ABSTRACT

SHU, XIAOMEI. Pathogenesis and Host Response During Infection of Maize Kernels by *Aspergillus flavus* and *Fusarium verticillioides*. (Under the direction of Dr. Gary A. Payne.)

Developing maize kernels are vulnerable to colonization by microbes. When colonization allows proliferation of the microbe at the expense of the host, disease occurs. The ascomycete fungal pathogens *Aspergillus flavus* and *Fusarium verticillioides* are capable of colonizing maize kernels, causing ear rots and contamination of the kernel with mycotoxins. These diseases lead to significant losses of crop yield and quality, and constitute a threat to food safety and human health. Thus, the significance of these diseases has prompted extensive research efforts to understand these plant-parasite interactions. However, pathogenesis and resistance mechanisms remain poorly characterized, hampering the development of effective control strategies. No commercial maize lines are completely resistant to these fungi. We applied an integrated approach consisting of histology, *in situ* gene expression and transcriptional profiling to better understand the nature of the interactions that occur between maize kernels and these fungi. Maize inbred line B73 was hand pollinated and inoculated with either *A. flavus* or *F. verticillioides* by wounding the kernel with a needle bearing conidia. Histological staining of the kernel sections revealed fungal mycelium in kernels adjacent to the inoculation site by 48 hours post inoculation (hpi), and in all tissues at 96 hpi. Compared with *F. verticillioides*, *A. flavus* more aggressively colonized kernel tissue and formed a unique biofilm-like structure around the scutellum. Transcriptome profiling using RNA-sequencing (RNA-seq) coupled with pathway analysis showed that these fungi were recognized by the kernel tissues prior to visible

colonization. Infection of the kernel by these fungi induced transcriptional changes in defense-related genes, hormone signaling networks, as well as primary and secondary metabolism pathways. To dissect tissue-specific responses of the kernel, RNA *in situ* hybridization and histological staining were carried out in adjacent serial sections. We found that two maize genes, *pathogenesis related protein*, *maize seeds* (*PRms*) and *shrunken-1* (*Sh1*), were expressed in the aleurone and scutellum during infection by these fungi. By staining the adjacent sections, we found that these genes were induced in the tissue before the establishment of fungal colonization. Integration of histology, *in situ* gene expression and transcriptional profiling to study pathogenesis of maize kernels by these two fungi revealed distinctive and common features between the two pathosystems, and provided information that will facilitate the development of resistance genotypes in maize.

Pathogenesis and Host Response During Infection of Maize Kernels by *Aspergillus flavus* and *Fusarium verticillioides*

by Xiaomei Shu

A dissertation submitted to the Graduate Faculty of North Carolina State University in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Plant Pathology

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BIOGRAPHY

Xiaomei Shu was born in 1983 in Ya'an District, Sichuan Province, China. In 2002, Xiaomei attended Sichuan Agricultural University in Ya'an and graduated in May of 2006 with a bachelor's degree in Biotechnology. Then she accepted the Dual Master's program offered by China Agricultural University and Missouri State University. Xiaomei moved to Beijing, where she started the program in China Agricultural University in August of 2006. In March of 2008, she came to the United States to accomplish the Dual Master's program in Missouri State University in Mountain Grove, Missouri, and graduated in August, 2009 with a master's degree in Plant Science. From there Xiaomei moved to Raleigh, North Carolina, and started her PhD program in the Department of Plant Pathology at North Carolina State University.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

- *A*. *flavus*: *Aspergillus flavus*
- *A. fumigatus*: *Aspergillus fumigatus*
- *A. nidulans: Aspergillus nidulans*
- *A. thaliana*: *Arabidopsis thaliana*

ABA: abscisic acid

- ABC: ATP-binding cassette
- *AfHis*: *histone*, *A. flavus*

Al: aleurone

ALD: aldose reductase

AP2-EREBP: APETALA2/ethylene-responsive element-binding protein

B. elliptica: *Botrytis elliptica*

BAK1: BRASSINOSTEROID INSENSITIVE 1-associated receptor kinase 1

BETL: basal endosperm transfer layer

BRs: brassinosteroids

Bt: *Bacillus thuringiensis*

bZIP: basic leucine zipper

CAST: Council for Agricultural Science and Technology

CEM: corn extract medium

CFRAS-DB: Corn Fungal Resistance Associated Sequences Database

CHS: chalcone synthase

CKs: cytokinins

CORp: cold-regulated protein CPA: cyclopiazonic acid Cup: cupin domain containing protein Cys: cysteine DON: deoxynivalenol Em: embryo En: endosperm ERFs: ethylene-responsive transcription factors ET: ethylene ETI: effector-triggered immunity *F. oxysporum*: *Fusarium oxysporum F*. *verticillioides*: *Fusarium verticillioides* FB: fumonisin B FDA: Food and Drug Administration FPKM: fragments per kilobase of exon per million fragments mapped GA: gibberellic acid GID1: gibberellins recptor1 Gl: glandular layer GLBs: globulins GLXs: glyoxalases *gpdA*: *glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase*, *A. nidulans* GST: glutathione S-transferase

GUS: β-glucuronidase

GWAS: genome-wide association study

h: $hour(s)$

hpi: hour(s) post inoculation

HR: hypersensitive response

HSPs: heat shock proteins

Inv-CW: cell wall invertase

JA: jasmonic acid

LEAs: late embryogenesis abundant proteins

LOX: lipoxygenase

LRR-RKs: leucine-rich repeat receptor kinase

MAPK: mitogen-activated protein kinase

MATE: multidrug and toxin extrusion

MeJA: methyl jasmonate

MGDP: Maize Gene Discovery Project

min: minute(s)

MLS: minimal medium

MpM1: Mississippi marker 1

N. crassa: *Neurospora crassa*

NBS-LRR: nucleotide binding site and leucine-rich repeats

NLPs: necrosis- and ethylene-inducing protein (Nep)-like proteins

NPP1: necrosis-inducing *Phytophthora* protein 1

NPR1: nonexpresser of PR genes 1

NTD: neural tube defects

OE: overexpression

OPRs: 12-oxo-phytodienoic acid reductases

P. aphanidermatum: *Pythium aphanidermatum*

P. capsici: *Phytophthora capsici*

P. citrophthora: *Phytophthora citrophthora*

P. infestans: *Phytophthora infestans*

P. megakarya: *Phytophthora megakarya*

P. palmivora: *Phytophthora palmivora*

P. sojae: *Phytophthora sojae*

PAMPs: pathogen-associated molecular patterns

PCD: programmed cell death

PDA: potato dextrose agar

PDB: potato dextrose broth

PER1: peroxiredoxin antioxidant 1

PLA: phenylalanine ammonia-lyase

ppb: parts per billion

ppm: parts per million

PR proteins: pathogenesis related proteins

PRms: *pathogenesis related protein*, *maize seeds*

ProFITS: protein families involved in the transduction of signaling

PRRs: pattern recognition receptors

PTI: PAMP-triggered immunity

pyr-4: *pyrimidine-4*

qRT-PCR: quantitative real-time reverse transcription-polymerase chain reaction

QTL: quantitative trait loci

R proteins: resistance proteins

RIP: ribosome-inactivating protein

RLKs: receptor-like kinase

RNA-seq: RNA sequencing

ROS: reactive oxygen species

RPS9: *40S ribosomal protein S9*

SA: salicylic acid

Sc: scutellum

SEM: scanning electron microscopy

Sh1: *shrunken-1*

SS1: sucrose synthase 1

TCA: tricarboxylic acid cycle

TFs: transcription factors

TI: trypsin inhibitor

UDP: uridine diphosphate

UGT: UDP glucosyltransferase

U. maydis: *Ustilago maydis*

V. dahliae: *Verticillium dahliae*

WSI: water stress inducible protein

WT: wild-type

ZmCAT1: *catalase 1*, *Zea mays*

Chapter One

Relationships of the Maize Kernel and Its Fungal Pathogens *Aspergillus flavus* **and**

Fusarium verticillioides

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ABSTRACT

Developing maize kernels interact with a broad range of microbes with different trophic lifestyles and infection strategies. Two pathogens of major importance are *Aspergillus flavus* and *Fusarium verticillioides.* These two are capable of infecting and rotting maize kernels, and producing the toxic compounds aflatoxins and fumonisins, respectively. Achieving disease control has been very difficult. No commercial maize lines resistant to these diseases have been marketed to date. A detailed understanding of these host-parasite interactions could contribute to disease resistance and crop improvement. In this review, we summarize the current knowledge about the pathogenesis and host defense response in these two pathosystems. In particular, we dissect the components of infection, colonization, and host response. Although *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* have very different trophic lifestyles and occupy diverse ecological niches, data from several research articles indicate that these two fungi colonize maize kernels in a similar pattern and induce both distinctive and common defense mechanisms of the host. In addition, we discuss recent progress on the development of effective strategies to control *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* associated maize ear rot and mycotoxin contamination.

INTRODUCTION

Maize (*Zea mays* L.) is one of the world's three leading grain crops, providing food for humans and animals. It is also an important material for biodiesel production. Over 10 billion bushels of maize were harvested in the United States in 2012. A number of plant pathogens cause diseases in maize resulting in severe yield loss. *Aspergillus flavus* and

Fusarium verticillioides are invasive fungal pathogens capable of infecting maize kernels both in the field and in storage (Payne and Brown, 1998; Wilson et al., 1975). Aflatoxin and fumonisin produced by *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides*, respectively, are carcinogenic secondary metabolites harmful to humans and animals. Colonization of the kernel by these fungal pathogens often results in mycotoxin contamination, decreased sugar levels, and weight loss (Cardwell et al., 2000; Lillehoj et al., 1979). In the United States, the annual economic costs of crop losses from mycotoxins, including aflatoxins, fumonisins, and deoxynivalenol (DON), were estimated to be \$932 million (CAST, 2003).

Development of effective disease control strategies for *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* is a high priority; butut traditional control strategies including currently available host resistance to ear rot and mycotoxin contamination are not sufficient to reduce fungal infection when environmental conditions are favorable (Munkvold, 2003; Payne, 1992). Attention has turned recently to gaining a better understanding of these two pathosystems so that we can apply our increased knowledge to develop efficient control strategies to reduce ear rots and minimize mycotoxin contamination of maize.

Over the past few decades, several studies have focused on the pathogenesis of *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* in maize kernels (Bush et al., 2004; Duncan and Howard, 2010; Hruska et al., 2013; Koehler, 1942; Marsh and Payne, 1984; Munkvold et al., 1997; Smart et al., 1990). The genetic basis of host resistance has also been studied recently using novel technologies, including quantitative trait loci (QTL) mapping, genome-wide association study (GWAS), and microarray and proteomic approaches (Campos-Bermudez et al., 2013;

Chen et al., 2007; Lanubile et al., 2013; Robertson-Hoyt et al., 2006, 2007a; Zila et al., 2013). Several maize genes and proteins associated with defense response to *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* have been identified (Table 1). In some cases common genes have been associated with resistance to both fungi, indicating the possibility of developing comprehensive resistance to both pathogens (Robertson-Hoyt et al., 2007a).

In this review, we describe the current progress in elucidating pathogenesis and host defense in these two pathosystems. We also discuss prospective approaches to breed resistant maize lines using the information generated from molecular, genomic, proteomic and metabolomics studies. Our overall goal is to control maize ear rot and eliminate mycotoxin contamination.

Gene and/or	Association	Study	Reference
proteins		level	
PR4	Af and Fv	G	Bravo et al., 2003; Dolezal, 2010; Luo et al., 2011
PR ₅	Af and Fv	G	Lanubile et al., 2013; Luo et al., 2011
PRms	Af and Fv	G and P	Bravo et al., 2003; Casacuberta et al., 1991, 1992; Cordero et
			al., 1994; Dolezal, 2010; Murillo et al., 1999
PRm3	Af and Fv	G	Lanubile et al., 2013; Luo et al., 2011
PR _{m6}	Fv	G	Lanubile et al., 2013
PR10	Af	G and P	Chen et al., 2006, 2010b; Dolezal, 2010; Xie et al., 2010
PR10.1	Af	${\bf P}$	Chen et al., 2004; Xie et al., 2010
chitinases	Af and Fv	G and P	Campos-Bermudez et al., 2013; Cordero et al., 1993;
			Dolezal, 2010; Ji et al., 2000; Lanubile et al., 2010; Luo et
			al., 2011; Moore et al., 2004; Wu et al., 1994a, 1994b
β -1, 3- glucanase	Af and Fv	G and P	Campos-Bermudez et al., 2013; Chen et al., 2005; Cordero et
			al., 1993; Ji et al., 2000; Lanubile et al., 2013; Lozovaya et
			al., 1998; Luo et al., 2011; Wu et al., 1994a, 1994b
β -glucosidase	Af and Fv	\overline{G}	Campos-Bermudez et al., 2013; Lanubile et al., 2013; Luo et
			al., 2011
zeamatin	Af and Fv	G and P	Chen et al., 2001; Guo et al., 1997, 1999; Lanubile et al.,
			2010; Luo et al., 2011
WRKYs	Af and Fv	$\mathbf G$	Campos-Bermudez et al., 2013; Lanubile et al., 2010, 2013;
			Luo et al., 2011
Mybs	Af and Fv	G	Campos-Bermudez et al., 2013; Dolezal, 2010; Lanubile et
			al., 2010, 2013
LOXs	Af and Fv	\overline{G}	Dolezal, 2010; Gao et al., 2007, 2009; Lanubile et al., 2013;
			Wilson et al., 2001
OPRs	Fv	G	Dolezal, 2010; Zhang et al., 2005
GF14-6	F _V	G	Campo et al., 2011
GSTs	Af and Fv	G	Campos-Bermudez et al., 2013; Dolezal, 2010; Lanubile et
			al., 2010, 2013; Luo et al., 2011
Peroxidases	Af	G and P	Chen et al., 2007; Luo et al., 2011
catalase	Af	${\bf P}$	Magbanua et al., 2007
chitosanase	Af	${\bf P}$	Cuero and Osuji, 1995
amylase inhibitor	Fv	$\, {\bf P}$	Figueira et al., 2003
glycoprotein			
GLBs	Af and Fv	G and P	Chen et al., 2001, 2002, 2007; Lanubile et al., 2010
LEAs	Af	${\bf P}$	Chen et al., 2002, 2007; Luo et al., 2011
zein	Fv	G	Lanubile et al., 2010, 2013
WSI18	Af	$\, {\bf p}$	Chen et al., 2002

Table 1. Maize genes and/or proteins associated with defense response to *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides.* Af: associated with defense response to *A. flavus*; Fv: associated with defense response to *F. verticillioides*; G: studied at the gene level; P: studied at the protein level.

ALD	Af and Fv	G and P	Chen et al., 2002; Lanubile et al., 2010
HSPs	Af and Fv	G and P	Campos-Bermudez et al., 2013; Chen et al., 2002, 2007;
			Lanubile et al., 2010, 2013; Luo et al., 2011
GLXs	Af and Fv	G and P	Bhatnagar et al., 2008; Chen et al., 2004; Lanubile et al., 2010
Cup	Af	P	Chen et al., 2005
RIP	Af and Fv	P	Chen et al., 2001; Guo et al., 1997, 1999; Nielsen et al., 2001
TIs	Af and Fv	G and P	Baker et al., 2009b; Chen et al., 1998, 1999a, 1999b, 2007;
			Lanubile et al., 2010; Tubajika and Damann, 2001
lectin-like	Af	P	Baker et al., 2009a
protein			
CORp	Af	P	Chen et al., 2007
protein kinase	Af and Fv	G and P	Chen et al., 2005; Lanubile et al., 2010, 2013; Luo et al., 2011
protein	Fv	G	Lanubile et al., 2010, 2013
phosphatases			
translation	Af and Fv	G and P	Chen et al., 2005; Lanubile et al., 2010
initiation factors			
Sh1	Af and Fv	G	Dolezal, 2010; Lanubile et al., 2013

Table 1 Continued

BIOLOGY OF *A. FLAVUS* AND *F. VERTICILLIOIDES*

Different lifestyles

A. flavus (teleomorph *Petromyces flavus*) is a mycotoxigenic filamentous fungus with diverse ecological niches (St Leger et al., 2000). This fungus is predominately a saprophyte growing on plant and animal debris in the soil or surviving dormant as sclerotia (Cotty, 1998; Horn et al., 2009; Payne and Brown, 1998; Payne and Yu, 2010; Wicklow and Horn, 1984). The ecological significance of this fungus is its important role in nutrient recycling (Payne and Yu, 2010). As an opportunistic fungal pathogen, *A. flavus* is able to infect maize kernels, peanuts, tree nuts, cotton bolls, as well as insects, animals and immunocompromised human patients (Payne and Brown, 1998; Payne, 1992; St Leger et al., 2000). *A. flavus* is considered to be the second leading causal agent of human invasive aspergillosis infecting skin, oral mucosa, and subcutaneous tissue (Hedayati et al., 2007; Rokas et al., 2007).

F. verticillioides (synonym *F. moniliforme*; teleomorph *Gibberella moniliformis*) is another mycotoxin producer occupying different ecological niches. This fungus can be a saprophyte growing in plant residues (Zummo and Scott, 1992). *F. verticillioides* is also considered as a minor pathogen colonizing seeds of pea and rice (Waśkiewicz et al., 2013; Wulff et al., 2010). In maize plants, *F. verticillioides* can be either an endophyte causing symptomless infection, or a pathogen causing visible symptoms, including kernel rot. As an endophyte, *F. verticillioides* is capable of asymptomatically and systemically infecting maize roots, stalks, and kernels at all developmental stages (Munkvold et al., 1997). The endophytic *F. verticillioides* is able to enhance disease resistance to *Ustilago maydis* in maize seedlings

(Lee et al., 2009; Rodriguez Estrada et al., 2012). Under certain conditions, *F. verticillioides* causes maize seedling blight, root rot, stalk rot, and ear rot (Gelderblom et al., 1991; Zummo and Scott, 1992). In addition, *F. verticillioides* is able to infect insects and immunocompromised patients (Pelizza et al., 2011; Sagnelli et al., 2006). *F. verticillioides* associated fusariosis was reported in a stem cell transplantation patient (Tezcan et al., 2009). Another liver transplantation patient was diagnosed as having *F. verticillioides* associated fungemia (Cocchi et al., 2011).

Although *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* have very different trophic lifestyles, they can invade immature maize kernels and follow a similar pattern of colonization. Moreover, previous studies suggest that maize kernels have evolved similar resistance mechanisms to defend against these two pathogens (Robertson-Hoyt et al., 2006, 2007a). Comparison of these two pathosystems will help us gain a better understanding of pathogenesis and host resistance in maize kernels.

