

Respond to the reviewers' comments by entering text into the text boxes provided. Read More ... Submit a Revision View and Respond to Save and Continue Decision Letter Type, Title, **Decision Letter** & Abstract Wageningen, December 1, 2014 Attributes MPP-OA-14-274 Authors & "The <i>Penicillium digitatum</i> protein <i>O</i>-Mannosyltransferase Pmt2 is required for cell wall **Institutions** integrity, conidiogenesis, virulence and sensitivity to the antifungal peptide PAF26" Details & Harries, Eleonora; Gandía, Mónica; Carmona, Lourdes; Marcos, Jose F. Comments File Upload Dear Dr. Marcos, Review & Thank you for submitting your manuscript to Molecular Plant Pathology. It has now been reviewed and the Submit comments of the reviewer(s) are included at the bottom of this letter. The reviewer(s) have recommended publication, but also suggest some minor revisions which I believe would improve your manuscript. Therefore, I invite you to respond to the reviewer(s)' comments and submit a revised version of your manuscript. Please use the link below to submit your revision https://mc.manuscriptcentral.com/mpp?URL_MASK=e1f672fad1434c6da1add0d06654879a Your manuscript number will be appended to denote a revision. You are unable to make revisions to the original version of the manuscript. Instead, please create a new version and highlight the changes within your manuscript by using the track changes mode in MS Word or by using bold or coloured text. Once the revised manuscript is prepared, you can upload it and submit it through your Author Center. IMPORTANT: Your original files are available to you when you upload your revised manuscript. Please delete any redundant files before completing the submission. When submitting your revised manuscript, you will be able to respond to the comments made by the reviewer(s) in the space provided. You can use this space to document any changes you make to the original manuscript. In order to expedite the processing of the revised manuscript, please be as specific as possible in your response to the reviewer(s). At Molecular Plant Pathology we try to minimise the time between submission and publication. Your revised manuscript should be resubmitted as soon as possible. If you are unable to submit your revision in a reasonable amount of time, we may have to consider your paper as a new submission. Once again, thank you for submitting your manuscript to Molecular Plant Pathology and I look forward to receiving your revision. Sincerely, Gert HJ Kema Senior Editor, Molecular Plant Pathology gert.kema@wur.nl Reviewer(s)' comments: Referee: 1 Comments to the Author The current work is aimed at identification and characterization the function of pmt genes in Penicillium digitatum as far as its effect on cell wall integrity, morphogenesis, virulence and sensitivity to anti-fungal protein PAF26.

Overall, this work is very well written and results are presented adequately. The findings are very interesting and shed light on the role of protein O–Mannosyltransferase in the biology of P. digitatum. Except for minor comments, mainly in the material and methods sections, that are indicated directly in the text, this reviewers finds the manuscript in good shape and recommend its acceptance.

Referee: 2

Comments to the Author

This works shows the effect of PMT genes of Penicillium digitatum, specifically pmt2, on fungal growth and virulence on citrus fruit.

The subject is quite original and the information obtained could be useful for a future management of this disease by using antifungal peptide as PAF26. This basic research provides new and interesting information to understand the role of some of these Pmts on virulence factor of fungal postharvest pathogens. The structure is consistent with that required by the journal.

In general, the methodology is appropriate and can achieve the objectives of the work. However, some section are explanting too much details (construction of plasmids vector, transformation, ...) and other not enough (Infection assays: variety of oranges? Harvest season? Quality parameter of fruit? Many works on fruit have demonstrated the important of quality parameter of fruit to evaluate the pathogenity of postharvest diseases. How did you made wounds? How did you evaluate conidiation index? Statistical analysis to virulence assays: Show mean \pm SD is not enough (fig 7)!

In general, results are well presented and maintain a logical and appropriate sequence. However, statistical analysis is not rather adequate; For example, from relative expression results obtained in Fig 3 you chose pmt2 to continue your work; however the relative expression of both pmt2 and pmt4 at 4 pdi in (A) experiment is equal, but this behaviour was not repeated at (B) experiment. Do you believe that from these results is consistent enough to continue your study only with pmt2 and not pmt4?

The discussion can take advantage of all the results obtained by you and achieve a good discussion related to the experience of other authors.

The manuscript is generally well written, with prior literature cited and discussed extensively and appropriately.

Only some minor aspects such as some aspects on statistical analyses and additional information on experimental procedures will be needed.

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Molecular Plant Pathology

The *Penicillium digitatum* protein *O*–Mannosyltransferase Pmt2 is required for cell wall integrity, conidiogenesis, virulence and sensitivity to the antifungal peptide PAF26

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The *Penicillium digitatum* protein *O*–Mannosyltransferase Pmt2 is required for cell wall integrity, conidiogenesis, virulence and sensitivity to the antifungal peptide PAF26. ELEONORA HARRIES[§], MÓNICA GANDÍA, LOURDES CARMONA, AND JOSE F. MARCOS* Departamento de Ciencia de los Alimentos, Instituto de Agroquímica y Tecnología de Alimentos (IATA), CSIC. Avda. Agustín Escardino-7. Paterna. 46980 Valencia. Spain [§]Present address: Laboratorio de Sanidad Vegetal, CONICET - EEA INTA Salta. Ruta Nacional 68 km 172 (4403) Cerrillos. Salta. Argentina *To whom correspondence should be sent: Dr. Jose F. Marcos. IATA-CSIC. Avenida Agustín Escardino - 7. Paterna. 46980 Valencia. Spain. e-mail: jmarcos@iata.csic.es. Tel: (34)963.900.022. **Running title:** *P. digitatum* protein glycosylation and virulence

Keywords: *Penicillium digitatum*, protein glycosylation, postharvest decay, citrus fruit, cell wall, antifungal peptides.

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SUMMARY

2	The activity of protein O-mannosyltransferases (Pmt) affects the
3	morphogenesis and virulence of fungal pathogens. PMT genes have been
4	recently shown to determine the sensitivity of Saccharomyces cerevisiae to the
5	antifungal peptide PAF26. This study reports the identification and
6	characterisation of the three Pdpmt genes in the citrus postharvest pathogen
7	Penicillium digitatum. The Pdpmt genes are expressed during fungal growth
8	and fruit infection, with the highest induction for Pdpmt2. Pdpmt2 complemented
9	the growth defect of the S. cerevisiae $\Delta pmt2$ strain. The Pdpmt2 gene mutation
10	in <i>P. digitatum</i> caused pleiotropic effects, including the reduction of fungal
11	growth and virulence, while its constitutive expression had no phenotypic effect.
12	The Pdpmt2 null mutants also showed a distinctive colourless phenotype with a
13	strong reduction in the number of conidia, which was associated with severe
14	alterations in the development of conidiophores. Additional effects of the
15	Pdpmt2 mutation were hyphal morphological alterations, increased sensitivity to
16	cell wall-interfering compounds, and a blockage of invasive growth. In contrast,
17	the Pdpmt2 mutation increased tolerance to oxidative stress and to the
18	antifungal activity of PAF26. These data confirm the role of protein O-
19	glycosylation in the PAF26-mediated antifungal mechanism present in distant
20	fungal species. Important to future crop protection strategies, this study
21	demonstrates that a mutation rendering fungi more resistant to an antifungal
22	peptide results in severe deleterious effects on fungal growth and virulence.

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23 INTRODUCTION

Protein glycosylation is a post-translational modification conserved in organisms from yeasts to humans (Lehle et al., 2006). The modification consists of the attachment of different glycan structures to specific proteins, either at an asparagine residue (N-glycosylation) or at serine or threonine residues (O-glycosylation). In fungi, protein glycosylation contributes to the function of proteins involved in important processes such as cell wall (CW) integrity. sensing environmental signals, morphogenesis and the virulence of fungal pathogens (Gentzsch and Tanner, 1996; Prill et al., 2005; Olson et al., 2007; Zhou et al., 2007; Fernández-Álvarez et al., 2012).

