

due to their respective deletions in the *cbr1Δ* and *tct1Δ* strains.

Fig 6. Cbr1 inhibits carbon catabolite repression during glucose-glucose disaccharide

utilization. (**A**) Growth (OD600) of wild type (WT) cells in 1% cellobiose supplemented with the

indicated concentration of 2-deoxyglucose (2-DG). (**B-F**) Growth of the indicated strains on the

indicated carbon sources with the indicated concentration of 2-DG or allyl alcohol (AA). Lines

are the average and bars are the standard deviation of at least three biological replicates. *p_{adj} <

0.01 and **p_{adj} < 10^{-4} for (**A**) 1% cellobiose supplemented with the indicated 2-DG concentration

vs 1% cellobiose or (**B-F**) *cbr1Δ* vs WT and *cbr1Δ* vs *cbr1Δ + CBR1* as determined by pairwise

comparisons of estimated marginal means with a holm multiple comparison correction.

916
Fig 7. Model for Cbr1-mediated regulation of cellobiose, TCA cycle intermediate, and

fucose utilization and carbon catabolite repression. Cbr1 is activated by the presence of a

low glucose concentration, fucose, and TCA cycle intermediates or their metabolic derivatives.

Activated Cbr1 induces the expression of genes encoding β-glucosidases, predicted

transporters, and a predicted phosphoglycerate mutase. The Cbr1-regulated predicted

transporter gene *TCT1* is required for citrate utilization. Tct1 is placed at the plasma membrane

in this model, but the localization of Tct1 is currently unknown and should be the subject of

future studies. Transporters for other TCA cycle intermediates and fucose are unknown. The β-

glucosidase genes *BGL1* and *BGL2* encode secreted β-glucosidases that cleave cellobiose into

two glucose molecules. *BGL1* is required for growth on cellobiose. A high glucose concentration

activates carbon catabolite repression, which represses β-glucosidase gene expression and

likely represses the expression of genes necessary to utilize fucose and TCA cycle

intermediates. Cbr1 plays a role in inhibiting carbon catabolite repression, specifically when a

glucose-glucose disaccharide is present as the nonpreferred carbon source.