Aflatoxins and fumonisins

A. flavus is notorious for its ability to produce aflatoxins, a group of potent carcinogenic secondary metabolites. Research led to the structural identification of aflatoxins (Stoloff, 1977). These toxins were isolated from Brazilian peanut meal associated with the outbreak of turkey 'X' disease in England (Cole, 1986). Outbreaks of aflatoxicosis in humans have occurred in both India and Kenya (Krishnamachari et al., 1975; Lewis et al., 2005). Human aflatoxicosis caused by consumption of aflatoxin contaminated food still threatens

public health in developing countries (Williams et al., 2004). Aflatoxin exposure also causes growth impairment in children (Khlangwiset et al., 2011).

Of the aflatoxins produced by *A. flavus*, aflatoxin B1, which is associated with human hepatocellular carcinoma, is the most toxic and potent naturally occurring carcinogen ever characterized (Kew, 2013; CAST, 2003). *A. flavus* also produces lesser amounts of aflatoxin B2 and several other unrelated mycotoxins, including aspertoxin, aflatrem, aspergillic acid, and the indole-tetramic acid mycotoxin cyclopiazonic acid (CPA) (Chang et al., 2009; Horn et al., 2009). CPA, an inhibitor of Ca^{2+} mediated ATPases, targets the liver, kidneys and gastrointestinal tract in animals (CAST, 2003). Because of the high health risks to humans and animals, aflatoxins are strictly regulated by the US Food and Drug Administration (FDA). The levels of total aflatoxins in interstate commerce of food and feed are limited to 20 parts per billion (ppb) (FDA, 2000).

The other group of mycotoxins commonly detected in maize is fumonisins produced by *F. verticillioides* and other *Fusarium* species. *F. verticillioides* is able to synthesize fumonisins at both endophytic and pathogenic stages on maize, making these mycotoxins extremely difficult to eliminate from the food chain (Brown et al., 2008). Fumonisins are toxic to humans and animals by disrupting sphingolipid biosynthesis pathways (Marasas, 2001, 2004; Riley et al., 1994; Voss et al., 2001). Saccardo (1881) first reported that *F. verticillioides* from maize was associated with human pellagra. In the southern African territory of Ttanskei, consumption of *F. verticillioides* and fumonisin contaminated corn was found to be correlated with human esophageal cancer (Miller, 2001; Rheeder et al., 1992).

Fumonisin B1 (FB1), which is the most common mycotoxin produced by *F.*

verticillioides, is recognized as the causal agent of equine leukoencephalomalacia as well as pulmonary edema and hydrothorax in swine (Bacon et al., 1992; Harrison et al., 1990; Kellerman et al., 1990; Pienaar et al., 1981; Rheeder et al., 1992). FB1 is also a carcinogenic compound associated with rat liver cancer (Gelderblom et al., 1991, 2004). FB1 associated embryo neural tube defects (NTD) were observed in both humans and rats (Hendricks, 1999; Marasas et al., 2004; Sadler et al., 2002). Due to the potent toxicity of fumonisins to humans and animals, the FDA has established guidelines for their levels in human food products and animal feeds. The total fumonisin levels (FB1, FB2, and FB3) in degermed dry milled corn products are limited to 2 parts per million (ppm) (FDA, 2001).

Virulence

Several putative virulence factors have been identified from *A. flavus*. One example is the endopolygalacturonase, P2c, which plays a critical role in virulence during infection of both maize and cotton bolls (Mellon et al., 2007; Shieh et al., 1997). Another characterized pathogenicity factor is amylase which is involved in starch digestion and pathogenicity during colonization of maize kernels (Mellon et al., 2007). The *A. flavus* phytase encoding gene, *phy1*, is also associated with infection of maize kernels (Reese et al., 2011). Moreover, gene expression and mutant analysis suggest that one of the *A. flavus* necrosis- and ethyleneinducing protein (Nep)-like proteins (NLPs) is a putative pathogenesis factor required for full virulence of this fungus (Dolezal, 2010).

It appears that *F. verticillioides* has evolved tissue-specific virulence factors to attack different tissues of maize plants. The cAMP-dependent protein kinase gene, *fpk1*, is essential for hyphal growth, spore germination, and pathogenicity of this fungus on maize seedlings (Pei-Bao et al., 2010). Fumonisins at high concentrations also have been reported to facilitate infection of maize seedlings by *F. verticillioides* (Arias et al., 2012; Desjardins et al., 1995). Fumonisin-mediated disruption of ceramide biosynthesis in maize roots is associated with seedling blight (Williams et al., 2006, 2007). Although FB1 is able to target the defenserelated protein beta-1, 3-glucanase in the germinating embryo, fumonisins are not required for *F. verticillioides* infection of maize kernels (Desjardins and Plattner, 2000; Sanchez-Rangel et al., 2012). Instead, several *F. verticillioides* genes, including the mitogen-activated protein kinase gene, *FvMK1*, the putative hexokinase-encoding gene, *HXK1*, and the putative hexose transporter gene, *fst1*, are pathogenicity factors associated with infection of maize kernels (Kim et al., 2011; Kim and Woloshuk, 2011; Zhang et al., 2011). Furthermore, *F. verticillioides* G-protein regulator genes modulate the maize ET biosynthesis pathway in the kernel (Mukherjee et al., 2011). A *F. verticillioides* fungalysin metalloprotease chitinasemodifying protein is also involved in truncation of maize kernel class IV chitinases, ChitA and ChitB (Naumann et al., 2011).

PATHOGENESIS

Infection and colonization

A. flavus infection in a maize field was first reported in Texas (Taubenhaus, 1920). During the growing season, *A. flavus* conidia produced by conidiophores are dispersed by

insects and wind to maize plants (Jones et al., 1980; Marsh and Payne, 1984; Smart et al., 1990; Widstrom et al., 2003). Airborne *A. flavus* conidia are found to be important sources of environmental inoculum (Mehl and Cotty, 2010). Once on the plant, this fungus is capable of colonizing silks, rachises, spikelets, glumes, kernel surfaces, and all tissues inside the maize kernel (Smart et al., 1990). *A. flavus* enters the undamaged kernel through a few routes, such as the silk, cob, and rachilla (Jones et al., 1980; Marsh and Payne, 1984; Munkvold et al., 1997; Widstrom et al., 2003; Windham and Williams, 1998). Smart et al. (1990) showed that *A. flavus* penetrates the base of undamaged kernels and the pedicel via the vascular tissue. Maize kernels are more resistant to *A. flavus* during the early developmental stages, but are very susceptible during the milk and dent stages (Hesseltine and Bothast, 1977; Ji et al., 2000; Rambo et al., 1974). Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) studies indicate that *A. flavus* can only colonize the yellow-brown silks but not the green unpollinated silks, suggesting that silks are more resistant in the early stages (Marsh and Payne, 1984).

F. verticillioides is the most prevalent fungal species in maize ears (Alborch et al., 2010; Cao et al., 2013; Koehler, 1942). This fungus is capable of infecting maize ears via crown, stalk, and silk (Munkvold et al., 1997). *F. verticillioides* colonization in the pedicel below the black layer was observed by Koehler (1942). SEM studies show that *F. verticillioides* is always located in the pedicel or tip cap end of the asymptomatic maize kernels (Bacon et al., 1992). Moreover, this fungus can be transmitted by seeds (Munkvold et al., 1997). However, inoculation of maize seeds by *F. verticillioides* before planting does not significantly change the yield and vegetative growth, indicating that seed transmission is not

the major route for infection (Yates et al., 2005). Compared with infection pathways via stalk and seed, infection through silk is the most effective pathway leading to kernel colonization by *F. verticillioides* (Munkvold et al., 1997). During kernel development, the dent stage is the most conducive stage for fumonisin production of *F. verticillioides* (Picot et al., 2010, 2011), although it can be produced in younger kernels (Bush et al., 2004).

Both *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* are able to penetrate maize kernels through breaks or cracks in the pericarp (Hruska et al., 2013; Scott and Zummo, 1990, 1992). Insect damage and mechanical injury of the external seed pericarp are important routes of infection by these two pathogens (Abbas et al., 2006; Johansson et al., 2006; Smart et al., 1990; Widstrom and Donald, 1996; Widstrom et al., 2003). Infection of developing maize kernels by *A. flavus* typically starts at the tip of the ear where damage is often the most extensive. *A. flavus* infection also can occur at the base of undamaged ears, indicating that this fungus possibly enters these kernels through systemic infection pathways (Jones et al., 1980).

Once in the kernel, both *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* are able to colonize all tissue types in the kernel (Brown et al., 1995; Fennel et al., 1973; Jones et al., 1980; Keller et al., 1994; Koehler, 1942; Lillehoj et al., 1976; Smart et al., 1990). *A. flavus* was detected in all tissues of the kernel at 96 hours after wound-inoculation (Dolezal et al., 2013). At this time point, this fungus had formed a biofilm-like structure at the endosperm-scutellum interface, which has not been observed in *F. verticillioides* infected kernels (Dolezal, 2010; Dolezal et al., 2013). *A. flavus* invades the embryo through the scutellum (Smart et al., 1990). A few publications support the idea that *A. flavus* selectively and preferentially targets the germ

when colonizing both nonwounded and wounded kernels (Keller et al., 1994; Koehler, 1942; Mellon et al., 2005; Smart et al., 1990). The highest concentration of aflatoxins was detected in the germ of wound-inoculated kernels (Keller et al., 1994). But extensive colonization was also observed in other kernel regions, such as the aleurone and endosperm (Dolezal et al., 2013).

Although progress has been made elucidating the pathogenesis of kernels by these two pathogens, it has been difficult to characterize in detail the pattern of colonization because environmental conditions greatly affect the outcome of the pathogenesis. Colonization of maize kernels by *F. verticillioides*, in particular, is poorly understood.

Factors affecting fungal infection and colonization

The severity of maize ear rot and mycotoxin accumulation caused by *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* varies with the weather conditions, insect activities, and the host genetic background (Parsons and Munkvod, 2010; Payne, 1992). In immature kernels, susceptibility to *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* is conditioned by plant stress. Typically, high temperature with drought stress favors increased infection by both fungal pathogens, and favors colonization of the kernel (Cao et al, 2013; Miller, 2001; Sampundo et al., 2005, 2007; Widstrom et al., 2003). Insect and mechanical damage are also associated with increased infection by these two fungi (Abbas et al., 2006; Miller, 2001; Ni et al., 2011; Williams et al., 2002). The southwestern corn borer (*Diatraea grandiosella*) was found to be associated with *A. flavus* infection and aflatoxin accumulation in maize kernels (Windham et al., 1999). Mechanical damage significantly affects the severity of maize ear rot and mycotoxin

contamination caused by *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides*. Johansson et al. (2006) reported that aflatoxin and fumonisin levels in damaged and broken maize kernels were higher than in whole kernels. Furthermore, needle inoculation methods were less effective in eliciting aflatoxin production than the knife and multiple puncture methods, indicating that more damage of the kernel causes more severe infection (Widstrom et al., 1981). Observations also showed that inoculation of *A. flavus* to embryo-wounded kernels resulted in more fungal growth and aflatoxin B1 accumulation than endosperm-wounded or non-wounded kernels (Brown et al., 1993, 1997). In addition, host genetics undoubtedly plays a central role in *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* associated maize ear rot and mycotoxin accumulation (Brown et al., 2013; Campbell et al., 1997; Zila et al., 2013).

Disease control strategies

Cultural practices, such as insect control, prevention of plant stress, crop rotation, changing of planting dates, as well as management of irrigation, fertilization and tillage, are useful to some extent for controlling maize ear rot and subsequent mycotoxin contamination caused by *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* (Bruns, 2003; Munkvold, 2003; Park and Price, 2001; Payne et al., 1986, 1989; Sampundo et al., 2007). Efforts have been made to control fungal infection and reduce mycotoxin contamination by early harvest and postharvest management (Bush et al., 2004; Chulze, 2010). But most *A. flavus* resistant maize lines are late maturing (Henry, 2013). Moreover, the sexual stage of *A. flavus* was observed in nature, indicating high evolutionary potential of this pathogen population (Horn et al., 2009;

McDonald and Linde, 2002). It is even more difficult to control *F. verticillioides*-associated ear rot because maize plants may recognize this fungus as a mutualistic endophyte.

Fungicide application does not affect either *A. flavus*-associated maize ear rot incidence or aflatoxin levels (Lillehoj et al., 1984; Mazzoni et al., 2011). But fungicide application significantly reduced maize seedling blight caused by *F. verticillioides* (Munkvold and O'Mara, 2002). In addition, *F. verticillioides*-associated maize ear rot and fumonisin contamination was also significantly reduced by insect control (Blandino et al., 2009; Mazzoni et al., 2011).

Antifungal compounds and biocontrol agents represent alternative strategies to protect maize against infection by toxigenic strains of *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides*. Bacteria, yeasts, and nontoxigenic *A. flavus* strains were tested as biocontrol agents for reducing *A. flavus* infection and aflatoxin contamination (Etcheverry et al., 2009; Lyn et al., 2009). Great success has been achieved by application of nontoxigenic *A. flavus* and *A. parasiticus* strains in corn fields (Dorner, 2009; Mehl and Cotty, 2011; Yin et al., 2008). One of the biocontrol strains produces CPA, the chronic toxicity of which may be underestimated (King et al., 2011). There are no commercial preparations for biological control of *F. verticillioides* and fumonisin contamination, but potential biocontrol agents have been identified (Bryła et al., 2013). One example is *Bacillus subtilis*, which shows the ability to inhibit *F. verticillioides* growth on maize (Cavaglieri et al., 2004, 2005a, 2005b). *Pseudomonas fluorescens* was also used as a biocontrol agent to reduce *F. verticillioides* infection and promote growth and yield of maize (Nayaka et al., 2009).

Furthermore, some microbes can be used as biocontrol agents to restrict the growth of both *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* on maize. *Bacillus amyloliquefaciens* significantly reduces *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* count in the soil (Etcheverry et al., 2009), whereas *Kluyveromyces* sp. *L16* limits infection by these pathogens on maize ears (Etcheverry et al., 2009). *Acremonium zeae*, an endophyte of maize, also inhibits growth of both *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* (Wicklow et al., 2005). It is likely that these biocontrol agents control diseases by competing against pathogens in the kernel. A number of studies also show the competitive relationship of *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* in the same kernel (Marín et al., 1998; Picco et al., 1999; Zummo and Scott, 1992).

However, these control strategies are not sufficient to eliminate maize ear rot and mycotoxin contamination caused by *A*. *flavus* and *F. verticillioides* (Munkvold, 2003). No strategy is effective when environmental conditions are favorable (Duvick, 2001; Payne, 1992). Developing resistant plant genotypes is one of the most promising strategies to control these diseases. Although progress has been achieved to unravel resistance mechanisms in maize kernels, it is still very difficult to identify resistance and introduce resistance genes into proprietary commercial lines (Brown et al., 2013; Campbell and White, 1995; Duvick, 2001). No commercial maize hybrid is completely resistant to these two fungal species. A better understanding of the resistance mechanisms would facilitate the development of resistant germplasms.

DEFENSE RESPONSE

Physical barriers

The husk and pericarp are the physical barriers that protect the maize kernel from pathogen attack. Good husk coverage and tightness contribute to resistance against *A. flavus* infection and aflatoxin contamination (Wicklow and Horn, 1984; Widstrom et al., 1987, 2003). Aflatoxin levels of loose-husked hybrids are approximately twice as high as those of tight-husked types (Widstrom et al., 1981). Good husk coverage also protects maize kernels from insect damage and *F. verticillioides* infection (Farrar and Davis, 1991; Parsons and Munkvold, 2010; Warfield and Davis, 1996). In addition, a large number of studies show that the wax and cutin layers of maize pericarp provide additional protection of the kernel from infection by both *A*. *flavus* and *F. verticillioides* (Brown et al., 2006; Guo et al., 1995, 1996, 1997; Hoenisch and Davis, 1994; Sampietro et al., 2009). Duncan and Howard (2010) suggest that the suberized membrane between the pericarp and aleurone also protects the aleurone from colonization by *F. verticillioides*. But once the kernel is damaged, these physical barriers likely will fail to prevent invasion of *A*. *flavus* and *F. verticillioides* (Johansson et al., 2006; Widstrom et al., 1981).

Pathogen recognition and signal transduction

Plants respond to pathogen attack by perception of the pathogen, signal transduction, transcriptional reprogramming, and accumulation of defense components. Disease resistance (R) proteins function in recognition of pathogen effectors and signal transduction (Martin et al., 2003). Maize *R* genes conferring disease resistance were analyzed using association
mapping and systematic analysis of the maize genome (Olukolu et al., 2013). But no dominant single *R* gene conferring resistance to either *A*. *flavus* or *F. verticillioides* has been identified, suggesting that resistance to this fungus is quantitative.

Hormone signaling networks play a central role in plant defense against pathogens. Typically, the salicylic acid (SA)-mediated signaling pathway is induced by biotrophic and hemibiotrophic pathogens, whereas resistance to necrotrophs is activated by jasmonic acid (JA) and ethylene (ET) pathways (Derksen et al., 2013; Glazebrook, 2005). Studies of developing maize kernels suggest that the JA pathway is the major player in defense against both *A*. *flavus* and *F. verticillioides* (Dolezal, 2010; Gao et al., 2009; Goodrich-Tanrikulu et al., 1995; Wilson et al., 2001; Zhang et al., 2005). Disruption of the maize *lipoxygenase 3* (*LOX3*) gene results in increased levels of JA and enhanced resistance to several fungal pathogens, including *F. verticillioides* (Gao et al., 2009), *Colletotrichum graminicola*, *Cochliobolus heterostrophus* (Gao et al., 2007), and *Exserohilum pedicellatum* (Isakeit et al., 2007). However, the maize *lox3* mutant shows increased susceptibility to *A. flavus* and *A. nidulans*, indicating this gene regulates defense responses in a pathogen-specific manner (Gao et al., 2009). Another maize LOX gene, *cssap 92*, is differentially expressed during infection of *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* (Wilson et al., 2001). The maize 12-oxophytodienoic acid reductases (OPRs) are also involved in biosynthesis of JA. Of the eight *OPRs* identified from the maize genome, *ZmOPR1* and *ZmOPR2* are transiently induced by *F. verticillioides* and other fungal pathogens, including *Cochliobolus carbonum* and *C. heterostrophus* (Zhang et al., 2005). Microarray studies also revealed that both LOX and

OPR genes were up-regulated during *A. flavus* infection (Dolezal, 2010). Methyl jasmonate (MeJA) inhibition of *A. flavus* growth and aflatoxin production was observed in both maize and cotton (Goodrich-Tanrikulu et al., 1995; Burow et al., 1997; Zeringue JR, 2002). The maize JA pathway is also associated with defense response to insects (Schmelz et al., 2003; Shivaji et al., 2010; Yan et al., 2012).