Protein O-mannosyltransferases (Pmts) catalyse the first step in protein O-mannosylation, transferring mannose to the hydroxyl groups of serine/threonine residues in the nascent protein chain at the lumen of the endoplasmic reticulum (Loibl and Strahl, 2013). Pmts have been identified in prokaryotes, fungi and animals but appear to be absent in plants (Girrbach and Strahl, 2003; Loibl and Strahl, 2013), which makes them a potential target for antifungal strategies in plant protection (Fernández-Álvarez et al., 2009; González et al., 2013). In the budding yeast Saccharomyces cerevisiae there are six Pmts divided in the Pmt1, Pmt2 and Pmt4 subfamilies, which differ in the number of genes in each and protein substrate specificity (Gentzsch and Tanner, 1996; Girrbach and Strahl, 2003; Loibl and Strahl, 2013). The Pmt1 and Pmt2 subfamilies are redundant, and their members form heterodimers, while Pmt4 is a single member subfamily and acts as a homodimer. The PMT genes in S. cerevisiae are not individually essential for viability, likely due to gene redundancy,

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47 although several combinations of double mutants are lethal (Gentzsch and
48 Tanner, 1996; Loibl and Strahl, 2013).

In the fission yeast Schizosaccharomyces pombe or in filamentous fungi such as Aspergillus nidulans, the human pathogen Aspergillus fumigatus, or the plant pathogens Ustilago maydis and Botrytis cinerea, only one member for each Pmt subfamily has been identified (Oka et al., 2004; Willer et al., 2005; Fernández-Álvarez et al., 2009; Goto et al., 2009; Mouyna et al., 2010; González et al., 2013). Importantly, the pmt2 subfamily is essential for the viability of several fungi studied so far. The requirement of *pmt* genes in fungal pathogenesis is variable and depends on the specific pathosystem. Both *pmt1* and *pmt4* of the human pathogens *Candida albicans* and *Cryptococcus* neoformans are necessary for virulence to varying degrees (Timpel et al., 1998; Prill et al., 2005; Olson et al., 2007; Willger et al., 2009). In contrast, mutants in either *pmt1* or *pmt4* of *A. fumigatus* are as virulent as the parental strain in a murine model (Zhou et al., 2007; Mouyna et al., 2010). In U. maydis, only the disruption of *pmt4* specifically affected appressorium formation, penetration and tumour formation in maize, while *pmt1* disruption was dispensable for plant infection (Fernández-Álvarez et al., 2009). In B. cinerea, the three pmt genes including *pmt2* are required for the pathogenesis of different plants and plant organs (González et al., 2013).

Penicillium digitatum causes the citrus fruit green mould disease and 68 contributes up to 5-10 % of postharvest losses in the main fruit tree crop in the 69 world. *P. digitatum* is a necrotroph and a wound pathogen that requires a pre-70 existing injured fruit peel to penetrate and infect. Despite this rather unspecific

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71	infection mechanism, P. digitatum exhibits an exquisite and high degree of host
72	specificity. The most common method to control P. digitatum is the postharvest
73	application of fungicides, but their continued use has a negative impact on
74	human health and the environment and has increased the appearance of
75	resistance isolates. The economic interest in <i>P. digitatum</i> has promoted the use
76	of molecular and genetic tools to characterise the fruit-fungus interaction
77	(González-Candelas et al., 2010; Ballester et al., 2011; Buron-Moles et al.,
78	2012) and fungal pathogenicity (Wang and Li, 2008; Zhang et al., 2013a; Zhang
79	et al., 2013b; Gandía et al., 2014). These efforts are exemplified in the recent
80	release of the genome sequence of three strains (Marcet-Houben et al., 2012;
81	Sun <i>et al.</i> , 2013).

Antimicrobial peptides (AMPs) are promising alternatives to control pathogens in plant protection (Marcos et al., 2008). PAF26 belongs to the cationic and tryptophan-rich PAF series of synthetic peptides (López-García et al., 2000). PAF26 is a hexapeptide that inhibits the growth of filamentous fungi including P. digitatum and is effective in controlling citrus fruit infection (Muñoz et al., 2007a). Previous studies with the model fungi S. cerevisiae and Neurospora crassa have revealed insights into the mode of PAF26 antifungal action (Muñoz et al., 2012; Muñoz et al., 2013b). PAF26 is a cell penetrating antifungal peptide that first interacts with the fungal cell envelope and then translocates to the cell interior where it kills the fungal cell (reviewed in Muñoz et al., 2013a). In S. cerevisiae, PAF26 treatment induces genes encoding highly glycosylated CW proteins (López-García et al., 2010), and the disruption of protein N- and O-glycosylation genes results in enhanced tolerance to PAF26 (Harries et al., 2013).

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2		
2 3 4	96	In this study, the identification and characterisation of <i>pmt</i> genes from
5	97	P. digitatum was conducted. One member from each pmt1, pmt2 and pmt4
7 8	98	subfamily was identified and shown to be expressed during fungal growth and
9 10	99	citrus infection. The study reports the functional characterisation of Pdpmt2 in
11 12	100	P. digitatum and its requirement for fungal growth, virulence and sensitivity to
13 14 15 16	101	PAF26.
17 18 19 20	102	RESULTS
21 22 23 24	103	Identification and sequence analysis of Pmts in <i>P. digitatum</i>
25 26	104	The Pdpmt1 (GenBank accession number KC757712), Pdpmt2 (KC757713)
27 28	105	and Pdpmt4 (KC757714) genes each encode a putative protein O-
29 30	106	mannosyltransferase and were identified in a <i>P. digitatum</i> genomic library,
31 32	107	similarly to chitin synthase genes (<i>chs</i>) (Gandía <i>et al.</i> , 2012). The total mRNA
33 34 25	108	was reverse transcribed, and the corresponding cDNAs were cloned. The
36 37	109	coding sequences of the three genomic sequences and cDNAs show homology
38 39	110	to other fungal Pmt and belong to the Pmt1, 2 and 4 subfamilies, respectively.
40 41	111	BLASTP searches identified the three Pmts in the recently reported P. digitatum
42 43	112	genomes (Marcet-Houben et al., 2012). Our deduced PdPmt1 and PdPmt4
44 45	113	proteins contain 937 and 776 amino acid residues and are identical to
46 47 48	114	PDIG_19890 and PDIG_11480, respectively, which are annotated as putative
49 50	115	protein mannosyltransferases in the P. digitatum PHI26 genome. In contrast,
51 52	116	the amino acid sequence of PdPmt2 differed from the annotated PDIG_43220.
53 54	117	Our cDNA analysis found changes in the intron position, explaining the
55 56 57 58	118	difference between PDIG_43220 (737 aa) and PdPmt2 (744 aa).

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119	The assignment of these identified genes as protein O-
120	mannosyltransferases was further confirmed by phylogenetic re-construction
121	with homologous fungal genes (Supporting Fig. S1). The predicted amino acid
122	sequences showed the presence of the two characteristic domains of the Pmt
123	family (Supporting Fig. S2): the PMT domain required for
124	O-mannosyltransferase activity and the mannosyltransferase IP3 ryanodine
125	receptor domain (MIR) composed of three sub-motifs. In addition, the three
126	proteins showed potential N-glycosylation sites, while only the larger PdPmt1
127	sequence has potential O-glycosylation sites located at the C-terminus.
128	Functional complementation was conducted to confirm the identity of the
129	<i>Pdpmt</i> genes. The <i>S. cerevisiae pmt</i> mutants, particularly Δpmt^2 , have defects
130	in CW and exhibit increased sensitivity to the chitin binding fluorophore
131	calcofluor white (CFW) (Harries et al., 2013; Loibl and Strahl, 2013). We tested
132	whether the P. digitatum genes complemented the growth defect in the
133	presence of CFW in the S. cerevisiae pmt mutants. Reliable data were only
134	obtained with S. cerevisiae $\Delta pmt2$ (Fig. 1). Pdpmt2 restored the growth of this
135	yeast mutant under induction conditions (the presence of galactose). In
136	contrast, complementation was not observed in transformants obtained with
137	Pdpmt1 or Pdpmt4, which demonstrates that Pdpmt2 is a functional ortholog of
138	S. cerevisiae PMT2.
	 119 120 121 122 123 124 125 126 127 128 129 130 131 132 133 134 135 136 137 138

Characterisation of Pdpmt gene expression

The changes in *Pdpmt* gene expression were analysed by qRT-PCR during
axenic growth and fungal infection of citrus fruit. The three *pmt* genes were
expressed during growth in liquid PDB and PDA plates. First, the expression