There is evidence showing that the SA pathway is associated with defense against *A. flavus* in maize kernels. Magbanua et al. (2007) showed that lower levels of H_2O_2 and higher levels of SA were detected in *A. flavus*-resistant maize lines as compared with susceptible lines. Although the SA pathway interacts with JA/ET pathways in an antagonistic fashion, a rich body of literature illustrates that all three pathways could be activated simultaneously in plants (Derksen et al., 2013; Mengiste, 2012; Niu et al., 2011). It is likely that both SA and JA pathways are involved in defense against *A. flavus*.

Additionally, *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* appear to manipulate the maize gibberellic acid (GA) pathway. GA signaling negatively regulates disease resistance by suppressing the JA pathway in rice and Arabidopsis (Achard et al., 2008; Navarro et al., 2008; Tanaka et al., 2006; Yang et al., 2012). In germinating maize seeds, GA is involved in hydrolysis of endosperm starch and proteins by stimulation of the synthesis of protease and α-amylase (Harvey and Oaks, 1974). The maize *Gibberellin 20 oxidase 2* is also up-regulated upon *A. flavus* infection, indicating changes of GA signaling in this pathosystem (Dolezal, 2010).

In maize kernels, starch degradation and premature germination often occur during infection of *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides*. Premature germination percentages significantly increased in *A. flavus* inoculated maize kernels compared to the non-inoculated kernels (Guo et al., 1996). Previous observations indicate that *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* infection induces changes in carbohydrate metabolism and sugar efflux in maize kernels (Campos-Bermudez et al., 2013; Chen et al., 2010a; Dolezal, 2010; Lanubile et al., 2013). *A. flavus* hydrolases are associated with digestion of the kernel starch during infection (Mellon et al., 2007). Dolezal, 2010 also reported that a maize gene encoding a β-amylase-like enzyme was up-regulated during *A. flavus* pathogenesis. Extensive studies show that the maize trypsin inhibitor (TI) is associated with *A. flavus* resistance by inhibition of the fungal α -amylase (Chen et al., 1998, 1999a, 1999b). Additionally, hormone signaling network associated transcription factors are induced by these two fungal pathogens in the kernel (Campos-Bermudez et al., 2013; Luo et al., 2011). Taken together, these findings suggest that infection by these ear rot fungal pathogens results in modulation of the host hormone signaling network and premature germination in some kernels.

In addition, maize reactive oxygen species (ROS) and programmed cell death (PCD) associated genes, such as the *glutathione S-transferases* (*GSTs*), were highly expressed upon infection by *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* (Campos-Bermudez et al., 2013; Dolezal, 2010; Lanubile et al., 2013; Luo et al., 2011; Zila et al., 2013). These two necrotrophic fungal pathogens could take advantage of PCD and acquire nutrients from the dead host tissue (Mengiste, 2012).

Constitutive and inducible defense response

Extensive studies reveal that both constitutive and inducible resistance mechanisms are associated with defense against *A. flavus* in maize kernels. Real-time reverse transcription-polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) studies indicate that a set of maize stressrelated genes is more highly expressed in *A. flavus*-resistant maize inbred lines compared with susceptible lines (Jiang et al., 2011). When the plants are challenged with *A. flavus*, fewer genes are differentially expressed in resistant lines than in susceptible lines (Luo et al., 2011). Of these genes that are differentially expressed in either resistant or susceptible lines after *A. flavus* infection, several are defense-related genes (Dolezal, 2010; Huang et al., 1997; Ji et al., 2000; Kelley et al., 2012; Luo et al., 2009, 2011). One example is *pathogenesis related 10* (*PR10*), which shows antifungal activity against *A. flavus in vitro*, and is induced upon *A. flavus* infection in the resistance line GT-MAS: gk, but not in the susceptible line Mo17 (Chen et al., 2006). Repression of maize *PR10* using RNAi gene silencing resulted in increased susceptibility to *A. flavus* infection and aflatoxin production (Chen et al., 2010b). Moreover, proteomic studies have shown that resistant maize lines defend against *A. flavus* by accumulating resistance proteins before infection. High levels of antifungal proteins are detected in the kernels, silks and rachises of the resistant lines in advance of infection, while the susceptible lines rely on inducible defenses (Chen et al., 2001; Pechanova et al., 2011; Peethambaran et al., 2010). By comparing embryo-killed and imbibed maize kernels, Chen et al. (2001) also found that both constitutive and inducible proteins were associated with *A. flavus* infection. Many of these genes and proteins identified from *A. flavus*-resistant maize

lines are differentially expressed after *A. flavus* infection, making them ideal candidates for further analysis (Table 1).

Similar to *A. flavus*, *F. verticillioides* induces more drastic gene expression changes in the susceptible maize lines than in the resistant lines (Campos-Bermudez et al., 2013; Lanubile et al., 2010, 2013) The pathogenesis-related genes are also transcribed at higher levels in kernels of the *F. verticillioides*-resistant lines before infection (Campos-Bermudez et al., 2013; Lanubile et al., 2010).

Compelling evidence suggests that distinct and shared mechanisms are involved in resistance to *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* in maize kernels. QTL studies show that resistance to *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* infection of maize kernels is significantly correlated, indicating existence of common resistance components (Robertson-Hoyt et al., 2006, 2007a). Microarray studies also show that both shared and distinctive defense mechanisms are involved in resistance to *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* in maize kernels (Campos-Bermudez et al., 2013; Dolezal, 2010; Lanubile et al., 2010, 2013; Luo et al., 2011). Accumulation of fungal cell wall degrading enzymes, including β -1, 3- glucanases and chitinases, is observed during infection by *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* (Cordero et al., 1993; Lozovaya et al., 1998; Moore et al., 2004). Additionally, maize zeamatin and ribosome-inactivating protein (RIP) are associated with defense against both *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* (Guo et al., 1997, 1999). However, gene mapping studies indicate that resistance to *A. flavus* ear rot, *F. verticillioides* ear rot, aflatoxin production and fumonisin

production may be at least partially under separate genetic control (Brown et al., 2010; Robertson-Hoyt et al., 2006, 2007a).

Previous studies demonstrate that maize resistance to *A. flavus* is associated with stress tolerance (Chen et al., 2002, 2004, 2007; Jiang et al., 2011). Drought tolerance as well as the abundance of wax deposits on the kernel surface contributes to resistance to aflatoxin production (Tubajika and Damann, 2001). Different levels of defense-related proteins were accumulated in aflatoxin resistant and susceptible maize lines under drought stress (Guo et al., 2008). Proteomic studies showed that *A. flavus* infection also changed the levels of many stress tolerance responsive proteins, including the late embryogenesis abundant proteins (LEAs), heat shock proteins (HSPs), a cold-regulated protein (CORp), the water stress inducible protein 18 (WSI18), and aldose reductase (ALD) (Table 1) (Chen et al., 2002, 2004, 2007).

Tissue-specific defense response

Maize kernels also show tissue-specific resistance to *A*. *flavus* and *F. verticillioides* (Bravo et al., 2003; Mideros et al., 2012). Mature maize kernels are composed of the pericarp, endosperm and germ (Fig. 1) (Coe, 2001). In addition to the starchy endosperm, the endosperm also contains the aleurone and the basal endosperm transfer layer (BETL). During kernel development, wax and cutin layers form over the aleurone cells on top of the pericarp. The aleurone, which is a single layer of cells beneath the pericarp, is enriched with oils and proteins (Geisler-Lee and Gallie, 2005). Extensive colonization by *A*. *flavus* and *F. verticillioides* is observed in the aleurone (Dolezal et al., 2013; Duncan and Howard, 2010).

Maize defense-related genes were detected in the aleurone during infection by these two pathogens (Murillo et al., 1999). The placental-chalazal tissue below the BETL forms the black layer during kernel development. The BETL at the basal end of the kernel plays an important role in kernel development and defense response to biotic and abiotic stresses (Miller and Chourey, 1992; Roitsch et al., 2003). Sucrose is broken down into glucose and fructose by a cell wall invertase (Inv-CW), and then imported into the kernel through the BETL (Cheng et al., 1996). The Inv-CWs are also recognized as defense-related compounds in maize and other plant species (Dolezal, 2010; Essmann et al., 2008; Leclere et al., 2008; Roitsch et al., 2003; Sturm and Chrispeels, 1990).

In the maize germ, the embryo is surrounded by the nutrient-rich scutellum. During seed germination, hydrolytic enzymes produced by the scutellum are recruited for starch degradation. The scutellum is also an active region protecting the embryo from pathogen attack. Two maize chitinase genes are expressed exclusively in the aleurone and germ during *A. flavus* infection (Wu et al., 1994a, 1994b). *Pathogenesis related protein*, *maize seeds* (*PRms*), is also induced in the scutellum after *F. verticillioides* infection of germinating maize seeds (Casacuberta et al., 1991, 1992). Bravo et al. (2003) suggest that *PRms* is only expressed in the epithelial cells of the scutellum infected with *F. verticillioides*. Another maize *PR* gene, *PR4*, is induced in the embryo cells that first establish contact with *F. verticillioides*, and is strongly expressed in the epithelial and the outermost parenchyma cells of the scutellum after infection (Bravo et al., 2003). A few other antifungal proteins also show tissue-specific expression patterns in the maize kernel. Maize zeamatin is mainly

localized in the embryo, whereas RIP is mostly localized in the aleurone and epithelium of the scutellum (Guo et al., 1999).

Figure 1. A vertical maize kernel section showing kernel components. Al: aleurone; En: endosperm; Gl: glandular layer; Sc: scutellum; Em: embryo; BETL: basal endosperm transfer layer.

DEVELOPING RESISTANCE

Breeding for resistance

Progress has been made in breeding maize hybrid lines that are resistant to ear rot and mycotoxin contamination caused by *A*. *flavus* and *F. verticillioides* (Brown et al., 2013; Eller et al., 2010). Since resistance to these diseases is quantitative, there is no evidence of complete resistance in these two pathosystems. Plant breeders have attempted to combine resistance traits of the resistant lines with those of commercialized lines through crossing and selection. A few maize lines are considered to be good genetic breeding sources (Guo et al., 1995; Naidoo et al., 2002; Widstrom et al., 1987; Williams et al., 2008). Six maize lines with aflatoxin-resistance and good agronomic traits have been registered and released by the IITA-Nigeria (International Institute of Tropical Agriculture) and the Southern Regional Research Center of USDA-ARS in New Orleans (SRRC) (Menkir et al., 2008). These maize lines also show resistance to southern corn leaf blight and southern corn rust (Menkir et al., 2008). Aflatoxin resistance associated QTL were also identified from three resistant maize breeding lines, Mp313E, Mp715 and Mp717 (Willcox et al., 2012; Warburton et al., 2009, 2011a). The first gene-based marker, the Mississippi marker 1 (MpM1) which contains a chloroplast precursor gene with multiple polymorphisms, was developed from the aflatoxin resistant maize breeding line Mp313E (Mylroie et al., 2013). Recently, new sources of resistance to *A. flavus* infection and aflatoxin accumulation have been identified from different maize lines using phenotyping and genetic association mapping (Mideros et al., 2014; Warburton et al., 2013). Some aflatoxin-resistant maize germplasms are also resistant

to *F. verticillioides* (Brown et al., 2001), indicating that breeding for resistance to both pathogens is plausible (Campbell et al., 1997; Duvick, 2001; Hamblin and White, 2000). The major QTL associated with resistance to both *A*. *flavus* and *F. verticillioides* are identified in maize kernels (Robertson-Hoyt et al., 2006; Widstrom et al., 2003). In addition, QTL associated with resistance to *Fusarium* spp. and QTL associated with agronomic performance are not genetically linked, indicating that dissociation of resistance from undesirable agronomic traits is possible (Robertson-Hoyt et al., 2007b). Other tools, such as molecular marker-based breeding and transgenic strategies aimed to reduce fungal growth and mycotoxin production need to be explored.

It is hard to quantify infection and colonization of *A*. *flavus* and *F. verticillioides* in maize kernels, making assessment of the disease severity extremely difficult. Traditional screening methods can select only for resistance to visible symptoms of *A*. *flavus* and *F. verticillioides* associated maize ear rot. Invisible infection by these pathogens may not be taken into consideration. To overcome these difficulties, standard protocols have been developed to quantify fungal growth and mycotoxin production in maize kernels using toxinbased and qPCR-based screening methods (Christensen et al., 2012; Duvick, 2001; Mayer et al., 2003). However, it is still very hard to analyze the severity of maize ear rot and mycotoxin levels due to the complexity of the symptoms and the variation between kernels. Novel approaches that can better quantify fungal growth and mycotoxin levels need to be developed.

The 'omics' tools to identify resistance in maize kernels

The information generated from the use of genomic, proteomic and metabolomic tools has revolutionized biological research and provided us with opportunities to achieve resistance in maize kernels. With the rapid development of high throughput 'omics' technologies, a large number of genetic markers associated with *Aspergillus*- and *Fusarium*ear rot have been identified from various maize populations (Kelley et al., 2010; Robertson-Hoyt et al., 2006, 2007b; Warburton et al., 2011b; Widstrom et al., 2003). These molecular markers could be used in the development of germplasm with enhanced disease resistance and reduced mycotoxin levels. Further studies need to be conducted to evaluate the effectiveness of these markers in breeding for resistance, and integrating resistance genes into maize lines with desirable agronomic traits. Moreover, the genome sequences of maize (Schnable et al., 2009), *A. flavus* (Payne et al., 2006), and *F. verticillioides* (Brown et al., 2008) are available, which greatly facilitate analysis of the data generated using the 'omics' technologies. Transcriptomic studies have been carried out on various maize organs at different developmental stages (Lai et al., 2004; Li et al., 2010; Sekhon et al., 2011). A set of gene and protein databases have been established for maize studies, including the MaizeSequence, MaizeGDB, MapMan, ProFITS, GRASSIUS, CoGePedia, and Maize Protein Atlas databases (Castellana et al., 2013; Doehlemann et al., 2008; Lawrence et al., 2004; Ling et al., 2010; Lyons and Freeling, 2008; Schnable et al., 2009; Usadel et al., 2009; Yilmaz et al., 2009). The Maize Gene Discovery Project (MGDP) sequence analysis software also offers a useful resource for pathway analysis (Lunde et al., 2003). Additionally, the

fungal secretome databases are available to analyze *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* secretory proteins (Choi et al., 2010; Lum and Min, 2011). Recently, several new databases have been established to provide information specifically for the maize disease research community. The Corn Fungal Resistance Associated Sequences Database (CFRAS-DB) was created using the integration of gene expression, proteomic, QTL, and sequence databases (Kelley et al., 2010). Another platform was established to identify maize candidate genes specifically for resistance to *A. flavus* infection and aflatoxin contamination (Warburton et al., 2011b). The information contained in these databases could be explored to unravel the mechanisms governing defense response to *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides*, as well as to develop resistance in maize kernels.

Novel strategies

Transgenic approaches have been used for developing resistance to maize ear rot and mycotoxin contamination caused by *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides*. Researchers have focused on identifying maize genes and proteins that target ear-feeding insects, ear rot fungi, and subsequent mycotoxin production (Brown et al., 2006; Duvick, 2001; Luo et al., 2009; Picot et al., 2010). Insecticidal protein coding genes from *Bacillus thuringiensis* (*Bt*) have been introduced into commercialized transgenic maize hybrids, which show enhanced resistance to insects and reduced aflatoxin and fumonisin levels (Dowd, 2000; Höfte and Whiteley, 1989; Munkvold et al., 1997). Moreover, overexpression of genes encoding antifungal proteins or genes involved in biosynthesis of antifungal secondary metabolites could confer resistance against these two fungal pathogens in maize kernels (Chen et al.,

1998, 1999a, 1999b). In addition, genetic engineering of maize plants with enhanced defense pathways is promising. Genes that interfere with mycotoxin biosynthesis pathways or are involved in detoxification of these mycotoxins are alternative candidates for transformation. One candidate is the maize gene *glyoxalase I*, which is involved in aflatoxin resistance by removing methylglyoxal (Chen et al., 2004; Bhatnagar et al., 2008). Methylglyoxal is known to facilitate aflatoxin production through up-regulation of aflatoxin biosynthesis genes in *A. flavus*.

In this review, we summarized our current understanding of the host-parasite interactions between maize and its fungal pathogens, *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides*. These two different fungi are capable of infecting maize kernels and producing mycotoxins. The economic significance of *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* associated mycotoxin contamination in maize products has prompted researchers to develop resistance in maize. With the use of novel proteomic and genomic tools, a set of genes and proteins have been associated with defense response to these fungi. There is an increasing possibility of unraveling the mechanism of resistance, and developing integrated resistance to both *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* in maize kernels.

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Chapter Two

Comparative Transcriptomics of Developing Maize Kernels Reveals Different Patterns of Response to *Aspergillus flavus* **and** *Fusarium verticillioides* **Infection**

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ABSTRACT

Aspergillus flavus and *Fusarium verticillioides* are capable of infecting maize kernels and producing mycotoxins. Pathogenesis and host response in these host-parasite interactions remain poorly understood. In this study, we monitored colonization by these two fungi in the kernel. Visible colonization of the kernel was evident at 48 hours post inoculation (hpi) and both fungi reached the germ by 72 hpi, but colonization patterns by the two fungi differed. We also analyzed transcriptome changes of kernels during infection by these two fungi at 24, 48, and 72 hpi using RNA sequencing (RNA-seq). The results show that a set of defenserelated genes was associated with both pathosystems, indicating a conserved response to fungal infection. Pathway analysis revealed that the signaling network regulated by plant hormones played an important role in shaping maize responses to these two pathogens. Of the known plant defense pathways, genes in the jasmonic acid (JA) and ethylene (ET) pathways appeared to be the most highly expressed during infection by both fungi. Infection by these two fungi also induced other changes in primary and secondary metabolism pathways of the maize kernel. These data indicate that both distinctive and shared mechanisms are involved in host response to pathogens of maize. The maize genes that are associated with defense response to both *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* are novel candidates to develop comprehensive resistance to both pathogens.