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2 3 4	143	among the three Pdpmt genes was compared. The absolute quantification of
4 5 6	144	the molar concentrations of <i>pmt</i> -specific cDNAs was conducted. <i>Pdpmt4</i>
7 8	145	showed the lowest expression and was used as the reference to quantify the
9 10	146	expression of the other <i>pmt</i> genes (Fig. 2A). <i>Pdpmt1</i> was the most highly
11 12	147	expressed and was twenty-fold higher than Pdpmt4 and ten-fold higher than
13 14 15 16	148	Pdpmt2.
17 18	149	A statistically significant increase in the Pdpmt2 and Pdpmt4 mRNA levels
19 20	150	was observed during submerged growth of mycelium in PDB (Fig. 2B). The
21 22	151	three pmt genes were induced during growth on PDA plates (Fig. 2C) in
23 24 25	152	correlation with the production of conidia, which starts at day 2 and reaches
26 27	153	maximum at day 7. The effect on <i>Pdpmt</i> expression under osmotic and
28 29	154	oxidative stress conditions was also analysed. Our data indicate a differential
30 31	155	regulation in the three genes since Pdpmt2 was clearly induced in PDA plates
32 33 34	156	containing 1 mM H_2O_2 or 1.2 M sorbitol while <i>Pdpmt1</i> was repressed (Fig. 2D).
35 36 37	157	The expression of <i>pmt</i> genes during the infection of citrus fruit was
38 39	158	determined in experimental inoculations. Fig. 3 shows the results obtained from
40 41	159	two independent experiments in which fruits from different orchards and
42 43	160	harvesting season were used. None of the three pmt genes were detected at
44 45 46	161	early stages of infection (1 day post-inoculation, dpi). From 2 to 7 dpi, an overall
40 47 48	162	increase in Pdpmt2 and Pdpmt4 mRNA during the infection process was
49 50	163	observed. The induction was more pronounced and statistically significant in
51 52	164	Pdpmt2, which reached 5-10-fold induction at 7 dpi (Fig. 3A and B). This
53 54	165	induction correlated with conidia production on infected fruit, which started at 4-
55 56 57	166	5 dpi (Fig. 3C).

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167	Disruption and constit	utive expression of	f <i>Pdpmt2</i> in <i>F</i>	P. digitatum
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168 Our gene expression results show that *Pdpmt2* is the most responsive of the 169 three *pmt* genes during axenic growth and infection progress. To characterise 170 the functional roles of *Pdpmt2*, we generated *P. digitatum* gene disruption and 171 constitutive expression mutants using *Agrobacterium tumefaciens*-mediated 172 transformation (ATMT).

Gene disruption by homologous recombination was conducted using the pGKO2 vector (Khang et al., 2006) that contains the HSVtk gene as a negative marker to favour the selection of homologous recombinants (Fig. S3). Four independent transformants (PDEH508, PDEH510, PDEH515 and PDE525) with a distinctive phenotype were obtained (see Fig. 4A below). The detailed characterization of transformant PDEH515 is shown (Fig. S3). PDEH515 underwent a homologous recombination event at the Pdpmt2 locus as demonstrated by Southern blot and PCR analyses. As the internal negative control in further experiments, we selected one transformant (PDEH540) with an ectopic integration of the T-DNA.

We obtained transformants for *Pdpmt2* constitutive expression under the strong *gpdA* promoter from *A. nidulans*. Three of them (PDEH58, PDEH59 and PDEH67) were selected for further analysis (Fig. S4). Southern hybridisation showed that PDEH59 is a transformant that harbours multiple copies of the constitutive expression construct. Gene expression studies confirmed that the null PDEH515 mutant did not express *Pdpmt2*; however, PDEH59 displayed six-fold increased expression compared with the parental strain (Fig. S5).

190 The *Pdpmt2* mutation results in growth defects and conidiation deficiency 191 in *P. digitatum*

The *Pdpmt2* mutation affected *P. digitatum* colony morphology (Fig. 4). The mutants showed a white fungal colony contrasting with the typical olive green colour exhibited by the parental strain (Fig. 4A) and grew significantly slower, reaching only ~40 % of the parental diameter (Fig. 4B). This growth defect was almost completely reversed by osmotic stabilisation with 1 M sorbitol (Fig. 4B). In addition, mutants displayed a "fluffy" phenotype, with white cotton-like masses of vegetative cells that suggest conidiation defects. The production of conidia from PDEH515 was severely reduced by three orders of magnitude (Fig. 4C), and obtaining sufficient conidia to perform our experiments was difficult; therefore, 10-12 plates had to be pooled each time. Moreover, the concentrated PDEH515 conidia solutions appeared colourless, and conidia viability dropped much quicker than the parental strain (data not shown). Interestingly, the conidiation defect was not recovered when PDEH515 was grown under osmotic stabilization (Fig. 4C). Due to these phenotypes, we characterised the morphology of PDEH515 by fluorescence microscopy after CFW staining. At early stages of germ tube

208 elongation, the PDEH515 mutant presented more septa, which were intensively

209 stained and had shorter interseptal distances than PHI26 (Fig. 5A). The

- 210 PDEH515 mutant also showed defects in polarity as demonstrated by tip
- 211 dichotomous branching. Older mycelium (24 or 48 h) showed short interseptal
- distances that presented intense CFW staining (Fig. 5B), and dichotomous

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1		
2 3 4	213	apical ends, in which the presence of CW thickening and globular balloon-like
5 6 7	214	structures was common (see higher magnification images in Fig. 5B).
8 9	215	The conidiophore structure formed by PDEH515 was also abnormal (Fig.
10 11	216	5C). Typical phialides (p, Fig. 5C) above metulaes (m) observed in the PHI26
12 13	217	strain were difficult to distinguish in the mutant. PDEH515 only showed cells
14 15 16	218	resembling elongated phialides at a number lower than the parental strain.
17 18	219	Putative phialides had at most 1-2 small round cells at the tip with intense CFW
19 20	220	staining, which likely correspond to the few conidia produced by this mutant. In
21 22	221	PDEH515, the long conidia strings common in the parental strain were not
23 24	222	observed. The microscopy characterisation of the constitutive expressors and
25 26 27	223	the PDEH540 transformant did not reveal any of these defects (data not
28 29	224	shown). Overall, these results demonstrate that Pdpmt2 is required for normal
30 31	225	mycelial growth and conidiation in <i>P. digitatum.</i>
32 33		
34 35	226	Effects of the <i>Pdpmt2</i> deletion on the sensitivity of PDEH515 to diverse
36 37	227	compounds and stresses
38 39	228	We examined the sensitivity of the transformants to different compounds.
40 41		
42 43	229	PDEH515 had increased sensitivity to CW-damaging agents such as CFW or
44	230	Congo red (CR) and to the cell membrane destabilising compound sodium
45 46 47	231	dodecyl sulphate (SDS), indicating a defective CW (Fig. S6). None of the
48 49	232	constitutive expression transformants showed changes in susceptibility to these
50 51 52	233	compounds (data not shown).
52 53 54	234	The $\Delta pmt2$ mutant of <i>S. cerevisiae</i> is tolerant to the antifungal peptide
55 50		
57 58 59 60	235	PAF26 (Harries et al., 2013). The sensitivity of <i>Pdpmt2</i> transformants to PAF26

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236	activity was tested in two different assays (Fig. 6). PDEH515 was able to grow
237	on agarose solid medium containing 32 μ M PAF26, while the parental strain
238	and the constitutive expressors were not able to grow on this medium (Fig. 6A).
239	Dose-response curves in liquid culture confirmed the higher tolerance of
240	PDEH515 (Fig. 6B). Specifically, PAF26 had an IC $_{50}$ of 1.8 μM and a minimal
241	inhibitory concentration (MIC) of 4 μM against the parental strain, while PAF26
242	concentrations as high as 32 μM did not reduce PDEH515 growth after 48 h of
243	culture.

Pdpmt2 is required for *P. digitatum* full virulence against citrus fruit

Fruit inoculation assays were performed to analyse the role of Pdpmt2 in pathogenicity and virulence. At a high inoculum dose (10⁵ conidia mL⁻¹, Fig. S7), the incidence of infected wounds inoculated with PHI26 increased along time and reached 100 % at 5 dpi. The PDEH540, PDEH59 and PDEH67 strains did not differ significantly from PHI26 in the infection incidence, rate of progression of maceration area and sporulation. However, the Pdpmt2 deletion mutant PDEH515 showed a clear delay in disease progression compared with the other strains. The reduction of disease incidence on fruits infected with PDEH515 was more evident at a lower inoculum dose (10⁴ conidia mL⁻¹) (Fig. 7). In this case, the incidence of disease caused by PHI26 reached only \sim 70 % at 7 dpi, while PDEH515 inoculation resulted in just ~10 % of infected wounds. Lesion diameter measurements evidenced that at early infection (i.e., 2-5 dpi), PDEH515 lesions enlarged slower than the rest of the strains (Fig. 7B and S7B). Significantly, none of the PDEH515-infected wounds showed the typical colouration of the green mould caused by P. digitatum (Fig. 7C and S7D). The

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2 3	260	appearance of white mycelium was rare in the case of PDEH515, and infection
4 5	261	was only noticeable by tissue maceration, even in lesions of size comparable
6 7 8	262	with the lesions caused by PHI26 (Fig. 7C).
9 10 11	263	We explored additional properties of PDEH515 that may be related to the
12 13	264	plant-pathogen interaction. Reactive oxygen species (ROS) are produced by
14 15 16	265	plant tissues in response to pathogen infection. PDEH515 grew better than the
17 18	266	parental strain and the other transformants in the presence of hydrogen
19 20	267	peroxide (H_2O_2) (Fig. 8). Consistent with a role in mediating oxidative stress, the
21 22 23	268	multicopy constitutive expressor PDEH59 had increased susceptibility to H_2O_2 .
24 25	269	An assay for penetration through cellophane membranes (Prados Rosales
26 27 28	270	and Di Pietro, 2008) was used to test the invasive growth capacity of PDEH515
29 30	271	(Fig. 9). Growth of the parental PHI26 strain on the membranes for 3 days was
31 32	272	sufficient to allow penetration through the membranes and the invasion of the
33 34	273	PDA underneath. In contrast, the PDEH515 mutant was unable to penetrate
35 36 37	274	cellophane membranes even after 7 days of growth, demonstrating a blockage
38 39	275	of invasive growth capacity.

DISCUSSION

This study reports the identification of one member of each pmt subfamily in the postharvest pathogen P. digitatum, consistent with reports that showed the existence of only one ortholog for each pmt subfamily in other filamentous fungi and in the fission yeast. Functional analysis by complementation of yeast Δpmt mutants demonstrated that PdPmt2 is orthologous to PMT2 from S. cerevisiae. Both Pmt2 proteins from P. digitatum and S. cerevisiae have 52 % amino acid

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283	identity, the highest identity value between any Pmt from these two fungi. This
284	is the first study that complements a yeast $\Delta pmt2$ mutant and uses CFW
285	sensitivity as a complementation assay. Previous heterologous
286	complementation had been demonstrated for $CaPMT1$ in the $\Delta pmt1$ mutant of
287	S. cerevisiae (Timpel et al., 1998) and for pmt1 and pmt4 U. maydis genes in S.
288	pombe (Fernández-Álvarez et al., 2009). Overall, these findings confirm the
289	functional conservation within each subfamily of <i>pmt</i> genes among distantly
290	related fungi.
291	Detailed characterisation of fundal <i>pmt</i> dene expression has been previously
201	described in A midulane (Oka et al. 2004; Osta et al. 2000). O masfermana
292	described in A. nidulans (Oka et al., 2004; Goto et al., 2009), C. neoformans
293	(Willger et al., 2009), <i>B. cinerea</i> (González et al., 2013) and the yeast <i>C.</i>
294	albicans (Timpel et al., 2000; Prill et al., 2005). Overall, the three pmt
295	subfamilies are all expressed under different growth conditions as is also the
296	case in <i>P. digitatum</i> . Our study adds the comparison of gene expression among
297	the three <i>Pdpmt</i> , which demonstrated that <i>Pdpmt1</i> has the highest expression,
298	one order of magnitude higher than Pdpmt2 or Pdpmt4. Our data also indicate
299	that differential regulation of the three <i>Pdpmt</i> genes exists. For example,
300	Pdpmt2 is the most responsive of the three and is induced during submerged
301	and aerial growth, after osmotic and oxidative stresses, and during fungal
302	infection. In contrast, the <i>pmt4</i> gene of <i>B. cinerea</i> is the most induced during
303	tomato leave infection, while <i>pmt2</i> remains constant or even declines (González
304	et al., 2013). In spite of its high induction, the <i>pmt2</i> deletion in PDEH515 was
305	not compensated by the overexpression of any of the other two genes (Fig. S5),
306	similarly to the findings in the C. neoformans pmt1 and pmt4 mutants (Willger et
307	al., 2009).

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The *Pdpmt2* gene is neccesary for growth, conidiogenesis and cell wall integrity This study demonstrates that the disruption of *pmt2* has a viable phenotype in *P. digitatum*. Viable mutants of the Pmt2 subfamily have also been described in A. nidulans, Aspergillus awamori, B. cinerea and C. neoformans (Oka et al., 2004; Oka et al., 2005; Kriangkripipat and Momany, 2009; González et al., 2013; Shimizu et al., 2014). In the pathogens C. albicans, A. fumigatus, and U. maydis, pmt2 appears to be an essential gene; therefore, the functional significance of null mutations could not be assayed (Prill et al., 2005; Willger et al., 2009; Mouyna et al., 2010). The selection of transformants in our study required osmotic stabilisation likely due to the compromised CW integrity of the mutants. Functional complementation of PDEH515 with the native Pdpmt2 could not be demonstrated because of its low conidia recovery and defective CW, which made the ATMT of this strain not possible after several attempts (data not shown). The PDEH515 mutant displayed a reduction in radial growth and severe morphological defects. Significantly, young germlings showed dichotomous tip branching, suggesting defects in polarity. Early characterisation of polarity

mutants in fungi identified *pmt* genes, as it was the case of the *swoA* mutant in *A. nidulans* (Shaw and Momany, 2002). The reduction of *pmt2* expression in *A*.

fumigatus also demonstrated the involvement of this gene in hyphal polarity
(Fang *et al.*, 2010).

330 The *△pmtA* mutants of *A. nidulans* and *A. awamori* also presented growth
331 reduction and defects in mycelium morphology with balloon-like structures (Oka

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et al., 2004; Oka et al., 2005), similar to our observations with PDEH515. These globular structures have also been described in null chitin synthase gene mutants involved in fungal CW synthesis (Martín-Urdíroz et al., 2008; Gandía et al., 2014). These morphological defects reveal abnormal CW synthesis, producing cell enlargements with altered chitin content. The PDEH515 mutant showed high sensitivity to compounds that target the CW, and the growth defect was reversed with the addition of sorbitol. Studies have revealed that defective protein glycosylation has a negative impact on the sensitivity to CW-interfering compounds and CW integrity, which is restored with the addition of osmotic stabilisers (Gentzsch and Tanner, 1996; Goto et al., 2009; Kriangkripipat and Momany, 2009; Mouyna et al., 2010; González et al., 2013). Our gene expression analysis demonstrated the induction of *Pdpmt2* and *Pdpmt4* expression under osmotic stress (Fig. 3C) and the repression of chs genes (Gandía et al., 2012), indicating that the CW is remodelled under osmotic adaptation, which is likely related to the restoration of PDEH515 growth in the presence of sorbitol. A distinguishable phenotypic characteristic of the PDEH515 mutant was the white colony associated with reduced conidiation and abnormal development of

white colony associated with reduced conidiation and abnormal development of conidiophores. A high induction of *Pdpmt2* was observed during conditions that produce high conidiation such as growth on PDA plates and fruit infection (Fig. 3B and 4). Studies in *A. nidulans* and *A. fumigatus* have also demonstrated a reduction of conidia in *pmt* mutants (Goto et al., 2009; Kriangkripipat and Momany, 2009; Fang et al., 2010; Mouyna et al., 2010). A more extreme phenotype was found in the *B. cinerea* $\Delta pmt2$, which was reported to be completely unable to sporulate (González et al., 2013). The *wetA* mutants of *A*.

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357	nidulans and P. chrysogenum also produce colourless and unstable conidia
358	(Prade and Timberlake, 1994). WetA is a key protein in the regulatory pathway
359	of conidiation and also a serine and threonine-rich (STR) protein with numerous
360	potential O-glycosylation sites. Potentially, the conidiation-related phenotype of
361	PDEH515 could be at least partially a consequence of abnormal WetA
362	glycosylation and function, which affect conidia development. The alteration of
363	PDEH515 conidiophore structure at the very early stages of development (Fig.
364	6C) supports a regulatory effect.