INTRODUCTION

Aspergillus flavus is an opportunistic fungal pathogen that can either live as a saprophyte in the soil or as a pathogen of many plant species. Hosts of *A. flavus* include

maize kernels, peanuts, cotton seeds and tree nuts (Payne, 1992; St Leger et al., 2000). Unlike *A. flavus*, *Fusarium verticillioides* grows primarily as an endophyte on maize. *F. verticillioides* can cause maize seedling blight, ear rot, and stalk rot under certain conditions (Bacon et al., 1992; Pei-Bao et al., 2010). However, both *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* can infect maize kernels and produce mycotoxins that are toxic to humans and livestock. Effective resistance to these two fungi in commercial maize lines has been difficult to achieve (Payne et al., 1986). A lack of understanding of the mechanisms of resistance has hampered the development of effective control strategies.

Plants have developed elaborate mechanisms to respond to various environmental cues, including attack by plant pathogens. Two strategies have evolved to detect pathogens. The first strategy involves recognition of conserved pathogen elicitors called pathogenassociated molecular patterns (PAMPs), which lead to PAMP-triggered immunity (PTI) (Jones and Dangl, 2006). PAMPs are detected by extracellular plant receptor proteins called pattern recognition receptors (PRRs). The second strategy is associated with recognition of pathogen effectors by intracellular plant receptors and initiation of effector-triggered immunity (ETI). Plant receptors, called resistance (R) proteins, are activated directly or indirectly by the pathogen. ETI is typically activated by adapted pathogens, whereas PTI is often associated with non-host resistance (Mengiste, 2012). Both ETI and PTI could be activated at the same time depending on the presence of effectors and PAMPs (Dodds and Rathjen, 2010). Previous studies support the idea that effectors from *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* are involved in infection of maize kernels (Bluhm et al., 2008; Dolezal et al.,

2013); but the mechanisms governing interactions between maize and these fungal pathogens remain unclear.

Infection by pathogens often induces both transcriptional and metabolic changes of the host. ETI is often associated with a hypersensitive response (HR) and programmed cell death (PCD). In *Arabidopsis thaliana*, recognition of biotrophic and hemibiotrophic pathogens is predominantly governed by ETI (Glazebrook, 2005). The salicylic acid (SA) signaling pathway plays a major role in the defense response to biotrophic and hemibiotrophic pathogens in plants. However, necrotrophs take advantage of host cell death and acquire nutrients from the dead tissue (Mengiste, 2012). Resistance to necrotrophs is mainly activated by jasmonic acid (JA) and ethylene (ET) signaling pathways. There is cross talk among the SA-, JA-, and ET-mediated pathways leading to both synergistic and antagonistic interactions (Derksen et al., 2013). Other phytohormone signaling pathways, such as the abscisic acid (ABA), auxin, cytokinin (CKs), brassinosteroids (BRs), and gibberellic acid (GA) pathways, also interact with SA, JA and ET signaling pathways and form a regulatory network in plants (Denancé et al., 2013; Derksen et al., 2013; Iglesia et al., 2011; Pieterse et al., 2009; Yang et al., 2013).

The plant regulatory genes encoding protein kinases/phosphatases and transcription factors (TFs) are the key players in activation of the innate immune responses (Brodensen et al., 2006; Zhang et al., 2012). Many TFs are targets of mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) phosphorylation which modulates nuclear activity and regulates gene expression. The WRKY, MYB, and basic leucine zipper (bZIP) TFs are the master regulators in plant

immunity (Bhattarai et al., 2010; Eulgem and Somssich, 2007; Singh et al., 2002). In the protein families involved in the transduction of signaling (ProFITS) database, 1025 kinase genes, 2543 TF genes, and 1046 ubiquitin-proteasome related genes were predicted in the maize genome (Ling et al., 2010). The ProFITS database provides annotation tools to analyze large-scale data sets generated by using the 'omics' tools, including microarray, RNA-seq, and proteomics technologies.

Progress has been made in understanding host-parasite interactions between maize and its fungal pathogens. Both *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* can invade undamaged maize kernels through the silk channel (Duncan and Howard, 2010; Marsh and Payne, 1984; Smart et al., 1990). These pathogens also enter the kernel through injury caused by insects and mechanical damage (Lillehoj et al., 1975; Koehler, 1942; Sobek and Munkvold, 1999). Once in the kernel, these fungi are capable of colonizing all kernel tissue types, and contaminating the kernel with mycotoxins (Dolezal et al., 2013; Duncan and Howard, 2010; Koehler, 1942). Microarray and proteomic studies have been conducted to dissect maize transcriptional changes during infection by *A. flavus*, *F. verticillioides* and *Ustilago maydis* (Brown et al., 2013; Chen et al., 2002; Dolezal, 2010; Kelley et al., 2012; Lanubile et al., 2010; Luo et al., 2011; Pechanova et al., 2011; Skibbe et al., 2010). Pathogenic development and internal colonization by *A. flavus* in maize kernels were paired with transcriptional changes in the pathogen (Dolezal et al., 2013) and host (Dolezal, 2010). In this study, we expanded their investigation of pathogenesis by *A. flavus* and conducted a parallel analysis of infection and gene transcription by *F. verticillioides*. Whereas Dolezal (2010) examined the expression of

approximately 9,000 maize genes by Affymetrix DNA microarrays, we employed RNA-seq to examine the expression of all of the maize genes in response to infection by these two fungi.

RNA-seq is a recent technology that enables the study of the whole transcriptome using an ultra-high-throughput ('next-generation') sequencing technology. This technology allows unbiased quantification of transcripts with a higher sensitivity and broader genome coverage than microarrays (Marioni et al., 2008). Fu et al. (2009) demonstrated that the accuracy of RNA-seq is higher than microarrays. RNA-seq has been proven to be a powerful tool to characterize the transcriptome of different plant species and to identify plant genes that are differentially expressed during pathogen invasion (Chen et al., 2010a; Kawahara et al., 2012; Kim et al., 2011; Li et al., 2010; Lu et al., 2010; Xu et al., 2011; Zenoni et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2010; Zhu et al., 2013). In this study, we monitored colonization of immature maize kernels by *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides,* and analyzed dynamic transcriptional changes of the kernel during colonization using RNA-seq. We identified a set of maize genes associated with these two plant-parasite interactions. These genes are potential candidates for marker-assisted breeding and genetic engineering.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Plant material, fungal inoculation, and sampling

Fungal strains (*A. flavus* NRRL *3357*, *F. verticillioides n16*) were grown on potato dextrose agar (PDA) plates at 28° C for 5 days. Conidial suspensions were harvested by adding sterile distilled water containing 0.5% (v/v) Triton X-100 (Fisher) and scraping the plates using a glass spreader. The concentration of conidia was quantified using a hemocytometer (Hausser Scientific) and diluted to 1×10^6 conidia/ml for inoculation. Maize inbred line B73 was grown at the Central Crops Research Station near Clayton, NC. Maize ears were hand-pollinated and covered with paper bags until inoculation at 21-22 days after pollination. Inoculation was conducted by wounding the kernel with a 3 mm needle bearing approximately 13 conidia. Kernels for the mock treatment were inoculated with sterile distilled water containing 0.5% (v/v) Triton X-100. Kernels from three biological replications (3 separate ears) were collected at 4, 12, 24, 48, 72, and 96 hpi for histology or transcriptome analysis. Kernels for histological analysis were placed in tissue imbedding capsules (Fisher) and fixed in modified FAA fixative (Table 1). Kernels for RNA analysis were frozen in liquid nitrogen immediately and stored at -80° C until RNA extraction and sequencing by Illumina HiSeq.

Tissue fixation, embedding, and microscopy

Kernels were fixed and dehydrated using the protocol modified from Livingston et al. (2009, 2013). Kernels were put in a microwave oven (Pelco) with vacuum at 35° C for 2 h (Table 1). The kernels were then dehydrated in the microwave oven with vacuum at $32^{\circ}C$ through a flex (Fisher) and xylene (Fisher) series (Table 1). Dehydrated kernels were embedding in paraffin (SPI) (Table 1). The paraffin blocks were sectioned with a RM2255 microtome (Leica) and mounted on slides (Gold Seal). Slides were dried on a hot plate overnight and stored at room temperature. Paraffin was removed by dipping the slides in 100% xylene (Table 2). Sections were then rehydrated with an ethanol series (Table 2).

Safranin and fast green staining were applied to differentiate tissue structure of maize kernels and the fungus grown in the kernel. The rehydrated sections were stained with safranin, dehydrated with an ethanol series, and counter stained with fast green (Fisher) (Table 2). Stained sections were mounted in permount mounting medium (Fisher) and covered with coverslips. Images of stained tissues were collected on an Eclipse E600 light microscope (Nikon). Images were captured on an Infinity1-3C digital camera, and analyzed with the software Infinity Analyze (Lumenera).

Table 1. Microwave fixation, dehydration, and embedding steps to process maize kernels. Table is adapted from Livingston et al. (2009).

* modified FAA fixative is 40% (v/v) distilled H₂O, 45% (v/v) methanol, 10% (v/v) formaldehyde, and 5% (v/v) glacial acetic acid.

Step	Chemical medium	Time
Paraffin removing		
	100% xylene	20 min
Rehydration		
	100% ethanol	10 _s
	95% (v/v) ethanol	10 _s
	70% (v/v) ethanol	10 _s
	50% (v/v) ethanol	10 _s
Staining		
	safranin	2 _h
Dehydration		10 _s
	50% (v/v) ethanol	10 _s
	70% (v/v) ethanol	10 _s
	95% (v/v) ethanol	10 _s
	100% ethanol	10 _s
Counterstaining		
	fast green	1 min
Post staining		
	100% xylene	until covered with coverslips

Table 2. Safranin and fast green staining protocol for sections of maize kernel at room temperature.

RNA-isolation, Illumina library preparation, and sequencing

Eight frozen kernels from individual ears were pooled and ground in liquid nitrogen with a mortar and pestle. About one hundred milligrams of ground tissue was added to 0.75 ml of saturated phenol, pH 6.6 (Fisher), and homogenized for 2 min. Samples were then dissolved in Tris EDTA buffer, pH 8.0 (ACROS Organics), extracted with 5:1 acid phenol: chloroform, pH 4.5 (Fisher), and precipitated with ice-cold 100% ethanol (ACROS Organics) overnight. Total RNA was further purified with an RNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The quality and concentration of RNA was analyzed using an RNA Pico chip on an Agilent Bioanalyzer. The cDNA library construction and sequencing runs were carried out using reversible terminator dye chemistry on the Illumina HiSeq by the Genomic Sciences Laboratory, North Carolina State University. Multiple samples with different barcodes were loaded in three lanes and sequenced to obtain 100 bp single-end reads.

RNA-seq data analysis

Illumina reads were sorted by barcodes, and adapter sequences were trimmed. The raw sequencing reads were then analyzed using the iPlant Collaborative Discovery Environment (Matasci and McKay, 2013). Reads of the same individual from multiple lanes were then concatenated using the software named 'Concatenate Multiple Files'. The quality of the reads was checked using FastQC 0.10.1 and then aligned to the maize genome (Ensembl 14) by using TopHat2-SE (Trapnell et al., 2012). Maize transcripts were assembled using Cufflinks2, and the gene expression levels were analyzed using Cuffdiff2 (Trapnell et

al., 2012). The MaizeCyc database and the bioinformatics software Biocyc were used for pathway analysis (Caspi et al., 2012).

Validation of RNA-seq data by qRT-PCR

Three μ g of total RNA was treated with DNase (Promega) for cDNA synthesis using a First Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit (Fermentas), and then qRT-PCR was performed using a SYBR® Green kit (Applied Biosystems) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The expression levels of the 18S rRNA gene were used for normalization. Data were analyzed by the comparative CT method with the amount of target given by the calibrator $2^{-\Delta\Delta CT}$.

RESULTS

Colonization by *A. flavus* **and** *F. verticillioides* **in maize kernels**

Maize kernels developing in the field were inoculated with either *A. flavus* or *F. verticillioides* and the colonization of maize kernels by each fungus was followed by histological examination. Colonization by each fungus was first observed in aleurone and endosperm tissue near the site of inoculation at 48 hpi. No fungal colonization was observed in kernels inoculated with either *A. flavus* or *F. verticillioides* and harvested at 4, 12 and 24 hpi. *A. flavus* extensively colonized the single layer of cells within the aleurone and cell death and disruption was associated with fungal mycelium (Fig. 1A). In contrast, many aleurone cells appeared intact during *F. verticillioides* colonization at 48 hpi (Fig. 1B). By 72 hpi, the aleurone and endosperm were colonized by both fungi (Fig. 1D-E). We observed *A. flavus* mycelium, but not *F. verticillioides* mycelium in the germ at 72 hpi (Fig. 1D- E). At 96 hpi, both fungi were observed in the aleurone, endosperm, and germ. The morphology of

A. flavus changed as it reached the embryo forming a fungal mat structure (Fig. 1D as reported by Dolezal et al., 2013). This specialized structure resembles the biofilm formed by *Aspergillus fumigatus* in human lung (Ramage et al., 2009). Compared with *F. verticillioides*, we observed that *A. flavus* more extensively colonized the kernel at 24, 48 and 72 hpi. The results are supported by RNA-seq data which show that the percent of *A. flavus* reads were consistently higher than the percent of *F. verticillioides* reads in the infected kernels at 24, 48 and 72 hpi, respectively (Fig. 1F; Table S1).

Figure 1. Colonization of maize kernels by *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides*. A, A vertical kernel section. B, The percent of fungal reads in the total reads of *A. flavus* or *F. verticillioides* infected kernels. C-H, Light microscope images taken from sections stained with safranin and fast green. Arrows denote fungal colonization. C, Aleurone of a mock inoculated kernel. D, *A. flavus* colonization in the destroyed aleurone layer. E, *F. verticillioides* colonization in the partially intact aleurone layer*.* F, The endosperm-scutellum interface of a mock inoculated kernel. G, *A. flavus* colonization at the endosperm-scutellum interface with the formation of a biofilm-like structure. H, The endosperm-scutellum interface inoculated with *F. verticillioides*. *Af*: *A. flavus*; *Fv*: *F. verticillioides*. hpi: hours post inoculation. Al: aleurone; En: endosperm; Sc: scutellum. Scale bars: 30 µm.

Dynamic changes of the maize transcriptome during *A. flavus* **and** *F. verticillioides* **infection**

Illumina RNA-seq was performed to explore transcriptome changes of kernels in response to *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides*. Approximately 6.17 to 42.31 million raw reads were generated in each sample. Over 99.9% of these reads were of high quality and used for data analysis (Table S1). Of these high quality reads, 36-88% was aligned to the maize genome and used to analyze gene expression levels (Table S1). The 24 hpi time point was chosen to capture the early defense response before visible fungal colonization was observed. The 48 and 72 hpi time points were selected to analyze the later defense response.

To explore the effect of wound inoculation on maize gene expression, non-wounded kernels also were sequenced. We compared gene expression levels of fungal infected kernels with non-wounded and mock inoculated kernels. Very similar results were obtained using the non-wounded and mock inoculated controls (data not shown). The results suggest that wound inoculation did not dramatically change host gene expression in our studies. Thus we used mock inoculated kernels collected at 24, 48 and 72 hpi as respective controls for these time points.

The CummeRbund volcano plots in Figure S1 show an overview of host gene expression changes between the pairs of mock inoculated and *A. flavus*/*F. verticillioides* infected kernels. Figure 2 shows the total numbers of up- and down-regulated maize genes over time in these two systems. Following *A. flavus* infection, 349, 254 and 1193 genes were up-regulated at 24, 48, and 72 hpi, respectively, while 51, 42 and 157 genes were down-

regulated at the same time points. The results indicate that many genes were differentially up-regulated early in the infection process. In contrast, 11, 260 and 868 genes were upregulated, and 0, 2 and 15 genes were down-regulated during infection by *F. verticillioides* at 24, 48, and 72 hpi, respectively. A few of the same genes were up-regulated at all three time points (Fig. 2B). A dramatic change in the number of up-regulated genes infected with *F. verticillioides* occurred at 48 hpi. Compared with *F. verticillioides*, more dramatic gene expression changes occurred in the kernel upon *A. flavus* infection. However, many genes were regulated in similar patterns by these two fungi (Table S2). Additionally, there were more differentially expressed genes in later time points than in earlier time points in both systems, revealing broader physiological and metabolic changes at later time points.

We verified the expression levels of selected genes by quantitative real-time RT-PCR (qRT-PCR) (data not shown). Although Walley et al. (2013) found that protein abundance and mRNA levels were poorly correlated in maize kernels; we also compared our RNA-seq data with maize kernel proteomic data (Castellana et al., 2013; Walley et al., 2013). Over five hundred of the total 1655 differentially expressed genes that we observed in this study were also detected at the protein level under normal conditions (Walley et al., 2013). Proteins encoded by the defense-related genes shown in Table S2 have been found in different tissues under normal growth conditions (Castellana et al., 2013; Walley et al., 2013).

To predict putative resistance mechanisms induced in kernels during infection, we assigned the differentially expressed maize genes into functional categories using MaizeSequence, MaizeGDB, MapMan, ProFITS, GRASSIUS, CoGePedia and Maize

Protein Atlas databases (Table S2) (Castellana et al., 2013; Lawrence et al., 2004; Ling et al., 2010; Lyons and Freeling, 2008; Schnable et al., 2009; Usadel et al., 2009; Yilmaz et al., 2009). To gain additional insights into the putative function of maize genes identified in this study, differentially expressed maize genes were placed into biosynthetic and regulatory pathways using the bioinformatics software Biocyc (Caspi et al., 2012). Figure S2 shows the overview of host metabolic pathway changes during *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* infection at 72 hpi. The results show broad transcriptional and presumably metabolic changes of the kernel during fungal infection. Genes associated with biotic and abiotic stresses, signaling transduction, transcription regulation, primary metabolism, and secondary metabolism were enriched during infection by these two fungi (Fig. 3; Table S2).

Figure 2. Dynamic changes of kernel transcriptome during *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* infection. Total numbers of up-regulated genes denoted by "↑", and down-regulated genes denoted by "↓" of treatment-specific and shared between/among treatments are displayed in Venn diagrams. A and B, number of maize genes differentially expressed in response to *A. flavus* (A) and *F. verticillioides* (B) infection at 24, 48 and 72 hpi; C, D and E, number of maize genes differentially expressed in response to *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* infection at 24 hpi (C), 48 hpi (D) and 72 hpi (E). hpi: hours post inoculation. Af: *A. flavus* inoculated kernels; Fv: *F. verticillioides* inoculated kernels.

Figure 3. Functional categories of maize genes differentially regulated upon infection by *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides*. Colored bars represent the number of regulated genes with annotated function. Positive bars denote numbers of up-regulated genes. Negative bars denote numbers of down-regulated genes. hpi: hours post inoculation. Af: *A. flavus* inoculated kernels; Fv: *F. verticillioides* inoculated kernels.

Expression changes of known and putative defense genes

As expected, genes associated with response to biotic and abiotic stresses, redox regulation, hormone metabolism and transcriptional regulation were differentially expressed in response to these two fungi (Fig. 3). By 24 hpi, a large number of maize genes were differentially expressed in *A. flavus* infected kernels, indicating that defense reactions were elicited by *A. flavus* before visible colonization was observed. Compared with *A. flavus* infected kernels, less genes were differentially expressed at 24 hpi during *F. verticillioides* infection (Fig. 3).

Of the defense-related genes transcriptionally induced during infection, an *R* gene (GRMZM2G032602) was up-regulated by both *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* (Table S2). Several leucine-rich repeat receptor kinase (LRR-RKs) and receptor-like kinase (RLKs) genes, which are putative *R* genes, were up-regulated upon infection by these two fungi (Table S2). Moreover, a number of *pathogenesis related* (*PR*) genes and *PR*-like genes were up-regulated by infection by these two fungi, including *PR-4*, *PR-5*, *PR-10*, *chitinases*, and *endoglucanases* (Table S2). However, *chitinase chem5* (GRMZM2G453805) and *endoglucanase 1* (GRMZM2G151257) were up-regulated only in kernels infected by *A. flavus*, and a *PR*-like gene (GRMZM2G178199) was down-regulated by *A. flavus* at 72 hpi. The expression level of this gene also was decreased slightly in *A. flavus* infected kernels at 24 and 48 hpi as well as in *F. verticillioides* infected kernels. Of the *PR*-like genes, two thaumatin-like protein genes were up-regulated by *A. flavus*. One of them was up-regulated

also by *F. verticillioides* infection at 72 hpi. Notably, none of these *PR*-like genes was differentially expressed during *F. verticillioides* infection at 24 hpi.

Expression changes of hormone signaling genes

Our RNA-seq data suggest that the host hormone signaling network plays an important role in the defense response to these fungal pathogens. Plants can synthesize SA from chorismate and shikimate (Wildermuth et al., 2001). A few genes associated with SA biosynthesis were up-regulated during *A. flavus* infection at 72 hpi, including the *benzoate carboxyl methyltransferase* (GRMZM2G126772), *shikimate dehydrogenase* (GRMZM2G107402), *3-phosphoshikimate 1-carboxyvinyltransferase* (GRMZM5G877500), and *Shikimate O hydroxycinnamoyltransferase* (GRMZM2G158083) (Table S2). The expression level of *benzoate carboxyl methyltransferase* was 32.94 fold higher in *A. flavus* infected kernels than mock inoculated kernels at 72 hpi. These data suggest that the SA biosynthesis pathway was up-regulated by *A. flavus* infection at 72 hpi. No SA biosynthesis genes were differentially expressed in *F. verticillioides* infected kernels. Additionally, a few JA biosynthesis genes, including a few *12-oxo-phytodienoic acid reductases* (*OPRs*) and *lipoxygenases* (*LOXs*), were up-regulated in response to both fungi (Table S2). Expression levels of the *OPRs* in *A. flavus* infected kernels were much higher than in *F. verticillioides* infected kernels, indicating that *A. flavus* induced higher levels of JA accumulation. Genes associated with ET biosynthesis and signaling, including the *1-aminocyclopropane-1 carboxylate oxidase* and *ethylene-responsive transcription factors* (*ERFs*), were also upregulated by these two fungi (Table S2).

We also observed gene expression changes in other hormone signaling pathways, including ABA, auxin, GA and BR pathways (Fig. 4; Table S2). A few ABA metabolism genes were up-regulated by both fungi, indicating the induction of ABA pathway in these two pathosystems. Of these ABA biosynthesis genes, *aldehyde oxidase* (GRMZM2G141535) and xanthine dehydrogenase (GRMZM2G019799) were up-regulated by *A. flavus* infection. Additionally, a set of auxin metabolism and signaling genes was up-regulated by these two fungi. However, the auxin biosynthesis gene *indole-3-acetate beta-glucosyltransferase* (GRMZM2G024131) and the auxin signaling gene, *SAUR11 - auxin-responsive SAUR family member* (GRMZM2G432060), were down-regulated during *A. flavus* infection. Furthermore, the GA biosynthesis genes, including the *gibberellin 20 oxidase 2* (GRMZM2G099467), were up-regulated following infection by both fungi. However, three GA signaling genes were down-regulated during *A. flavus* infection at 72 hpi, including the gibberellins receptor gene *GID1L2* (*GID1*) (GRMZM2G049675) and *chitin-inducible gibberellin-responsive protein 2* (GRMZM2G028438). However, another *GID1* (GRMZM2G104938) was upregulated upon *A. flavus* infection at the same time point. None of these GA signaling genes were differentially expressed during *F. verticillioides* infection. The GA degradation associated genes, *Gibberellin 2-beta-dioxygenases* (GRMZM2G031724 and GRMZM2G022679), were also up-regulated by *F. verticillioides* infection at 72 hpi. Additionally, we observed several BR biosynthesis genes and two *BRASSINOSTEROID INSENSITIVE 1-associated receptor kinase 1* (*BAK1*) genes (GRMZM2G349665 and GRMZM2G145440) that were up-regulated in these two systems. *BAK1* is an *RLK* known for its role in PTI and BR signaling in *A. thaliana* (Chinchilla et al., 2007). A set of CK

biosynthesis genes was also up-regulated in response to these two fungi except for a *cytokinin-O-glucosyltransferase 3* (GRMZM5G854655), which was slightly down-regulated by *A. flavus* infection at 72 hpi. However, the zeatin biosynthesis gene *isopentenyl transferase IPT2* (GRMZM2G084462) was down-regulated by *A. flavus* at all three time points.

Expression of signal transduction genes associated with host defense

In this study, we observed that a large number of kinase genes, TF genes, and ubiquitin-proteasome related genes were differentially expressed upon infection by these two fungi, including MAPK genes (Table S2). As expected, we observed TF genes that are associated with resistance to these fungi, including members of the WRKY, MYB, NAC, bZIP, zinc finger, and APETALA2/ethylene-responsive element-binding protein (AP2- EREBP) (Table S2). Members of these TFs are the key regulators in plant disease resistance and stress tolerance (Alves et al., 2013; Johnson et al., 2007; Li et al., 2011; Shim and Choi, 2013; Voitsik et al., 2013). One of the up-regulated MYB genes, *MYB 42* (GRMZM2G419239), is a negative regulator of the maize lignin biosynthesis gene, *caffeic acid O-methyl-transferase* (Fornalé et al., 2006). Additionally, two R2R3MYB TF genes were up-regulated by both fungi. R2R3MYB TFs were reported to restrict necrosis induced by biotic and abiotic stresses in *A. thaliana* (Mengiste et al., 2003). We also observed a set of

integrate ET and JA signaling pathways and regulate defense-related gene expression (Fig. 4)

AP2-EREBPs up-regulated by *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides*. AP2-EREBP TFs are known to

(Pré et al., 2008). However, a few TF genes were down-regulated upon *A. flavus* infection but not *F. verticillioides*.

Expression changes of genes involved in programmed cells death

In this study, we found that protein degradation and cell death associated genes were differentially expressed during *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* infection in maize kernels. As we described above, many ubiquitin-proteasome related genes were up-regulated (Table S2). Two of them were specifically down-regulated by *A. flavus*. The proteolysis-related hydrolase and protease inhibitor genes were also up-regulated by these two fungi (Table S2). In tomato, resistance to *Botrytis cinerea* is mediated by JA signaling and the JA-dependent genes, *protease inhibitor I* and *II* (El Oirdi et al., 2011). Cordero et al. (1994) identified a maize proteinase inhibitor gene that was associated with fungal infection, wounding, ABA and methyl jasmonate treatment. However, we found a few protease inhibitor genes that were down-regulated during *A. flavus* infection, including a cystatin gene (GRMZM2G401374). Cystatins are cell death suppressors in plants (Belenghi et al., 2003; Solomon et al., 1999). A few other cell death associated genes were also up-regulated in response to *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* infection. One example is the cell death suppressor gene, *lethal leaf-spot 1* (GRMZM2G339563) (Gray et al., 1997), which was up-regulated by *A. flavus* infection at 72 hpi. Maize *Lethal leaf-spot 1* mutants show enhanced resistance to fungal pathogens *Cochliobolus heterostrophus* and *Puccinia sorghi* (Simmons et al., 1998).

Figure 4. Hypothetical networking by phytohormones in maize defense responses during *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* infection. Black arrows denote positive effect. Inhibition lines denote negative effect. Red arrows denote genes or pathways up-regulated during *A. flavus* infection. Yellow arrows denote genes or pathways up-regulated during *F. verticillioides* infection. Question marks denote pathways up- or –down-regulated. ET, ethylene; JA, jasmonic acid; SA, salicylic acid; GA, gibberellic acid; ABA, abscisic acid; BRs, brassinosteroids. Figure is adapted from Pieterse et al. (2009).

Expression changes of secondary metabolism genes

Expression levels of secondary metabolism genes were greatly enhanced during infection by these two fungi, including the *glutathione S-transferases* (*GSTs*) (Table S2). One example is *GST 15* (GRMZM2G150474), which was also up-regulated by *U. maydis* at 12 hpi (Doehlemann et al., 2008). We observed that GST regulated genes were also up-regulated by these fungi, including a few *phenylalanine ammonia-lyases* (*PLAs*) and a *chalcone synthase* (*CHS*) (GRMZM2G422750) (Gomez et al., 2004; Loyall et al., 2000). Transcript levels of two phenylalanine biosynthesis genes were also significantly increased during infection by these two fungi. The major phenylpropanoids downstream of PAL are substrates of lignin and flavonoids, which are the source of anthocyanins and phytoalexins. Two anthocyanin biosynthesis genes were up-regulated in these two pathosystems, including a *leucoanthocyanidin dioxygenase* (GRMZM2G162158), which is a key enzyme in anthocyanin biosynthesis. Lignin and wax metabolism genes were also differentially expressed during infection by *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides*. Most of these genes were upregulated by these two fungi.

Expression changes of primary metabolism genes

Infection by these two fungi also changed primary metabolism of the kernel. We observed that genes involved in carbohydrate metabolism pathways were differentially expressed during infection by *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* (Table S2). A number of *amylase*, *invertase*, and sugar transporter genes were up-regulated by these two fungi, indicating changes of the starch and sugar biosynthesis pathways. However, the *miniature*

seed1 (GRMZM2G119689), which encodes an invertase, as well as two sugar transporter genes (GRMZM2G418343 and GRMZM2G087901) was down-regulated during *A. flavus* infection. In addition, a glycosyl transferase gene (GRMZM2G026889), a sucrose biosynthesis gene, *Sucrose-phosphatase 2* (GRMZM2G097641), and two UDP-glucose biosynthesis genes, *inorganic diphosphatases* (GRMZM2G032619 and GRMZM2G120079) were also up-regulated in these two interactions. Notably, changes of minor carbohydrate metabolism genes only occurred during *A. flavus* infection. Furthermore, we observed transcriptional induction of the tricarboxylic acid cycle (TCA) and calvin cycle during infection by these fungi.

We also observed gene expression changes in amino acid/protein metabolism and lipid metabolism pathways. Expression levels of numerous lipid metabolism genes were significantly increased during infection by these fungi, including two *LOX* genes as described above. Dramatic expression changes of genes associated with cell wall metabolism and modification occurred during infection by these two fungi, suggesting the induction of plant basal defense response by these fungi. Moreover, genes encoding transporters of amino acid/proteins, metal and various substrates were differentially expressed in these two systems, including the ATP-binding cassette (ABC) transporter genes. ABC transporter family members are known to be associated with disease resistance, detoxification and transport of diverse substrates (Cho and Cho, 2012).

DISCUSSION

We compared transcriptome changes in maize seeds in response to spatial and temporal colonization by two maize pathogens, *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides*. *A. flavus* is a saprophyte that can be an opportunistic pathogen of developing maize kernels, whereas *F. verticillioides* can establish both and endophytic and pathogenic relationship with maize kernels. We predicted that maize kernels might respond differently to these two organisms having different trophic lifestyles.

Infection by *A. flavus* resulted in the greatest transcriptome changes in the host (Fig. 2; Table S2). This could have been due to more extensive colonization by *A. flavus* than by *F. verticillioides*. When inoculated at the same position on the kernel, *A. flavus* was observed in the germ 24 h earlier than *F. verticillioides*. There was a common set of genes whose transcription was induced by both fungi (Fig. 2). For example, we observed a NBS-LRR resistance gene (Collins et al., 1998) reported to be more highly expressed during infection by *Bipolaris maydis* infection and to respond to SA treatment (Cheng et al., 2012). We also observed elevated expression levels of *PR*-like genes during infection by *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides*, including *PR4*, *PR5*, *PR10*, *Seed chitinase A*, *chitinase chem5*, *glucan beta-1, 3-glucanase* and *thaumatin-like proteins*. Some of these maize *PR*-like genes are important components in response to various stimuli. Accumulation of *PR-4* transcripts was observed in maize plants upon infection by *F. verticillioides* and *U. maydis* (Bravo et al., 2003; Doehlemann et al., 2008). Maize *PR-1* and *PR-5* are associated with chemical induction of SAR and resistance to downy mildew (Morris et al., 1998). But *PR-1* expression was not

significantly changed in this study. Another maize *PR* gene, *PR-10*, which shows RNase activities *in vitro*, has been found to be associated with *A. flavus* infection and various biotic and abiotic stresses (Chen et al., 2006, 2010b; Xie et al., 2010).

Some plant chitinases and endoglucanases, which may have cell wall-degrading activities (Bravo et al., 2003; Huynh et al., 1992; Wu et al., 1994a, 1994b), are also PR proteins functioning downstream of SA and JA/ET signaling pathways (Vidal et al., 1998). In maize plants, *chitinases* and *β-1, 3- glucanases* were reported to be involved in resistance to *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* (Cordero et al., 1993; Ji et al., 2000; Lozovaya et al., 1998; Moore et al., 2004). Sánchez-Rangel et al. (2012) found that Fumonisin B1 targeted beta-1, 3-glucanase of the germinating maize embryo. Holmes et al. (2008) also identified the maize seed chitinase A and thaumatin-like proteins as inhibitors of *A. flavus* fungal growth and aflatoxin biosynthesis. Members of the thaumatin-like proteins were characterized to be PR proteins in *A. thaliana*, barley, wheat and apple (Hejgaard et al., 1991; Hu and Reddy, 1997; Krebitz et al., 2003; Wang et al., 2010). These *PR*-like genes that we identified in this study are putative *PR* genes that might play important roles in maize resistance to a broad spectrum of pathogens.

In this study, we also identified several genes in maize encoding pathway enzymes for plant hormones that were differentially expressed in response to these fungi (Fig. 4 and 5; Table S2). Based on transcriptional profiling results, the defense response to *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* in maize kernels appeared to be predominantly governed by the JA/ET signaling pathways, which antagonize the SA signaling pathway (Glazebrook, 2005).
Members of MYB and ERF TFs, which are downstream of the JA/ET signaling pathways, were up-regulated in response to these fungi (Table S2). But the key gene in the crosstalk between SA and JA pathways, *nonexpresser of PR genes 1* (*NPR1*) (Mengiste, 2012), was not differentially expressed in this study. However, a few SA biosynthesis genes were specifically up-regulated during *A. flavus* infection. Additionally, the up-regulation of *PR-5* as well as several WRKY TF genes suggests that the SA signaling pathway may play a role in these interactions. WRKY TFs are the key regulators of SAR and *PR* gene expression in *A. thaliana* (Pape et al., 2010; van Verk et al., 2011). The role of SA in disease resistance is complex in plants. In *A. thaliana* and tomato plants, elevated SA levels enhance resistance to hemibotrophic pathogens, but promote susceptibility to necrotrophs (El Oirdi et al., 2011; Rahman et al., 2012; Veronese et al., 2006). Endogenous SA levels are higher in the monocot rice plants compared with the dicot plants tobacco and *A. thaliana* (Yang et al., 2004). The role of SA signaling in maize response to *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* needs to be further explored. In *A. thaliana*, WRKY, MYB and bZIP TFs are known to regulate the SA- and JA/ET-dependent systemic resistance (Dong, 2004; Durrant and Dong, 2004; Nimchuk et al., 2003; Wang et al., 2006). Expression of these TF genes appeared to be associated with induction of SA, JA and ET signaling pathways in maize kernels.

We also observed gene expression changes in the ABA, auxin, and GA pathways that affect the three innate defense pathways (Fig. 4), suggesting a complex regulatory network triggered by this fungus. ABA, auxin and GA mainly regulate plant growth and development. ABA and auxin signaling pathways suppress SA signaling in plants (Pieterse et al., 2009;

Wang et al., 2007). SA-mediated down-regulation of auxin signaling was also observed in response to biotic and abiotic stresses in *A. thaliana* (Iglesia et al., 2011). Elevated auxin levels and transcriptional induction of auxin-responsive genes were also observed in maize during *U. maydis* infection (Doehlemann et al., 2008; Turian and Hanilton, 1960). In *A. thaliana*, GA produced by *Gibberella fujikyroi* inhibits JA-dependent necrotroph resistance via GA-mediated degradation of DELLA proteins (Navarro et al., 2008). Hormones synthesized by pathogens may also alter the hormone homeostasis and interfere with the endogenous plant hormones (Navarro et al., 2008). Whether *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* themselves produce hormones and contribute to pathogenicity needs to be explored.

GA signaling is suppressed by ABA signaling in plants (Fig. 5). In maize kernels, GA stimulates the synthesis of protease and α -amylase to promote hydrolysis of endosperm starch and proteins, whereas ABA inhibits this process (Harvey and Oaks, 1974). Both SA and ABA antagonize GA-promoted seed germination in barley kernels (An and Lin, 2011; Xie et al., 2007). Our results indicate that up-regulation of ABA/auxin signaling pathways may contribute to the inhibition of SA signaling. The inhibition of SA signaling would attenuate host resistance and promote fungal colonization. Our data indicate that regulation of GA pathway is complicated during infection by *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides*. It is likely that both GA signaling and GA degradation pathways were changed during infection. Downregulation of the GA signaling pathway may release the inhibition of JA/ET signaling in the kernel. Additionally, our data indicate that various BRs and CKs are involved in defense against these two fungi. BRs are important components in disease resistance in *A. thaliana*,

tobacco and rice plants (Belkhadir et al., 2012; Nakashita et al., 2003). BR-mediated defense response with H_2O_2 accumulation was reported in maize leaves (Zhang et al., 2010). Previous studies indicate that CKs were involved in disease resistance in plants (Angra-Sharma and Sharma, 1999; Siemens et al., 2006; Walters and McRoberts, 2006). Changes of CK metabolism was observed during colonization by *Colletotrichum graminicola* on maize leaves (Behr et al., 2012). Taken together, we hypothesize that the hormone homeostasis plays a critical role in defense response to *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* in developing maize kernels (Fig. 4 and 5).