365 Involvement of Pmt in the virulence of *P. digitatum* on citrus fruit

The O-glycosylation of proteins has been linked to the virulence of fungal pathogens of humans and plants (Lengeler et al., 2008; Fernández-Álvarez et al., 2009). The involvement of pmt genes in fungal pathogenesis depends on the specific fungus-host interaction. However, most of the null mutants in pmt genes whose pathogenesis has been studied belong to the Pmt1/Pmt4 subfamilies, due to the difficulties in obtaining viable *pmt2* mutants. We have shown that *Pdpmt2* disruption produces a reduction in virulence and no conidiation on fully infected oranges. The *B. cinerea* △*Bcpmt2* mutant displayed reduced growth and no conidiation in axenic culture as well as defects in the adhesion and penetration to host tissue that are associated with reduced virulence (González et al., 2013). Defective cellular adhesion was also found in the $\Delta pmt4$ mutant of *U. maydis* (Fernández-Álvarez et al., 2012). The slow growth and defective CW of PDEH515 surely limits fruit tissue

colonisation and explains the decrease in virulence. However, the severe

380 reduction of virulence and absence of visible hyphal development on fruit also

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1		
2 3 4	381	indicate that additional factors may be involved. The production of ROS in
5	382	infected citrus fruit is a well characterised host defence response that is
7 8	383	suppressed by <i>P. digitatum</i> during infection (Macarisin et al., 2007). Indeed, our
9 10	384	data revealed that $Pdpmt$ genes are induced by H_2O_2 and indicate that the
11 12	385	absence of any of these genes would reduce fitness under oxidative stress.
13 14	386	Unexpectedly, the contrary result was found, and Pdpmt2 disruption produced a
15 16 17	387	slight increase in tolerance to ROS that goes against an involvement of ROS in
18 19	388	the reduction of virulence of the PDEH515 mutant. Similarly, the inhibition of
20 21	389	plant ROS production did not restore pathogenicity of the U. maydis Apmt4
22 23	390	mutant in maize (Fernández-Álvarez et al., 2009).
24 25		
26 27	391	Most sensor proteins from MAPK (mitogen activated protein kinase)
28 29	392	signalling cascades are cell surface proteins that are glycosylated (Rispail et al.,
30 31	393	2009; Lien <i>et al.</i> , 2013). In fungal pathogens, MAPK pathways control
32 33	394	morphogenesis, disease progression and virulence (Román et al., 2007). Not
34 35	395	surprisingly, the defective glycosylation of sensor proteins affects the
30 37 28	396	pathogenesis of fungal plant pathogens. Msb2 is a STR sensor protein in the
39 40	397	high osmolarity glycerol (HOG) pathway, and its defective glycosylation
41 42	398	activates the pathway constitutively (Tatebayashi et al., 2007; Yang et al.,
43 44	399	2009). In P. digitatum, null mutants of the MAPK Os2/Hog1 have reduced
45 46	400	virulence, indicating that a functional HOG pathway is required for full infection
47 48 40	401	capacity (Wang <i>et al.</i> , 2014). The <i>U. maydis ∆pmt4</i> mutant produced defects in
49 50 51	402	the glycosylation of Msb2, which in this fungus also activates a MAPK involved
52 53	403	in appressorium formation (Fernández-Álvarez et al., 2012). Msb2 also signals
54 55	404	the filamentous and invasive growth pathway in fungi (Román et al., 2007) and
56 57	405	is necessary for the invasive growth and nathogenesis of <i>F</i> oxysporum on
58	700	is necessary for the invasive growth and pathogeneois of r. oxyoporani of

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1		
2 3 1	406	tomato plants (Pérez-Nadales and Di Pietro, 2011). Invasive growth was
5	407	completely blocked in the P. digitatum pmt2 mutant, thus providing additional
7 8 9	408	reasons to explain the reduction of virulence.
10 11	409	Future work will aim to identify the specific CW and surface sensor proteins
12 13	410	that are O-glycosylated by PdPmt2 in <i>P. digitatum</i> and analyse its involvement
14 15 16	411	in morphogenesis, sensitivity to PAF peptides and pathogenesis as well as the
17 18 19	412	cross-talk among these processes.
20 21 22	413	Protein glycosylation genes determine the activity of PAF26 against <i>P.</i>
23 24	414	digitatum and S. cerevisiae
25 26 27	415	In this study, we demonstrated that PDEH515 conidia are tolerant to PAF26.
28 29	416	Our previous results with S. cerevisiae showed enhanced tolerance to PAF26 in
30 31	417	several deletion mutants of protein glycosylation genes, including PMT1-6
32 33 24	418	(Harries et al., 2013). The resistance to PAF26 in S. cerevisiae and P. digitatum
35 36	419	pmt2 mutants demonstrates that protein O-glycosylation has a role in the
37 38	420	antifungal action of this peptide that is conserved between distantly related
39 40	421	fungi. Previous studies, mostly conducted in yeast, have found tolerance to
41 42	422	other antifungal peptides and proteins in protein glycosylation mutants (Ibeas et
43 44 45	423	al., 2000; Koo et al., 2004; Harris et al., 2009), demonstrating that proper
46 47	424	protein glycosylation is required for full activity of a number of antifungal
48 49 50	425	peptides and proteins, including PAF26.
51 52	426	Glycan patterns from CW proteins are proposed to act as docking moieties
53 54	427	for the binding (and therefore activity) of antifungal peptides (Harris et al., 2009;
55 56 57 58	428	Marcos and Gandía, 2009). The deletion of the glycosylated highly abundant

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429	CW protein Flo11 abolished the binding of PAF26 to wine "flor" strains of yeast,
430	which supports this view (Bou Zeidan et al., 2013). The glycosylated domain of
431	Msb2 from <i>C. albicans</i> is capable of binding to the antifungal peptides histatin 5
432	and LL-37, and its release into the medium protects cells by sequestering the
433	peptide (Szafranski-Schneider et al., 2012). PAF104 is a heptapeptide derived
434	from extension of the PAF26 sequence (Muñoz et al., 2007b) that specifically
435	blocks appressorium formation and reduces virulence in the rice blast pathogen
436	Magnaporthe oryzae (Rebollar and López-García, 2013). PAF104 represses the
437	expression of Momsb2, which encodes the glycosylated Msb2 and is involved in
438	the Pmk1/Kss1 MAPK pathway that regulates appressorium formation in <i>M</i> .
439	oryzae (Liu et al., 2011), demonstrating that PAF peptides affect a MAPK
440	pathway involved in a plant-pathogen interaction, fungal penetration and
441	infection. Small antifungal proteins and peptides activate MAPK stress
442	signalling pathways as a response to their antifungal action (Hayes et al., 2014);
443	however, whether PAF26 binding to the cell surface influences the activity of the
444	glycosylated Msb2 and/or MAPK pathways in <i>P. digitatum</i> remains unknown.
445	In summary, this study shows the critical role of <i>Pdpmt2</i> for growth,
446	conidiation and virulence of <i>P. digitatum</i> and demonstrates that <i>Pdpmt2</i>
447	determines the susceptibility to antifungal peptides exemplified by PAF26.
448	Therefore, a gene mutation that increases resistance to an antifungal
449	compound results in detrimental effects to fungal fitness and virulence. This
450	observation is relevant for the future use of antifungal peptides in crop
451	protection.