Our data revealed that transcription levels of *GSTs*, *PLAs* and *CHS* were significantly increased during infection by *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides*. Plant glutathione is thought to be the most sensitive soluble antioxidant responsive to biotic and abiotic stress (Ogawa, 2005). GSTs serve as antioxidants participating in reactive oxygen species (ROS) scavenging and reducing damage caused by pathogens or chemical-associated oxidative stress (Mauch and Dudler, 1993; Sytykiewicz, 2011). GST accumulation after *Alternaria brassicicola* infection was described in *A. thaliana* (Mukherjee et al., 2010). *GST* was reported to be associated with *Erysiphe graminis* infection in wheat (Dudler et al., 1991). During infection by *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides*, we observed up-regulation of genes involved in biosynthesis of secondary metabolites, including phenylalanine, anthocyanin, alkaloid, flavonoid, isoprenoids, phenols and phenylpropanoid. Members of these secondary metabolites are known antifungal protectants against *U. maydis* in maize (Basse, 2005; Doehlemann et al., 2008). Doehlemann et al. (2008) reported that anthocyanin accumulation

and induction of *leucoanthocyanidin dioxygenase* gene expression were associated with *U. maydis* infection. *A. thaliana*, anthocyanin accumulation was regulated by JA, which is a defense signal molecule (Shan et al., 2009).

Figure 5. Hypothetical interactions between maize kernel and its fungal pathogens *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides*. Arrows denote positive effect; inhibition lines denote negative effect. ET, ethylene; JA, jasmonic acid; SA, salicylic acid; GA, gibberellic acid; ABA, abscisic acid; CK, cytokinin; BRs, brassinosteroids. Figure is adapted from Denancé et al. (2013).

In addition, colonization by *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* appeared to remodel primary metabolism of maize kernels. Perhaps metabolic changes of the kernel provide essentially substrates for defense pathways. Carbohydrate metabolism pathways were impaired during infection of the kernel by these two fungi. In *A. thaliana*, amino acid homeostasis plays a critical role in the SA-dependent defense response (Liu et al., 2010). Our results also reflect the dramatic changes of cell wall modification, energy metabolism and transport of various substrates. The plant cell wall plays an essential role in pathogen recognition, signal transduction and activation of defense responses (Lloyd et al., 2011). Reinforcement of the plant cell wall is part of the basal defense response against pathogens (Egea et al., 2001; Underwood, 2012). Disruption of the plant cell wall by pathogen-derived cell wall-degrading enzymes often occurred during fungal invasion. Plants developed various strategies to attenuate pathogen attack, such as up-regulation of cell wall biosynthesis pathways to maintain the cell integrity (Mengiste, 2012).

In summary, we identified a set of maize genes that were differentially expressed during infection by *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* (Table S2). Several of these maize genes that we observed in our study have been reported to be responsive to either *A. flavus* or *F. verticillioides*, or both (Table 3).We deciphered similar patterns of defense response associated with *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* infection in immature maize kernels. Both ETI and PTI are likely to be involved in these two interactions (Fig. 5). Our results indicate that colonization by these fungi leads to accumulation of ROS, PCD, accumulation of secondary metabolites, and changes of the host regulatory network (Fig. 5). Hormone homeostasis and their regulatory network appear to be vital in disease resistance in maize. With this

information, we can start to understand and genetically engineer networks involved in host defense. Metabolic profiling and functional analysis of putative host defense-related genes could be conducted to characterize networks controlling disease resistance to these maize ear rot fungi.

Table 3. Comparison of maize genes and/or proteins that have been observed in this study and in previous studies. Af: associated with defense response to *A. flavus*; Fv: associated with defense response to *F. verticillioides*.

Gene and/or	Association	Association	Reference
proteins	in previous	in this	
	studies	study	
PR4	Af and Fv	Af and Fv	Bravo et al., 2003; Dolezal, 2010; Luo et al., 2011
PR ₅	Af and Fv	Af and Fv	Lanubile et al., 2013; Luo et al., 2011
PR10	Af	Af and Fv	Chen et al., 2006, 2010b; Dolezal, 2010; Xie et al., 2010
chitinases	Af and Fv	Af and Fv	Campos-Bermudez et al., 2013; Cordero et al., 1993;
			Dolezal, 2010; Ji et al., 2000; Lanubile et al., 2010; Luo et
			al., 2011; Moore et al., 2004; Wu et al., 1994a, 1994b
β -1, 3- glucanase	Af and Fv	Af and Fv	Campos-Bermudez et al., 2013; Chen et al., 2005; Cordero
			et al., 1993; Ji et al., 2000; Lanubile et al., 2013; Lozovaya
			et al., 1998; Luo et al., 2011; Wu et al., 1994a, 1994b
β -glucosidase	Af and Fv	Af and Fv	Campos-Bermudez et al., 2013; Lanubile et al., 2013; Luo
			et al., 2011
WRKYs	Af and Fv	Af and Fv	Campos-Bermudez et al., 2013; Lanubile et al., 2010, 2013;
			Luo et al., 2011
Mybs	Af and Fv	Af and Fv	Campos-Bermudez et al., 2013; Dolezal, 2010; Lanubile et
			al., 2010, 2013
LOXs	Af and Fv	Af and Fv	Dolezal, 2010; Gao et al., 2007, 2009; Lanubile et al., 2013;
			Wilson et al., 2001
OPRs	F _V	Af and Fv	Dolezal, 2010; Zhang et al., 2005
GSTs	Af and Fv	Af and Fv	Campos-Bermudez et al., 2013; Dolezal, 2010; Lanubile et
			al., 2010, 2013; Luo et al., 2011
Peroxidases	Af	Af and Fv	Chen et al., 2007; Luo et al., 2011
GLBs	Af and Fv	Af and Fv	Chen et al., 2001, 2002, 2007; Lanubile et al., 2010
LEAs	\overline{Af}	Af and Fv	Chen et al., 2002, 2007; Luo et al., 2011
zein	Fv	Af	Lanubile et al., 2010, 2013
HSPs	Af and Fv	Af and Fv	Campos-Bermudez et al., 2013; Chen et al., 2002, 2007;
			Lanubile et al., 2010, 2013; Luo et al., 2011
TIs	Af and Fv	\overline{Af}	Baker et al., 2009b; Chen et al., 1998, 1999a, 1999b, 2007;
			Lanubile et al., 2010; Tubajika and Damann, 2001
lectin-like	Af	Af and Fv	Baker et al., 2009a
protein			
protein kinase	Af and Fv	Af and Fv	Chen et al., 2005; Lanubile et al., 2010, 2013; Luo et al.,
			2011
protein	Fv	Af and Fv	Lanubile et al., 2010, 2013
phosphatases			

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Chapter Three

Aspergillus flavus **and** *Fusarium verticillioides* **Induce Tissue-Specific Gene Expression of** *PRms* **and** *Sh1* **in Developing Maize Kernels**

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ABSTRACT

Aspergillus flavus and *Fusarium verticillioides* are fungal pathogens capable of colonizing maize kernels and contaminating them with mycotoxins. Development of effective control strategies is extremely difficult because pathogenesis and host responses remain poorly understood. In this study, we monitored colonization and host tissue-specific gene expression during infection by these two fungi. Immature maize kernels were inoculated with either *A. flavus* or *F. verticillioides* 21-22 days after pollination. Kernels were harvested at 4, 12, 24, 48, 72, 96 and 120 hours post inoculation (hpi). Histological studies showed that the two fungi had a similar pattern of colonization. RNA *in situ* hybridization and qRT-PCR analysis showed that maize *pathogenesis related protein*, *maize seeds* (*PRms*) was expressed in the aleurone and scutellum during infection by these two fungi. However, *shrunken-1* (*Sh1*) was expressed in the embryo before fungal infection, and it was induced in the aleurone and scutellum by both fungi. By comparing histological and RNA *in situ* hybridization results from adjacent serial sections, we found that these two genes were expressed before visible colonization. These studies provide a better understanding of these two host-parasite interactions, giving additional information about the mechanisms conferring resistance to these diseases in maize.

INTRODUCTION

Maize (*Zea mays* L.), one of the most economically important and widely grown crops, is used for human food, livestock feed and alcohol production. Over 97 million acres were planted in the United States in 2013 (Data from National Agricultural Statistics

Service). Maize ear rots and mycotoxin contamination caused by *Aspergillus flavus* and *Fusarium verticillioides* are chronic problems in the United States and all over the world (Bush et al., 2004; Payne, 1992). Aflatoxins and fumonisins produced by *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides*, respectively, are carcinogenic secondary metabolites (Munkvold, 2003; CAST, 2003). Current management and breeding strategies are not sufficient to control maize diseases caused by these fungi. Breeding strategies have slowed due to the sporatic occurrence of the disease, the lack of reliable phenotyping, and limited knowledge on interaction of these fungi with their hosts.

A. flavus is an opportunistic fungal pathogen capable of infecting immature maize kernels under favorable conditions, including high temperature and water stress (Horn et al., 2009; Jones et al., 1980; Payne et al., 1998; Payne, 1992). Aflatoxin accumulation was detected in undamaged kernels, indicating direct infection of the kernel by this fungus can occur without obvious kernel injury (Anderson et al., 1975; Hesseltine et al., 1976; Lee et al., 1980). This fungus can invade ears through the silk channel or other openings in the husks. Once inside the ear the fungus colonizes kernel surfaces and enters undamaged kernels either through the pedicel region (Marsh and Payne, 1984; Smart et al., 1990) or through wounds created by insect or mechanical injury of the pericarp (Lillehoj et al., 1975; Smart et al., 1990; Widstrom et al., 2003). *A. flavus* colonization appears to occur in the later stages of kernel development (Payne, 1983), and once inside the kernel, the fungus can colonize all tissue types with the most extensive colonization occurring in the germ (Dolezal et al., 2013; Fennel et al., 1973; Keller et al., 1994; Smart et al., 1990). Other maize ear rot associated

fungi, including *F. verticillioides*, also infect the kernel at later developmental stages, and the route of infection has been associated with the pedicel (Bush et al., 2004; Johann, 1935; Koehler, 1942; Manns and Adams, 1923).

Unlike *A. flavus*, *F. verticillioides* is predominantly an endophyte in maize plants, but can cause disease in immature kernels under certain conditions (Cao et al., 2013; Munkvold et al., 1997). Koehler (1942) argued that *F. verticillioides* is the most prevalent microbe in maize kernels. Previous studies showed that this fungus enters the kernel through the silk channel of the ear, infects kernels and causes ear rots (Duncan and Howard, 2010). Insect feeding and mechanical damage of the kernel also facilitate invasion of *F. verticillioides* (Koehler, 1942; Maiorano et al., 2009; Munkvold, 2003; Sobek and Munkvold, 1999; Warfield and Davis, 1996).

Maize plants have evolved some common mechanisms to defend against ear rot fungi (Mideros et al., 2014). Physical and chemical barriers are extremely important in innate immunity of immature maize kernels (Johansson et al., 2006). A set of maize genes are associated with defense response to both *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* (Dolezal, 2010). The accumulation of antifungal compounds often confers resistance to fungal invasion in the kernel (Kelley et al., 2012; Murillo et al., 1999). Pathogenesis related (PR) proteins, lipoxygenases, α-amylase inhibitors, ribosome-inactivating protein (RIP), and zeamatin are known antifungal compounds in maize kernels (Casacuberta et al., 1992; Fakhoury and Woloshuk, 2001; Guo et al., 1997; Moore et al., 2004; Nielsen et al., 2001; Wilson et al., 2001). A set of maize genes encoding these antifungal compounds was reported to be

associated with defense response to fungal infection. One example is maize *PRms* (AC205274.3_FG001) which was associated with *F. verticillioides* infection in the embryo of germinating maize kernels (Casacuberta et al., 1991, 1992). Accumulation of PRms protein in the aleurone and scutellum of germinating maize kernels was observed during *F. verticillioides* infection (Murillo et al., 1999). This protein is thought to act as a defense regulator which possibly modulates sucrose and jasmonic acid (JA)/ethylene (ET) dependent systemic resistance (Gómez-Ariza et al., 2007; Huffaker et al., 2011). However, the role of this gene in the defense response to *A. flavus* infection has not been reported.

Changes in sugar metabolism are also associated with pathogen attack in plants, such as *Arabidopsis thaliana* (Botanga et al., 2012; Göhre et al., 2012), maize (Doehlemann et al., 2008), tomato (Berger et al., 2004), and grapevine (Santi et al., 2013). Maize *shrunken-1* (*Sh1*) (GRMZM2G089713) encodes sucrose synthase 1 (SS1), which is a sucrose-UDP glucosyltransferase (UGT). SS1 is involved in sucrose metabolism in maize kernels. The function of this enzyme is to catalyze the reversible conversion of sucrose and uridine diphosphate (UDP) into fructose and UDP-glucose (Xu et al., 1989). Fructose and UDPglucose are important substrates for various metabolic pathways, including cell wall synthesis pathways and respiratory pathways (Delmer and Amor 1995; Huber and Huber 1996). Cobb and Hannah (1988) demonstrated that *Sh1* is not essential for sucrose synthesis in maize kernels. But overexpression of *Sh1* and other starch biosynthesis genes results in elevated levels of starch in maize (Jiang et al., 2013), indicating the important role of *Sh1* in starch biosynthesis. Results from previous studies suggest that expression of *Sh1* is highly

regulated in maize (Hauptmann et al., 1988; Maas et al., 1991; Vasil et al., 1989). McCarty et al. (1986) found that this gene was highly expressed only in response to specific developmental and environmental stimuli, such as anaerobic stress in the root. Moreover, genes encoding glucosyltransferases were found to be associated with disease resistance in *A. thaliana*, wheat, tobacco and tomato (Fraissinet-Tachet et al., 1998; Ma et al., 2010; O'Donnell et al., 1998; Poppenberger et al., 2003). Expression of an *A. thaliana UGT* was significantly increased during colonization by the Rhizobacterium *Pseudomonas fluorescens* in the root (van de Mortel et al., 2012). Furthermore, the UGTs were also involved in detoxification of deoxynivalenol (DON) in *A. thaliana* and wheat (Ma et al., 2010; Poppenberger et al., 2003). But the role of *Sh1* in the interactions between maize and its fungal pathogens remain unknown.

Robertson-Hoyt et al. (2007) argued that maize genes associated with ear rots and mycotoxin contamination caused by *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* were identical or genetically linked. The maize lipoxygenase (LOX) gene, *cssap 92*, was reported to be involved in defense against *Aspergillus* and *Fusarium* spp. (Wilson et al., 2001). Dolezal (2010) also identified a set of maize genes, including *PRms* and *Sh1*, which were upregulated by *A. flavus*. But little is known about the infection processes by the two fungi, and whether their different trophic lifestyles affect tissue colonization and host response. How the host responds to these pathogens also remains unclear. In this study, we compared pathogenesis and host defense responses in maize kernels infected by *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides*. Dynamic changes in the distribution of fungal tissue and transcripts of *PRms*

and *Sh1* were analyzed. We found that these maize genes were expressed in a tissue-specific fashion before visible fungal colonization.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Plant and fungal materials

Maize inbred line B73 was grown at the Central Crops Research Station near Clayton, NC. Maize ears were hand-pollinated and covered with pollination bags. Fungal strains (*A. flavus* NRRL *3357*, *F. verticillioides n16*) were grown on potato dextrose agar (PDA) plates at 28° C for 5 days. Conidial suspensions were harvested by adding sterile distilled water containing 0.5% (v/v) Triton X-100 (Fisher) and scraping the plates using a glass spreader. The concentration of conidia was determined using a hemocytometer (Hausser Scientific) and diluted to 1×10^6 conidia/ml for use in plant inoculation.

Fungal inoculation and tissue collection

Maize ears were inoculated with either *A. flavus* or *F. verticillioides* in the field 21-22 days after pollination. Kernels were wounded with a needle bearing approximately 13 conidia. Kernels for the mock treatment were inoculated with sterile distilled water containing 0.5% (v/v) Triton X-100. Inoculated kernels were collected at 4, 12, 24, 48, 72, 96 and 120 hours post inoculation (hpi). Corresponding mock inoculated and non-wounded kernels were collected at 4, 12, 24, 48, 72, 96 and 120 hpi and used as negative controls. Three ears were harvested for each treatment as biological replicates. The greenhouse-grown ears were removed from the plants, inoculated with these two fungi, incubated in the greenhouse, and collected at 96 hpi. Three ears were harvested for each treatment as

biological replicates. Kernels for RNA extraction and qRT-PCR studies were harvested, frozen in liquid nitrogen immediately, and then stored at -80° C.

Histology

Kernels were collected in tissue embedding capsules (Fisher). Samples were fixed, dehydrated, and embedded as described previously (chapter two; Livingston 2009, 2013). The paraffin blocks were sectioned with an RM2255 microtome (Leica) and mounted on glass slides. Ten micron sections were mounted on Microscope Slides (Gold Seal) for histology staining and imaging. Adjacent twenty micron sections were mounted on Probe Microscope Slides (Fisher) for RNA *in situ* hybridization. Two adjacent sections were mounted on the same slides as two technical controls. Slides were dried on a hot plate overnight and stored at room temperature. The staining was carried out as previously described (chapter two; Livingston et al., 2013).

RNA extraction and probe cloning

Eight kernels from individual ears were pooled and ground in liquid nitrogen with mortar and pestle. Ground tissue was added to 0.75 ml of saturated phenol, pH 6.6 (Fisher), and homogenized for 2 min. Samples were then dissolved in Tris EDTA buffer, pH 8.0 (ACROS Organics), extracted with 5:1 acid phenol: chloroform, pH 4.5 (Fisher), and precipitated with ice-cold 100% ethanol (ACROS Organics) overnight. Total RNA was further purified with an RNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The quantity and quality of RNA was analyzed using a ND-1000 spectrophotometer (NanoDrop Technologies, Wilmington, DE, USA). Following

manufacturer's instructions, RNA was treated with DNase (Promega), and cDNA synthesis was performed using the First Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit (Fermentas).

 PRms and *Sh1* probe sequences were cloned using the PRms-1 and Sh1 primer sets, respectively (Table 1). RT-PCR was performed using Ex Taq (Chemicon). The PCR products were analyzed through a 0.8 % (w/v) agarose gel and cleaned using a QIAquick PCR purification kit (QIAGEN). The purified PCR products were inserted into the dual promoter vector PCR $^{\circ}$ II-TOPO $^{\circ}$ (Invitrogen) according to manufacturer's protocol, and sequenced. The vectors carrying *PRms* and *Sh1* sequences were linearized by the restriction enzymes Nco I and ApaL I, respectively. The antisense and sense probes were transcribed from the linearized vectors using the Riboprobe® System-SP6 and -T7 transcription kits (Promega) following the manufacturer's instructions.

RNA *in situ* **hybridization**

RNA *in situ* hybridization was carried out according to previously described protocols (Lincoln et al., 1994; Long and Barton, 1998; Franks et al., 2002). The hybridization temperature was 65° C. The sense probes of each gene were included as negative controls. Mock inoculated kernels were hybridized with both antisense and sense probes as biological controls.

Microscopy

Images were collected on an Eclipse E600 light microscope (Nikon) with an Infinity 1-3C digital camera, and analyzed with the software Infinity Analyze software (Lumenera).

qRT-PCR expression analysis

RNA extraction and cDNA synthesis were performed as described above. Primers used for qRT-PCR are listed in Table 1. QRT-PCR was performed using a SYBR® Green kit (Applied Biosystems) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The expression levels of maize *ribosome* gene were used for normalization. Data were analyzed by the comparative CT method with the amount of target given by the calibrator $2^{-\Delta \Delta CT}$.

Gene (accession number)	Primer usage	Primers 5'-3'
<i>PRms</i> $(X54325)$	Probe	PRms-1F: TACAATGGAGGCATCCAACA
		PRms-1R: CATTGATCGCAGGCACAAT
	$qRT-PCR$	PRms-2F: TACAATGGAGGCATCCAACA
		PRms-2R: CTGTTTTGGGGAGTGAGGTA
<i>Sh1</i> (NM 001279762)	Probe	Sh1-1F: TGGAGTAGCCTGCGTTCTACG
		Sh1-1R: TGCAGCCAATTCTCACCAT
	$qRT-PCR$	Sh1-2F: GGAGTAGCCTGCGTTCTACG
		Sh1-2R: GTCAATGTGCAGGCCAGATA
<i>Actin1</i> (NM 001155179)	qRT-PCR	ACT1-F: GCCTACGTTGCCCTTGATTA
		ACT1-R: TTCTGACCCAATGGTGATGA
<i>Ribosome</i> (NM 001158589)	$qRT-PCR$	Rib-F: GGCTTGGCTTAAAGGAAGGT
		Rib-R: TCAGTCCAACTTCCAGAATGG

Table 1. Primers used in this study.

RESULTS

Colonization of maize kernels by *A. flavus* **and** *F. verticillioides*

Histological examination showed that *A. flavus* and *F*. *verticillioides* followed a similar pattern of colonization in maize kernels grown in the field (Fig. 1). Initial colonization by the fungi was observed in the aleurone and endosperm at the site of inoculation at 48 hpi (Fig. 2A). Mycelia and conidia of *A. flavus* were observed in the aleurone, endosperm and germ at 72 hpi (Fig. 2B). In contrast, *F*. *verticillioides* was detected only in the aleurone and endosperm at 72 hpi (Fig. 2B). Both fungi were observed in all kernel tissues by 96 hpi (Fig. 2C). We also analyzed colonization by these two fungi in kernels from greenhouse-grown plants. We found that both fungi were also capable of colonizing all tissues in these kernels.

Both *A. flavus* and *F*. *verticillioides* colonized and disrupted cells of the aleurone. Colonization of the aleurone was often restricted to cells adjacent to the site of inoculation at 48 hpi. Fungal mycelium was observed in the aleurone distant from the inoculation site at 72 hpi. In colonized tissue, extensive disruption of the cytoplasm and nuclei was observed in the aleurone colonized by *A. flavus* (Fig. 1F). In contrast, many aleurone cells colonized by *F*. *verticillioides* were either partially destroyed (Fig. 1G) or intact (Fig. 1H). Only in the later stages of infection by *F*. *verticillioides* was extensive degradation of the aleurone observed, and again the colonization appeared more localized (Fig. 1O and P). In contrast, both fungi extensively colonized and degraded tissues of the endosperm creating cavities that often contained sporulating mycelia of the infecting fungus (Fig. 1I and O). In some areas,
these fungi were observed ramifying through the endosperm without obvious degradation of the tissue (Fig. 1J and M).

In this study little colonization was observed in embryo tissue. Colonization of the scutellum tip was observed in only a few kernels that were extensively colonized and displayed severe tissue damage. Instead, *A. flavus* often formed a biofilm-like structure at the endosperm-scutellum interface (Fig. 1J-K and Fig. 2C). In many cases the mat covered an extensive area of the scutellum before colonization of the germ was observed (Fig. 1K). No similar fungal structure was observed in *F*. *verticillioides* infected kernels (Fig. 1N). *A. flavus* colonization of the basal endosperm transfer layer (BETL) was observed at 96 hpi (Fig. 1L). However, *F*. *verticillioides* colonization was observed only in the basal aleurone and endosperm near the BETL region at 96 and 120 hpi (Fig. 1O and P).

Figure 1. *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* colonization in maize kernels. A, Maize kernel showing site of inoculation and general location of maize tissues. B-D, The mock (B), *A. flavus* (C), and *F. verticillioides* (D) inoculated ears. E-P, Light microscope images taken from sections stained with safranin and fast green. E, The aleurone of a mock inoculated kernel. F, *A. flavus* colonization in the destroyed aleurone; G, *F. verticillioides* colonization in the partially intact aleurone. H, *F. verticillioides* colonization around the intact aleurone. I, *A. flavus* colonization at the inoculation site. J-K, *A. flavus* colonization at the endospermscutellum interface and the formation of a biofilm-like structure with (J) and without (K) invasion of the scutellum. L, *A. flavus* colonization in the BETL. M, *F. verticillioides* colonization at the inoculation site. N, *F. verticillioides* colonization in the endosperm near the scutellum. O, *F. verticillioides* colonization in the basal aleurone and endosperm and the formation of a cavity in the endosperm. P, *F. verticillioides* colonization in the basal aleurone. Pictures were taken at 96 hpi. Arrows denote fungal colonization; hpi: hours post inoculation. *Af*: *A. flavus*; *Fv*: *F. verticillioides*; Al: aleurone; BETL: basal endosperm transfer layer; En: endosperm; Sc: scutellum. Scale bars: 3 mm in B-D; 30 µm in E-H; 200 μ m in I, M, O and P; 50 μ m in J-L and N.

Tissue-specific gene expression of *PRms*

To assess the timing and localization of host gene expression in response to these two fungi we used RNA *in situ* hybridization in sections of infected maize kernels. We observed transcripts of *PRms* in aleurone cells during *A. flavus* infection by 48 hpi (Fig. 2A). *PRms* transcripts were detected also in the aleurone and scutellum during *F. verticillioides* infection at this time point. At 72 hpi, *PRms* was expressed in the aleurone and scutellum of kernels infected by either *A. flavus* or *F. verticillioides* (Fig. 2, 3 and 4). Transcripts of this gene were localized in some aleurone cells (Fig. 2A-D, F and I). In the scutellum, this gene was predominantly expressed at the tip and in the glandular layer (Fig. 2B-D, F, H and I). It was also expressed in the tissue inside the glandular layer (Fig. 2F and I). During *F. verticillioides* infection, *PRms* was often expressed in the basal scutellum near the BETL (Fig. 2K). No *PRms* transcripts were observed in the mock inoculated kernels (Fig. 2E; Fig. 4H) or kernels collected at 4, 12 and 24 hpi (data not shown). No *PRms* gene expression signal was observed in the sections hybridized with the control probe (Fig. 4C, F and I). For the greenhouse-grown kernels, *PRms* was also expressed in the aleurone and scutellum during infection by these two fungi at 96 hpi.

Figure 2. Colonization by *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides*, and localization of *PRms* transcripts in maize kernels*.* Purple signal and arrows denote presence of *PRms* transcripts. A-C, Cartoon of vertical kernel sections showing colonization by *A. flavus* (green) and *F. verticillioides* (orange), as well as presence of *PRms* transcripts (purple) over time. A, At 48 hpi, *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* colonization at the inoculation site; presence of *PRms* transcripts in the aleurone. B, At 72 hpi, *A. flavus* colonization in the aleurone, endosperm, and scutellum; *F. verticillioides* colonization in the aleurone and endosperm; presence of *PRms* transcripts in the aleurone, scutellum tip, and glandular layer. C, At 96 hpi, *A. flavus* colonization in the aleurone, endosperm, scutellum, BETL, and at the endosperm-scutellum interface with the formation of a biofilm-like structure; *F. verticillioides* colonization in the aleurone, endosperm, and scutellum; presence of *PRms* transcripts in the aleurone, scutellum tip, and glandular layer. D-K, Light microscope images showing presence of *PRms* transcripts at 96 hpi. D, Presence of *PRms* transcripts in the aleurone, scutellum tip, and glandular layer during *A. flavus* infection. E, No *PRms* transcripts in the scutellum of mock inoculated kernels. F, Presence of *PRms* transcripts in the aleurone, scutellum tip, and glandular layer during *A. flavus* infection. G-H, Presence of *PRms* transcripts in the aleurone (G) and glandular layer (H) during *A. flavus* infection. I, Presence of *PRms* transcripts in the aleurone, scutellum tip, and glandular layer during *F. verticillioides* infection. J-K, presence of *PRms* transcripts in the aleurone (J) and scutellum near the BETL (K) during *F. verticillioides* infection. hpi: hours post inoculation; Al: aleurone; BETL: basal endosperm transfer layer; En: endosperm; Gl: glandular layer; Sc: scutellum. Scale bars: 1 mm in D; 30 μ m in E, G, H, J and K; 200 μ m in F and I.

Tissue-specific gene expression of *Sh1*

Shrunken-1 (*Sh1*) encodes sucrose synthase 1 which is involved in sucrose metabolism in maize plants (Xu et al., 1989). Our RNA *in situ* hybridization showed that expression of *Sh1* was altered upon infection by *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides*. *Sh1* was expressed in some aleurone cells in response to *A. flavus* infection at 48 hpi (data not shown), and at 72 and 96 hpi *Sh1* transcripts were detected in the aleurone and scutellum (Fig. 3A-C). However during *F. verticillioides* infection, *Sh1* was expressed in the aleurone at 24 hpi (data not shown), before the fungus was observed in the kernel. At 48, 72 and 96 hpi, this gene was expressed in the aleurone and scutellum (Fig. 3D-E). It was also expressed at the basal scutellum near the BETL region at 72 hpi (Fig. 3F). But transcripts of *Sh1* were not observed in the basal scutellum during *A. flavus* infection. Moreover, it appeared that *Sh1* was initially expressed at the scutellum tip and the glandular layer. Unlike *PRms*, *Sh1* was also expressed in the embryo regardless of fungal infection (Fig. 3E and I). We observed *Sh1* transcripts in the embryo of some mock inoculated (Fig. 3I) and non-wounded kernels. But transcripts of *Sh1* were not observed in the aleurone of either mock inoculated or non-wounded kernels (data not shown). *Sh1* transcripts were also detected in kernels inoculated with these two fungi and collected at 4 and 12 hpi (data not shown). However, *Sh1* was not expressed in the aleurone (Fig. 3G) and scutellum (Fig. 3H) of either mock inoculated or non-wounded kernels. *Sh1* transcripts were also absent for the aleurone and scutellum of fungal inoculated kernels collected at 4 and 12 hpi (data not shown). Thus in field-grown plants, *Sh1* was expressed in the embryo independent of fungal infection, but its expression in the aleurone

and scutellum was induced upon colonization by these two fungi. Additionally, no *Sh1* signal was observed in the sections hybridized with control probe (data not shown).

For kernels from greenhouse-grown plants, the expression pattern of *Sh1* was slightly different from the field-grown kernels. It was consistently expressed in the scutellum of *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* infected kernels at 96 hpi (data not shown). Transcripts of this gene were observed only in the aleurone of some kernels inoculated with *F. verticillioides* (data not shown). No *Sh1* transcripts were observed in the aleurone of the greenhouse-grown kernels infected with *A. flavus* (data not shown).

Figure 3. *Sh1* gene expression in the *A. flavus*, *F. verticillioides*, and mock inoculated maize kernels. A-C, *Sh1* gene expression in the aleurone (A), outermost layer of scutellum (B), and inner areas of scutellum (C) during infection by *A. flavus*. D-F, *Sh1* gene expression in the aleurone (D), scutellum and embryo (E), and scutellum near the BETL (F) during infection by *F. verticillioides*. G-H, No *Sh1* gene expression in the aleurone (G) and scutellum (H) of the mock inoculated kernel. I, *Sh1* gene expression in the embryo of the mock inoculated kernel. Sections were hybridized with *Sh1* probe. Kernels were collected at 72 hours post inoculation. Purple signal shows *Sh1* gene expression. Al: aleurone; BETL: basal endosperm transfer layer; Em: embryo; En: endosperm; Sc: scutellum. Scale bars: 30 µm in A, C, D, F and G I; $200 \mu m$ in B, E, H and I.

Tissue-specific gene expression of *PRms* **and** *Sh1* **before fungal colonization**

By comparing histological and RNA *in situ* hybridization results from adjacent serial sections, we found that both *PRms* (Fig. 4) and *Sh1* (data not shown) were expressed in a tissue-specific fashion before visible fungal colonization. Transcripts of these two genes were detected in tissues where visible fungal colonization was not observed. The results indicate that the kernel responds to fungal invasion in advance of visible fungal colonization. Additionally, transcripts of both *PRms* and *Sh1* were observed in some scutellum cells colonized by these two fungi (data not shown), indicating these scutellum cells were still alive. However, no *PRms* or *Sh1* transcripts were detected in the aleurone cells that were colonized by these two fungi. It appeared that these aleurone cells were killed during infection by these two necrotrophic fungi.

Figure 4. Activation of *PRms* gene expression before visible fungal colonization. A-C, Adjacent serial sections of *A. flavus* inoculated kernel stained with safranin and fast green (A), hybridized with *PRms* probe (B), and hybridized with control probe (C). Purple signal shows *PRms* gene expression. A, *A. flavus* was not detected. B, *PRms* gene expression in the aleurone and scutellum tip during infection by *A. flavus*. C, No signal was observed in the section hybridized with control probe. D-F, Adjacent serial sections of *F. verticillioides* inoculated kernel stained with safranin and fast green (D), hybridized with *PRms* probe (E), and control probe (F). D, *F. verticillioides* was not detected. E, *PRms* gene expression in the aleurone and scutellum tip during infection by *F. verticillioides*. F, No signal was observed in the section hybridized with control probe. G-I, Adjacent serial sections of mock inoculated kernel stained with safranin and fast green (G), hybridized with *PRms* probe (H), and control probe (I). G, Fungal colonization was not detected. H, No *PRms* gene expression was detected. I, No signal was observed in the control section. Kernels were collected at 72 hours post inoculation; Al: aleurone; En: endosperm; Sc: scutellum. Scale bars: 50 µm.

Quantification of *PRms* **and** *Sh1* **gene expression**

Gene expression levels of *PRms* and *Sh1* were quantified by quantitative real-time RT-PCR (qRT-PCR) (Fig. 5). The results showed that *PRms* was not expressed in mock inoculated or non-wounded kernels nor inoculated kernels collected at 4 and 12 hpi (Fig. 5A). However, both fungi activated expression of this gene at 24, 48 and 72 hpi. Compared with the samples collected at 24 and 48 hpi, expression levels of *PRms* increased at 72 hpi upon infection by these two fungi. This finding is in agreement with the RNA *in situ* hybridization results.

However, *Sh1* was not differentially expressed during infection by these two fungi compared with non-wounded samples (Fig. 5B)*.* It is likely that the total amount of *Sh1* transcripts in the kernel was not changed during fungal infection. *Sh1* was expressed in the embryo before fungal colonization which was confirmed by RNA *in situ* hybridization (Fig. 3I). During infection by *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides*, expression of this gene was specifically activated in the aleurone and scutellum (Fig. 3A-F).

Figure 5. qRT-PCR analysis of *PRms* and *Sh1* gene expression in maize kernels during infection by *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides*. A, *PRms* gene expression. B, *Sh1* gene expression. Expression levels were normalized by the maize *ribosome* gene, and were relative to the non-wounded kernels. hpi: hours post inoculation; *Af*: *A. flavus*; *Fv*: *F. verticillioides*.

DISCUSSION

Both *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* can cause maize ear rot and produce mycotoxins. We provide information of the colonization of kernels by these two fungi, and the time at which maize kernel tissue responds to infection. These two fungi were observed to follow a similar, but not identical pattern of seed colonization. We found that two maize genes, *PRms* and *Sh1,* were expressed in the aleurone and scutellum in advance of visible colonization by both fungi.

A. flavus **and** *F. verticillioides* **followed a similar pattern of colonization**

Both fungi were detected in the aleurone and endosperm at the inoculation site at 48 hpi, and reached all tissues at 72 hpi (Fig. 1). Perhaps structural or chemical characteristics of kernels favor a common path of colonization, or the two fungi share common pathogenicity factors necessary for colonizing maize kernels. Previous PCR studies showed that *A. flavus* was detected in the endosperm as early as 24 hpi and in the germ at 72 hpi (Dolezal et al., 2013). But in our study neither microscopic nor macroscopic symptoms were observed in inoculated kernels until 48 hpi. As was found by Dolezal et al. (2013) we observed both fungi in the aleurone, endosperm and germ 72 h after *A. flavus* inoculation.

At the onset of these studies we predicted that these two fungi might differ in their colonization of maize kernels because of described differences in their trophic behavior. Whereas *A. flavus* has been described as either a necrotroph or saprobe, *F. verticillioides* is considered an endophyte that can become a pathogen under certain environmental conditions (Munkvold et al., 1997; Payne, 1992).Consistent with the proposed lifestyles of these two

fungi, we observed that most of the aleurone cells were destroyed early during colonization by *A. flavus.* In contrast, aleurone cells colonized by *F*. *verticillioides* often remained intact even when visible fungal mycelium was observed around the host cells (Fig. 1G and H). It was not possible in our experiments to determine if the cells remained viable during the early stages of colonization. These differences in colonization of the aleurone tissue were observed even though we wounded the kernels during inoculation.

Previous studies suggested that endophytic growth of *F. verticillioides* in the aleurone was present only in nonsymptomatic maize kernels (Bacon et al., 2008; Duncan and Howard, 2010). A symptom associated with diseased kernels is starbursting. We did not observe starbusting in our studies as a consequence of infection by *F. verticillioides* perhaps due to our experimental design. Our observations do suggest that extensive colonization of kernels by *F. verticillioides* can occur without visible macroscopic symptoms of rot.