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Fungal strains and culture conditions

454	The parental strain used was the wild type Penicillium digitatum PHI26
455	(CECT20796), whose genome sequence is available (Marcet-Houben et al.,
456	2012) (WGS project AKCT01). P. digitatum strains were grown at 24 °C either
457	on potato dextrose agar (PDA) (Difco, #213400) plates or in potato dextrose
458	broth (PDB) (Difco, #254920) with shaking. Conidia were collected from plates.
459	To determine colony growth, 5 μL of 1 x 10^5 conidia mL 1 were deposited on
460	PDA plates, and the colony diameter was measured. Conidiation was quantified
461	on plates grown for 12 days. Cellophane invasion assays were performed as
462	previously described (Prados Rosales and Di Pietro, 2008) by placing
463	autoclaved cellophane membranes on PDA plates and depositing conidial
464	suspensions on membranes.
465	Sequence analysis of <i>Pdpmt</i> genes
465 466	Sequence analysis of <i>Pdpmt</i> genes <i>Pdpmt</i> coding sequences were obtained from a <i>P. digitatum</i> fosmid genomic
465 466 467	Sequence analysis of <i>Pdpmt</i> genes <i>Pdpmt</i> coding sequences were obtained from a <i>P. digitatum</i> fosmid genomic library (Gandía et al., 2012), and sequenced by chromosome walking. To
465 466 467 468	Sequence analysis of Pdpmt genes Pdpmt coding sequences were obtained from a P. digitatum fosmid genomic library (Gandía et al., 2012), and sequenced by chromosome walking. To determine the position and size of the introns in each Pdpmt, RNA was
465 466 467 468 469	Sequence analysis of <i>Pdpmt</i> genes <i>Pdpmt</i> coding sequences were obtained from a <i>P. digitatum</i> fosmid genomic library (Gandía et al., 2012), and sequenced by chromosome walking. To determine the position and size of the introns in each <i>Pdpmt</i> , RNA was extracted from the PHI26 strain as reported (Gandía et al., 2012) and reverse
465 466 467 468 469 470	Sequence analysis of Pdpmt genes Pdpmt coding sequences were obtained from a P. digitatum fosmid genomic library (Gandía et al., 2012), and sequenced by chromosome walking. To determine the position and size of the introns in each Pdpmt, RNA was extracted from the PHI26 strain as reported (Gandía et al., 2012) and reverse transcribed using SuperScript III reverse transcriptase (Invitrogen, #18080-044)
465 466 467 468 469 470 471	Sequence analysis of Pdpmt genes Pdpmt coding sequences were obtained from a P. digitatum fosmid genomic library (Gandía et al., 2012), and sequenced by chromosome walking. To determine the position and size of the introns in each Pdpmt, RNA was extracted from the PHI26 strain as reported (Gandía et al., 2012) and reverse transcribed using SuperScript III reverse transcriptase (Invitrogen, #18080-044) into first-strand cDNA, which was then PCR amplified using specific primer
465 466 467 468 469 470 471 472	Sequence analysis of Pdpmt genes Pdpmt coding sequences were obtained from a <i>P. digitatum</i> fosmid genomic library (Gandía et al., 2012), and sequenced by chromosome walking. To determine the position and size of the introns in each <i>Pdpmt</i> , RNA was extracted from the PHI26 strain as reported (Gandía et al., 2012) and reverse transcribed using SuperScript III reverse transcriptase (Invitrogen, #18080-044) into first-strand cDNA, which was then PCR amplified using specific primer pairs, cloned into pGEM-T (Promega #A1360) and sequenced. All the
465 466 467 468 469 470 471 472 473	Sequence analysis of Pdpmt genes Pdpmt coding sequences were obtained from a P. digitatum fosmid genomic library (Gandía et al., 2012), and sequenced by chromosome walking. To determine the position and size of the introns in each Pdpmt, RNA was extracted from the PHI26 strain as reported (Gandía et al., 2012) and reverse transcribed using SuperScript III reverse transcriptase (Invitrogen, #18080-044) into first-strand cDNA, which was then PCR amplified using specific primer pairs, cloned into pGEM-T (Promega #A1360) and sequenced. All the oligonucleotides used in this work are detailed in Supporting Table S1.

S. cerevisiae complementation assays

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4	75	Functional complementation assays in the S. cerevisiae $\Delta pmt2$ strain were
4	76	conducted using the pGREG505 plasmid following the Drag and Drop cloning
4	77	system (Jansen et al., 2005). The coding sequences for each Pdpmt gene were
4	78	amplified from plasmids containing cDNAs using primers designed to place
4	79	each <i>Pdpmt</i> under the <i>GAL1</i> inducible promoter. The pGREG505_PdPmt1,
48	30	pGREG505_PdPmt2 and pGREG505_PdPmt4 plasmids derived from
48	81	pGREG505 were recovered from the BY4741 yeast strain (<i>MAT</i> a <i>hi</i> s3 Δ 1
48	82	<i>leu2</i> Δ 0 <i>met15</i> Δ 0 <i>ura</i> Δ 0) selected on synthetic complete (SC) medium lacking
48	83	Leu (SC-Leu) and confirmed by sequencing. The plasmids were transformed in
48	84	the genetic background of the $\Delta pmt2$ mutant (BY4741 $pmt2\Delta$::KanMX4) and
48	85	selected in SC-Leu.
48	36	Sensitivity assays to CFW (Sigma-Aldrich #F3543) were performed to
48	87	determine functional complementation. The transformants were grown over
48	88	night in liquid SC-Leu with 2 % glucose at 30 °C. The cultures were refreshed to
48	39	an OD_{600} of 0.2, pelleted by centrifugation, washed twice in sterile water and
49	90	inoculated in 5 mL of either liquid SC-Leu with 2 % glucose (for GAL1
49	91	repression) or 2 % galactose (for GAL1 induction). After 9 h of incubation at 30

492 °C, the cells were diluted to an OD_{600} of 0.1 and ten-fold serial dilutions were

493 dotted onto SC-Leu plates containing: (i) 2 % glucose, (ii) 2 % glucose, 12.5 μg

494 mL⁻¹ CFW, or (iii) 2 % galactose, 12.5 μg mL⁻¹ CFW. The plates were incubated
495 at 30 °C for 3 days.

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qRT-PCR analysis

497 To determine the expression of the *Pdpmt* genes, total RNA extraction,
498 reverse transcription and quantitative PCR reactions were performed as
499 reported (Gandía et al., 2012). For expression normalisation, the β-tubulin gene,
500 ribosomal protein L18a, and 18S rRNA were simultaneously used as references
501 as previously described.

Construction of plasmid vectors for fungal transformation

Genomic DNA was extracted from P. digitatum as reported (Marcet-Houben et al., 2012). PCR reactions were performed with specific primers and the AccuPrime High Fidelity polymerase (Invitrogen #12346-086). The Pdpmt2 disruption construct (pGKO2 Pdpmt2) was generated by fusion PCR (Szewczyk et al., 2006) and cloned in the binary vector pGKO2 (Khang et al., 2006) (see construct details in Supporting Information Fig. S3). The *Pdpmt2* constitutive expression construct (pBHt2_Pdpmt2) was designed with the full length *Pdpmt2* coding sequence obtained by PCR amplification from genomic DNA and cloned under the control of the *A. nidulans* glyceraldehyde triphosphate dehydrogenase (gpdA) promoter into vector pBHt2 (Mullins et al., 2001) (Supporting Information Fig. S4).

514 Agrobacterium tumefaciens-mediated transformation of P. digitatum

Agrobacterium tumefaciens-mediated transformation of *P. digitatum* PHI26

516 was performed as previously described (Mullins et al., 2001; Khang et al., 2006;

517 Michielse *et al.*, 2008; Gandía et al., 2014) with minor modifications. *A.*

tumefaciens carrying each transformation vector (pGKO2_Pdpmt2 or

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519	pBHt2_Pdpmt2) was induced with 200 μ M acetosyringone. Freshly prepared A.
520	tumefaciens and conidia of P. digitatum were co-cultured at 24 °C for 2 days on
521	nitrocellulose filters. The filters were transferred to PDA plates containing 50 μ g
522	mL ⁻¹ hygromicin (Invivogen #ant-hm-5). The plates were incubated for 2 days at
523	24 °C or until Hyg ^R colonies appeared. In the case of the disruption construct
524	(pGKO2_Pdpmt2), the plates containing Hyg ^R transformant colonies were
525	washed with sterile water, and the wash was plated on PDA supplemented with
526	10 μ M 5-Fluoro-2-deoxyuridine (F2dU) (Sigma-Aldrich #F0503) and incubated
527	for 2-7 days at 24 °C. F2dU is transformed by the herpes simple virus thiamine
528	kinase gene (HSV <i>tk</i>) encoded in pGKO2 in a toxic compound for negative
529	selection against ectopic transformants (Khang et al., 2006). Resistant
530	transformants were checked for Hyg ^R and subjected to monosporic culturing for
531	molecular analysis.
532	Molecular characterisation of <i>P. digitatum</i> transformants

Genomic DNA was digested with *Eco*RI and analysed by Southern blot
using the non-isotopic digoxigenin-labelling kit (DIG-High Prime DNA Labelling
and Detection Starter Kit II, Roche). Transformants were further confirmed by
PCR with genomic DNA with gene specific primer pairs (see Supporting Figs.
S3 and S4).

538 Fluorescence microscopy analyses

539 The morphology of each fungal strain was visualised with fluorescence

- 540 microscopy (microscope E90i, Nikon) after staining with 50 μ g mL⁻¹ CFW.
 - 541 Representative images observed in the 40x objective were captured by the NIS-

1		
2 3	542	Elements BR v2.3 program (Nikon). For sample preparation and fixation, we
4 5 6 7	543	followed previously described methods (Harris et al., 1994).
8 9 10	544	Sensitivity to antifungal compounds
11 12 13	545	In total, 5 μ L of serial 10-fold dilutions of 1 x 10 ⁵ conidia mL ⁻¹ of <i>P. digitatum</i>
14 15	546	strains were inoculated on PDA plates supplemented with CFW, SDS (Sigma-
16 17 18	547	Aldrich #L4509), CR (Sigma-Aldrich #C6767) or H_2O_2 .
19 20	548	PAF26 (amino acid sequence RKKWFW) was synthesised and provided at
21 22 23	549	>95 % purity by GenScript Corporation (Piscataway, NJ, USA). Two types of
24 25	550	assays were used to evaluate the antifungal activity of PAF26 against
26 27	551	P. digitatum strains. First, the strains were grown on 25 % (one fourth diluted)
28 29	552	potato dextrose (PD) plates solidified with 1.25 % agarose and supplemented
30 31	553	with either 16 or 32 μ M PAF26. Second, dose response experiments were
32 33 34	554	conducted in 5 % PDB using a 96-well microtiter plate assay as previously
35 36 37	555	described (Muñoz <i>et al.</i> , 2006).
38 39 40	556	Infection assays
41 42 43	557	P. digitatum inoculation on freshly harvested orange fruits (Citrus sinensis)
44 45	558	and the collection of fruit peel tissue samples were conducted as previously

described (González-Candelas et al., 2010). At different times after inoculation,

the incidence of infected wounds, diameter of lesion and conidiation index were

recorded. Three replicas of five fruits each (four wounds per fruit) were used.

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781 FIGURE LEGENDS

782	Fig. 1. Complementation assay of the <i>S. cerevisiae</i> $\Delta pmt2$ mutant with the <i>P.</i>
783	digitatum Pdpmt genes. Yeast cells transformed with each pGREG505 plasmid
784	(indicated at the left side) were grown at 30 °C for 9 h in SC-Leu medium
785	containing either 0.2 % glucose (Glu) or 0.2 % galactose (Gal). Serial ten-fold
786	dilutions of these cells at 0.1 $\ensuremath{OD_{600}}$ were dotted onto SC-Leu plates with Glu or
787	Gal supplemented with 12.5 μg mL $^{\text{-1}}$ CFW as indicated and incubated at 30 $^{\circ}\text{C}$
788	for 3 days. Note that the S. cerevisiae $\Delta pmt2$ strain presents high sensitivity to
789	CFW under repression conditions (+ Glu) and that this phenotype is rescued
790	only with <i>Pdpmt2</i> under the inductive condition (+ Gal).
791	Fig. 2. Quantification of <i>Pdpmt</i> gene expression by qRT-PCR. (A) Comparison
792	of <i>Pdpmt</i> gene expression after 2 days (d) of growth in PDB. The Ct values
793	obtained by qRT-PCR were transformed to molar amounts of cDNA through
794	equations obtained from standard curves (obtained by amplification of serial
795	two-fold dilutions of equimolar amounts of each Pdpmt amplicon) and
796	normalized to the lowest expression of Pdpmt4 (marked with an inverted
797	triangle). (B) Relative expression of <i>Pdpmt</i> genes in submerged culture (PDB)
798	after 1, 2, 3 or 6 d of growth as indicated. (C) Relative expression of Pdpmt
799	genes in solid medium (PDA) after 2, 4 or 7 d of growth as indicated. (D)
800	Relative expression of <i>Pdpmt</i> genes under oxidative or osmotic stress. Graphs
801	show the relative expression at day 4 of growth in PDA (control) and PDA
802	supplemented with H_2O_2 or sorbitol as indicated. The (B), (C) and (D) graphs
803	show the relative expression normalised independently for each gene to the
804	samples indicated by an inverted triangle. In all graphs, the bars represent the

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2 3 4	805	means \pm standard deviations (SD) of three replicates. Statistically significant
5 6 7	806	differences are labelled with an asterisk (p< 0.05).
8 9	807	Fig. 3. Relative expression of <i>Pdpmt</i> genes during orange fruit infection. (A) and
10 11	808	(B) graphs show the relative expression at each day post-inoculation (dpi) in
12 13	809	two independent experiments. The values were normalised independently for
14 15 16	810	each gene to the value at 2 dpi. Statistically significant differences are labelled
17 18	811	with an asterisk (p< 0.05). (C) Representative images for the progress of fungal
19 20 21	812	colonisation on infected fruit.
22 23	813	Fig. 4. Colony morphology and growth of P. digitatum parental and mutant
24 25 26	814	strains. (A) <i>P. digitatum</i> strain colonies grown on PDA plates at 24 °C for 7 days
20 27 28	815	as indicated: parental strain PHI26, mutants PDEH508, PDEH510, PDEH515
29 30	816	and PDEH525, and the ectopic transformant PDEH540. (B) Growth of PHI26
31 32	817	(triangles), PDEH515 (circles) and PDEH540 (squares) on PDA plates (black
33 34	818	symbols and straight lines) and PDA plates supplemented with 1 M sorbitol
35 36 37	819	(white symbols and stripped lines). Data show the mean \pm SD of three replicas
38 39	820	of the diameter registered daily. (C) Conidia production of PHI26, PDEH515 and
40 41	821	PDEH540 on PDA plates and PDA plates supplemented with 1 M sorbitol. Data
42 43 44	822	show the mean ± SD of three replicas of the conidia mL ⁻¹ produced per plate.
45 46	823	Fig. 5. Comparative fluorescence microscopy analysis of P. digitatum PHI26
47 48 49	824	and PDEH515 strains. (A) Germlings of PHI26 and PDEH515 after 16 h of
50 51	825	incubation at 24 $^{\circ}$ C of conidial suspension in PDB. (B) Mycelium of PHI26 and
52 53	826	PDEH515 grown on slides. (C) Conidiophore structure formed on slides after
54 55	827	72 h of growth. Images show the DIC bright fields and the corresponding
56 57 58 59 60	828	fluorescence fields of samples stained with CFW to visualize the CW. Letters on

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the images indicate the septum (s), the balloon-like structures (b) formed in the mycelium, and the different cell types of conidiophores; rame (r), metulae (m), phialide (f) and conidium (c). Fig. 6. Antifungal activity of the PAF26 peptide against P. digitatum strains. (A) In total, 5 µL of three serial five-fold dilutions $(2.5 \times 10^4, 5 \times 10^3, and 10^3 \text{ conidia})$ mL⁻¹, indicated by the upper triangle) from the parental PHI26, the deletion mutant PDEH515, the ectopic transformant PDEH540 and the two constitutive transformants PDEH59 and PDEH67 were grown at 24 °C for 7 days on PD agarose 24-well plates with either no peptide (control) or containing 16 µM or 32 µM PAF32 as indicated. (B) Dose response experiment of the growth of P. digitatum PHI26 (grey circles) or PDEH515 (open triangles) exposed to increasing PAF26 concentrations. The values of triplicate samples are shown. The values corresponding to PHI26 were adjusted to a four parameter sigmoidal curve (black line) with 50 % inhibitory concentration (IC₅₀) of 1.8 μ M (r = 0.9553). Fig. 7. Virulence assays of *P. digitatum* parental PHI26 or mutant PDEH515 on orange fruit at low inoculum dose (10⁴ conidia mL⁻¹). (A) Incidence of infection determined as the percentage of infected wounds. (B) Lesion diameter of the infected wounds. In (A) and (B), data show mean value \pm SD of three replicates (five fruits per replica and four wounds per fruit) at each day post-inoculation (dpi). (C) Representative images of three oranges infected with each fungal strain at 7 dpi.

> Fig. 8. Sensitivity of *P. digitatum* strains to hydrogen peroxide. In total, 5 µL of three serial ten-fold dilutions (10⁵, 10⁴ and 10³ conidia mL⁻¹) of the same strains

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	853	as in Fig.6 were applied on PDA plates supplemented with three different
	854	concentrations of H_2O_2 . The plates were incubated at 24 °C for 4 days.
	855	Fig. 9. Invasive growth of P. digitatum PHI26 parental and PDEH515 mutant
) 1	856	strains. The top diagram shows a scheme to follow the experimental procedure.
2 3	857	In total, 5 μ L of 2.5 x 10 ⁴ conidia mL ⁻¹ were grown for 3, 5, or 7 days on PDA
1 5	858	plates covered by a cellophane membrane (A), then the cellophane with the
2 7 3	859	colony was removed (B), and finally the plate was incubated for 4 additional
))	860	days (C).
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862 SUPPORTING INFORMATION

- 863 **Supporting Fig. S1.** Phylogenetic analysis of *P. digitatum* PdPmt1, PdPmt2,
- 864 PdPmt4 and homologous sequences in fungi.
- 865 **Supporting Fig. S2.** Domain organisation of Pmt proteins from *P. digitatum*.
- 866 **Supporting Fig. S3.** Disruption of the *Pdpmt2* gene in *P. digitatum*.
- 867 **Supporting Fig. S4.** Constitutive expression of the *Pdpmt2* gene in *P*.
 - 868 digitatum.
- 869 **Supporting Fig. S5.** Relative quantification of *Pdpmt* gene expression in the *P*.
- 870 *digitatum* strains.
- 871 Supporting Fig. S6. Sensitivity of the *P. digitatum* strains to different antifungal
 872 compounds.
- 873 **Supporting Fig. S7.** Virulence assays on orange fruits of *P. digitatum* strains at
- 874 high inoculum dose (10^5 conidia mL⁻¹).
 - 875 **Supporting Table S1.** Oligonucleotide primers used in this work.

Figure 1 (Harries et al., 2014)



Fig. 1. Complementation assay of the *S. cerevisiae* $\Delta pmt2$ mutant with the *P. digitatum Pdpmt* genes. Yeast cells transformed with each pGREG505 plasmid (indicated at the left side) were grown at 30 °C for 9 h in SC-Leu medium containing either 0.2 % glucose (Glu) or 0.2 % galactose (Gal). Serial ten-fold dilutions of these cells at 0.1 OD₆₀₀ were dotted onto SC-Leu plates with Glu or Gal supplemented with 12.5 µg mL⁻¹ CFW as indicated and incubated at 30 °C for 3 days. Note that the *S. cerevisiae* $\Delta pmt2$ strain presents high sensitivity to CFW under repression conditions (+ Glu) and that this phenotype is rescued only with *Pdpmt2* under the inductive condition (+ Gal).

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Fig. 2. Quantification of Pdpmt gene expression by qRT-PCR. (A) Comparison of Pdpmt gene expression after 2 days (d) of growth in PDB. The Ct values obtained by qRT-PCR were transformed to molar amounts of cDNA through equations obtained from standard curves (obtained by amplification of serial two-fold dilutions of equimolar amounts of each Pdpmt amplicon) and normalized to the lowest expression of Pdpmt4 (marked with an inverted triangle). (B) Relative expression of Pdpmt genes in submerged culture (PDB) after 1, 2, 3 or 6 d of growth as indicated. (C) Relative expression of Pdpmt genes in solid medium (PDA) after 2, 4 or 7 d of growth as indicated. (D) Relative expression of Pdpmt genes under oxidative or osmotic stress. Graphs show the relative expression at day 4 of growth in PDA (control) and PDA supplemented with H_2O_2 or sorbitol as indicated. The (B), (C) and (D) graphs show the relative expression normalised independently for each gene to the samples indicated by an inverted triangle. In all graphs, the bars represent the means ± standard deviations (SD) of three replicates. Statistically significant differences are labelled with an asterisk (p< 0.05).

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Figure 3 (Harries et al., 2014)



Fig. 3. Relative expression of *Pdpmt* genes during orange fruit infection. (A) and (B) graphs show the relative expression at each day post-inoculation (dpi) in two independent experiments. The values were normalised independently for each gene to the value at 2 dpi. Statistically significant differences are labelled with an asterisk (p < 0.05). (C) Representative images for the progress of fungal colonisation on infected fruit.

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Figure 4 (Harries et al., 2014)

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PDEH515 PDEH525 PDEH540



PDA PDA + Sorbitol

Fig. 4. Colony morphology and growth of *P. digitatum* parental and mutant strains. (A) *P. digitatum* strain colonies grown on PDA plates at 24 °C for 7 days as indicated: parental strain PHI26, mutants PDEH508, PDEH510, PDEH515 and PDEH525, and the ectopic transformant PDEH540. (B) Growth of PHI26 (triangles), PDEH515 (circles) and PDEH540 (squares) on PDA plates (black symbols and straight lines) and PDA plates supplemented with 1 M sorbitol (white symbols and striped lines). Data show the mean ± SD of three replicas of the diameter registered daily. (C) Conidia production of PHI26, PDEH515 and PDEH540 on PDA plates and PDA plates supplemented with 1 M sorbitol. Data show the mean ± SD of three replicas of the conidia mL⁻¹ produced per plate.

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Figure 5 (Harries et al., 2014)



PHI26 PDEH515

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Fig. 5. Comparative fluorescence microscopy analysis of *P. digitatum* PHI26 and PDEH515 strains. (A) Germlings of PHI26 and PDEH515 after 16 h of incubation at 24 °C of conidial suspension in PDB. (B) Mycelium of PHI26 and PDEH515 grown on slides. (C) Conidiophore structure formed on slides after 72 h of growth. Images show the DIC bright fields and the corresponding fluorescence fields of samples stained with CFW to visualize the CW. Letters on the images indicate the septum (s), the balloon-like structures (b) formed in the mycelium, and the different cell types of conidiophores; rame (r), metulae (m), phialide (f) and conidium (c).

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Figure 6 (Harries et al., 2014)



Fig. 6. Antifungal activity of the PAF26 peptide against P. digitatum strains. (A) In total, 5 µL of three serial five-fold dilutions (2.5 x 10⁴, 5 x 10³, and 10³ conidia mL⁻¹, indicated by the upper triangle) from the parental PHI26, the deletion mutant PDEH515, the ectopic transformant PDEH6140 and the two constitutive transformants PDEH59 and PDEH67 were grown at 24 °C for 7 days on PD agarose 24-well plates with either no peptide (control) or containing 16 µM or 32 µM PAF32 as indicated. (B) Dose response experiment of the growth of P. digitatum PHI26 (grey circles) or PDEH515 (open triangles) exposed to increasing PAF26 concentrations. The values of triplicate samples are shown. The values corresponding to PHI26 were adjusted to a four parameter sigmoidal curve (black line) with 50 % inhibitory concentration (IC₅₀) of 1.8 μ M (*r* = 0.9553).

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Figure 7 (Harries et al., 2014)



Fig. 7. Virulence assays of *P. digitatum* parental PHI26 or mutant PDEH515 on orange fruit at low inoculum dose (10⁴ conidia mL⁻¹). (A) Incidence of infection determined as the percentage of infected wounds. (B) Lesion diameter of the infected wounds. In (A) and (B), data show mean value \pm SD of three replicates (five fruits per replica and four wounds per fruit) at each day post-inoculation (dpi). (C) Representative images of three oranges infected with each fungal strain at 7 dpi.

190x275mm (300 x 300 DPI)

Figure 8 (Harries et al., 2014)



Fig. 8. Sensitivity of *P. digitatum* strains to hydrogen peroxide. In total, 5 µL of three serial ten-fold dilutions (10⁵, 10⁴ and 10³ conidia mL⁻¹) of the same strains as in Fig.6 were applied on PDA plates supplemented with three different concentrations of H₂O₂. The plates were incubated at 24 °C for 4 days.

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Figure 9 (Harries et al., 2014)



Fig. 9. Invasive growth of *P. digitatum* PHI26 parental and PDEH515 mutant strains. The top diagram shows a scheme to follow the experimental procedure. In total, 5 μ L of 2.5 x 10⁴ conidia mL⁻¹ were grown for 3, 5, or 7 days on PDA plates covered by a cellophane membrane (A), then the cellophane with the colony was removed (B), and finally the plate was incubated for 4 additional days (C).

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