Infection of maize kernels by *A. flavus* was often associated with the formation of a biofilm-like structure at the endosperm-scutellum interface (Fig. 1J and K). This specialized structure of *A. flavus* also resembles the *A. fumigates* biofilm formed in human lung (Lousert et al., 2010). From our studies it was not possible to show that this structure was absolutely required for infection. It is likely that the *A. flavus* biofilm-like structure was formed in response to the seed environment in this region, perhaps because of the secretion of toxic compounds by the scutellum. Brown et al. (2009) showed that the oxygenase signaling network in *A. flavus* regulated a quorum-sensing mechanism governing density-dependent development, secondary metabolism, and host seed colonization of maize and peanut. It is

possible that oxygenase coordination is also associated with the formation of this biofilm-like structure at the endosperm-scutellum interface.

A. flavus **and** *F. verticillioides* **induced tissue-specific gene expression**

Maize aleurone and scutellum tissues are enriched in metabolites that are important substrates for hydrolytic enzymes secreted during seed germination. Antifungal compounds are known to accumulate in these tissues during pathogen infection (Balandin et al., 2005; Casacuberta et al., 1992; Chen et al., 2007; Guo et al., 1999; Royo et al., 2006). *PRms* is a well-studied defense-related gene in maize (Casacuberta et al., 1991; Casacuberta et al., 1992). *Sh1* is involved in sucrose degradation in maize kernels (Xu et al., 1989). *Sh1* was also observed to be differentially expressed upon *A. flavus* infection (Dolezal, 2010). Our RNA *in situ* hybridization data showed that the aleurone and scutellum expressed *PRms* and *Sh1* upon infection by *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides*. These observations suggest that these two tissues are important for pathogen recognition and/or important sources of defense related compounds in the kernel. The induction of *PRms* often occurred first and its transcript levels were the highest at the tip of the scutellum. Colonization by these two fungi in the scutellum tip was rarely observed, perhaps because of an accumulation of defense-related compounds in this region. This suggests that increasing the expression levels or changing the timing of expression of defense related genes in this tissue may lead to enhanced resistance in the seed.

Our RNA *in situ* hybridization data support previous studies showing that *PRms* was expressed upon *F. verticillioides* infection in germinating maize kernels (Casacuberta et al.,

1991, 1992). In our study, we found that expression of this gene was associated with both *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* infection in the aleurone and scutellum. Additionally, we showed that the maize sugar degradation gene, *Sh1*, was expressed in the aleurone and scutellum during infection by these two fungi. Expression of *PRms* and *Sh1* occurred in the scutellum at 48 hpi upon *F. verticillioides* infection. But both genes were activated in the same tissue at 72 hpi in response to *A. flavus* infection. Although *A. flavus* more aggressively colonized the kernel and reached the germ earlier, these two genes were activated in tissues by *F. verticillioides* more quickly. Our hypothesis is that the kernel recognized *F. verticillioides* early and employed very efficient defense pathways. Moreover, *Sh1* was expressed in the aleurone 24 hours earlier than *PRms* during *F. verticillioides* infection. Furthermore, *Sh1* was expressed in the embryo regardless of fungal infection, and it was induced in the aleurone and scutellum by these two fungi. However, Wittich and Vreugdenhil (1998) argued that Sh1 protein was localized in the aleurone, endosperm and embryo. The difference may be due to the use of the maize hybrid line A188 in their studies, whereas we used the inbred line B73. Moreover, they did a histochemical enzyme assay to localize the Sh1 enzyme, and we did RNA *in situ* hybridization to localize the mRNA of *Sh1* in kernel tissues.

Possible resistance mechanisms involved in these host-parasite interactions

The plant signaling network plays a major role in balancing plant growth and defense responses to biotic and abiotic stresses (Denancé et al., 2013). *PRms* is postulated to function downstream of the sucrose and JA/ET signaling pathways (Gómez-Ariza et al., 2007; Huffaker et al., 2011). *Sh1* is involved in conversion of sucrose and UDP into fructose and

UDP-glucose (Xu et al., 1989). Upregulation of *Sh1* was also observed in maize leaves upon *U. maydis* infection, whereas sucrose contents were slightly increased in this interaction (Doehlemann et al., 2008). This gene was also reported to be associated with plant-microbe interactions in other plant species (Fraissinet-Tachet et al., 1998; Ma et al., 2010; O'Donnell et al., 1998; Poppenberger et al., 2003; van de Mortel et al., 2012). It is plausible that both *PRms* and *Sh1* are involved in the maize signaling network. Maize kernels have developed complex regulatory networks to reallocate the carbon source from growth and development to defense response (Doehlemann et al., 2008). Changes of carbon metabolism genes were observed in maize root during drought stress (Spollen et al., 2008). Induction of *Sh1* might enhance the sucrose degradation pathway and provide substrates for the synthesis of defense compounds (Cobb and Hannah, 1988; Delmer and Amor, 1995; Huber and Huber, 1996). Moreover, the fungal pathogens could employ some strategies to reprogram the maize sugar metabolism pathways and acquire nutrients from the host. The molecular mechanisms that govern these plant-parasite interactions need to be explored.

Summary

Safranin and fast green staining allowed sensitive detection of fungal mycelium and conidia within the maize seeds and thus it was possible to determine the location of the fungi within tissue types during colonization. Similarly, because of its ability to detect for both rare and abundant transcripts, RNA *in situ* hybridization allowed us to determine the temporal and spatial expression of genes in response to infection. By using these two powerful technologies in adjacent serial sections, we were able to follow fungal colonization and

tissue-specific gene expression in adjacent tissues. Maize *PRms* and *Sh1* were expressed in tissues before visible fungal colonization, indicating that the tissue responded to infection before it was colonized by the fungus. The long-distance signals involved in recognition of these fungi might be either plant endogenous signaling molecules or unknown fungal secretory factors.

In this study, we found that both *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* colonized all tissue types of immature maize kernels, and triggered tissue-specific expression of *PRms* and *Sh1*. These genes could be used as markers for breeding or genetic engineering.

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APPENDIX

Appendix A

Molecular Characterization and Functional Analysis of a Gene Family Encoding Necrosis- and Ethylene-Inducing Proteins in *Aspergillus flavus*

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ABSTRACT

Necrosis- and ethylene-inducing protein (Nep)-like proteins (NLPs) are a novel family of microbial elicitors from fungi, oomycetes and bacteria. Many members of NLPs are able to cause necrosis and activate a host defense response in dicotyledonous plants. In this study, we analyzed the *NLP* family members of *Aspergillus flavus*: *nepA*, *nepB* and *nepC*. The three predicted *A. flavus* NLPs contain transmembrane signal peptides and conserved amino acid residues that are critical for necrosis-inducing activity. Expression analysis revealed that these *A. flavus NLPs* were not expressed when grown on potato dextrose broth (PDB). However, all the three *NLPs* were expressed during early pathogenesis on immature maize kernels. One of the *NLPs*, *nepA*, is more highly expressed during colonization of living kernels compared with autoclaved kernels. Targeted deletion of *nepA* resulted in impaired vegetative growth and reduced conidiation on potato dextrose agar (PDA) plates. But vegetative growth and conidiation of *A. flavus* on corn extract medium (CEM) and on minimal medium (MLS) were not affected by deletion of *nepA*. Moreover, the *∆nepA* strain showed reduced pathogenicity in immature maize kernels. Overexpression (OE) of *nepA* in *A. flavus* resulted in increased growth in the aleurone of some maize kernels. But vegetative growth and conidiation on media were not affected by overexpression of *nepA*. Infiltration of *A. flavus* liquid culture into tobacco leaves revealed that the *nepA* OE strains were capable of causing necrosis. However, the *nepA* OE strains failed to cause necrosis in either *Arabidopsis thaliana* or maize seedlings. In summary, we found that the three *A. flavus NLPs* we expressed during pathogenesis, and *nepA* appears to be required for full virulence on maize kernels.

INTRODUCTION

Infectious plant pathogens employ wide-ranging virulence strategies to overcome the multifaceted host immune system and successfully invade their host plants. To disarm the pathogenic arsenal or attenuate its effect, plants have evolved effector-triggered immunity (ETI) and pathogen-associated molecular pattern (PAMP)-triggered immunity (PTI) pathways. ETI is typically activated by host-specific pathogen effectors, and characterized by programmed cell death (PCD), a reaction known as the hypersensitive response (HR) (Jones and Dangl, 2006). PTI is often associated with non-host resistance (Jones and Dangl, 2006). However, necrotrophic pathogens promote host cell death and acquire nutrients from dead tissue for growth and reproduction (Mengiste, 2012). Nonspecific toxins produced by broad host-range necrotrophs function most likely through triggering host cell death that mimics the plant immune response, and thus promotes infection. An example of such toxins are the necrosis- and ethylene-inducing protein 1 (Nep1)-like proteins (NLPs) produced by fungi, oomycetes and bacteria species (Gijzen and Nurnberger, 2006; Pemberton et al., 2004). NLPs are non-host specific elicitors capable of causing necrosis and activating host defense responses in dicotyledonous plants (Keates et al., 2003; Staats et al., 2007). NLPs associated defense responses include signaling transduction, accumulation of pathogenesis related (PR) proteins, phytoalexins, ethylene and reactive oxygen species (ROS) (Wang et al., 2004; Qutob et al., 2006; Zhang et al., 2012). Previous studies indicate that monocotyledonous plants are insensitive to NLPs (Bailey, 1995; Schouten et al., 2008).

The NLP NEP1, was isolated and purified from *Fusarium oxysporum* culture filtrates (Bailey, 1995). NEP1 was able to induce necrosis, ethylene accumulation, and expression of stress responsive genes in *Erythroxylum coca* (Bailey et al., 2002, 2005). NEP1 was demonstrated to be a potential bioherbicide (Jennings et al., 2000; Meir et al., 2009). Other NLPs were identified from species of *Phytophthora*, *Erwinia, Verticillium*, *Pythium*, *Streptomyces*, *Mycosphaerella*, *Botrytis*, *Fusarium*, *Aspergillus* and other taxonomically unrelated micro-organisms (Cuesta Arenas et al., 2010; Dong et al., 2012; Garcia et al*.*, 2007; Keates et al., 2003; Luberacki et al., 2008; Mattinen et al., 2004). Multiple copies of *NLP* orthologs were identified from *Phytophthora* species, including *P. infestans*, *P. sojae P. citrophthora*, *P. capsici*, *P. palmivora*, and *P. megakarya* (Bae et al., 2006; Dong et al., 2012; Fellbrich et al., 2002; Kanneganti et al., 2006; Lee and Rose, 2010). Although eight NLPs were identified from *Verticillium dahliae*, only two of these NLPs were able to induce necrosis and defense responses in host plants (Santhanam et al., 2013; Zhou et al., 2012). Many fungal genomes only contain up to three *NLP* genes (Dallal Bashi et al., 2010; Garcia et al., 2007; Motteram et al., 2009; Schouten et al., 2008; Staats et al., 2007). However, five members of NLP were identified from the hemibiotrophic basidiomycete fungal pathogen *Moniliophthora perniciosa*, which causes Witches' Broom disease in cacao (Zaparoli et al., 2011).

NLPs generally share a conserved necrosis-inducing *Phytophthora* protein 1 (NPP1) domain containing a heptapeptide 'GHRHDWE' motif, cysteine residues, and other conserved amino acid residues (Cechin et al., 2008a, 2008b; Zhou et al., 2012). The

conserved heptapeptide and cysteine residues of the NPP1 domain are indispensable for the necrosis-inducing activity of the NLPs in *V. dahlia* (Zhou et al., 2012). Many NLPs are cytolytic toxins capable of inducing a host defense response by forming transmembrane pores on plant cells (Küfner et al., 2009; Ottmann et al., 2009; Qutob et al., 2006). Two fluorescently labelled *Botrytis cinerea* NLPs were observed to localize to the plasma membrane during infection of several dicotyledonous plant species (Schouten et al., 2008). The NLP from *F. oxysporum* was also associated with the plasma membrane of *Arabidopsis thaliana* (Bae et al., 2006). It is likely that NLPs from the same pathogen contribute to virulence in a host-dependent manner (Mattinen et al., 2004; Pemberton et al., 2005). Targeted deletion of *V. dahliae* genes encoding the cytotoxic NLP did not affect virulence on cotton, but showed reduced virulence on tomato and *A. thaliana* (Santhanam et al., 2013; Zhou et al., 2012). Deletion of *V. dahliae NLP1* showed compromised virulence on tobacco, whereas deletion of *NLP2* had no effect on tobacco (Santhanam et al., 2013). In addition, noncytotoxic NLPs were identified from the obligate biotrophic oomycete pathogen *Hyaloperonospora arabidopsidis* (Cabral et al., 2012).

Aspergillus flavus is a necrotrophic fungal pathogen capable of infecting plants, insects, animals, and immunocompromised patients (Payne and Brown, 1998; St Leger et al., 2000). *A. flavus* is notorious for its ability to cause maize ear rot and produce aflatoxins, which are carcinogenic secondary metabolites. The genome sequence of *A. flavus* is available, which greatly facilitates analysis of putative effector encoding genes (Payne et al., 2006). Several putative virulence factors have been reported. The *A. flavus*
endopolygalacturonase, P2c, is associated with virulence during infection of both maize and cotton bolls (Mellon et al., 2007; Shieh et al., 1997). In addition, an amylase and phytase from *A. flavus* have been shown to be associated with pathogenicity during colonization of maize kernels (Mellon et al., 2007; Reese et al., 2011). In this study, we analyzed three *A. flavus NLPs* that were expressed during early colonization of immature maize kernels. Mutagenesis studies revealed that one of the *A. flavus NLPs*, *nepA*, was involved in virulence of this fungus on immature maize kernels. In addition, it appears that the nepA protein is capable of inducing necrosis on tobacco leaves.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Sequence analysis of *A. flavus NLPs* **family members**

The DNA sequence of the three *A. flavus NLPs* were obtained from the *A. flavus* genome database (Payne et al., 2006). The degree of homology was analyzed by aligning the sequences using EMBL-EBI ClustalW2 (Larkin et al., 2007). Then the predicted *A. flavus* NLP protein sequences were obtained from the NCBI database. Homologous NLP proteins from other micro-organisms were identified by a BLAST search of the amino acid sequence of *nepA* against the NCBI database. Several other NLPs that have been studied were selected for amino acid sequence alignment and phylogenetic analysis using the EMBL-EBI ClustalW2 (Larkin et al., 2007). Signal peptides were predicted using the SignalP-4.1 server (Emanuelsson et al., 2007).

Gene expression analysis using RNA-seq

Then maize inbred line B73 was grown at the Central Crops Research Station near Clayton, NC. Maize ears were hand-pollinated and covered with pollination bags. *A. flavus* WT strain 3357 was grown on PDA plates at 28° C for 5 days. Conidial suspensions were harvested by adding sterile distilled water containing 0.5% (v/v) Triton X-100 (Fisher) and scraping the plates using a glass spreader. The concentration of conidia was determined using a hemocytometer (Hausser Scientific) and conidia were diluted to 1×10^6 conidia/ml before being used for inoculation. Kernels were inoculated with *A. flavus* in the field 21-22 days after pollination by wounding the kernel with a 3 mm needle bearing approximately 13 conidia. Kernels for the mock treatment were inoculated with sterile distilled water containing 0.5% (v/v) Triton X-100. Kernels were collected at 12, 24, 48 and 72 hpi. Three ears were harvested for each treatment as three biological replicates. Kernels were frozen in liquid nitrogen immediately and stored at -80° C. Eight frozen kernels from individual ears were pooled and ground in liquid nitrogen with mortar and pestle. About one hundred milligrams of ground tissue was added to 0.75 ml of saturated phenol, pH 6.6 (Fisher), and homognized for 2 min. homogenized tissue was dissolved in Tris EDTA buffer, pH 8.0 (ACROS Organics), extracted with 5:1 acid phenol: chloroform, pH 4.5 (Fisher), and precipitated with ice-cold 100% ethanol (ACROS Organics) overnight. Total RNA was further purified with an RNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The quality and concentration of RNA was analyzed using an RNA Pico chip on an Agilent Bioanalyzer.

RNA from the kernels collected at different time points was sequenced using the Illumina HiSeq by the Genomic Sciences Laboratory, North Carolina State University. Multiple samples with different barcodes were loaded in three lanes and sequenced to obtain 100 bp single-end reads. Illumina reads were sorted by barcodes, and adapter sequences were trimmed. The raw sequencing reads were then analyzed using the iPlant Collaborative Discovery Environment (Matasci and McKay, 2013). Reads of the same individual from multiple lanes were then concatenated using the app named 'Concatenate Multiple Files'. Quality of the reads was checked using FastQC 0.10.1. The reads were aligned to the *A. flavus* genome (JCV1-afl1-v2.0.14) by using TopHat2-SE (Trapnell et al., 2012). Then transcripts were assembled from the BAM files by using Cufflinks2 (Trapnell et al., 2012). The fragments per kilobase of exon per million fragments mapped (FPKM) values were used for gene expression analysis.

Generation of *A. flavus ∆nepA* **and** *nepA* **OE strains**

To generate the *nepA* deletion construct, non-coding flanking genomic sequences of the *nepA* coding region were amplified from genomic DNA of *A. flavus 3357* using the *nepA* seq primer set (Dolezal, 2010). The nepA deletion construct was made by overlapping PCR using six primers, *nepA*_1, *nepA*_2, *nepA*_3, *nepA*_4, *nepA*_5, and *nepA*_6 (Dolezal, 2010). The *nepA* coding sequence was replaced by the *Neurospora crassa pyr4* gene cassette through homologous recombination. The *pyr-4* gene of *N. crassa* encodes orotidine-5' phosphate decarboxylase, which is involved in the pyrimidine biosynthesis (Newbury et al., 1986). The auxotrophic mutant strain *afc-1* was used to generate *A. flavus ∆nepA* strains. It is

a uracil and arginine deficient mutant originally developed from the *A. flavus* WT strain *3357*. Protoplasts of *afc-1* were generated and transformed with the Δ*nepA* construct (Woloshuk et al., 1989). Transformants were selected on MLS medium plus arginine. The Δ*nepA* constructs were verified by PCR. The Δ*nepA* strains were then transformed again with the *A. flavus argD* gene. Transformants were selected on MLS medium. The Δ*nepA* constructs were verified by PCR.

The *nepA* OE construct was generated by inserting the *nepA* gene into the plasmid pNOM102 driven by the *gpdA* constitutive promoter (Dolezal, 2010). The *gpdA* constitutive promoter was originally amplified from *A. nidulans* (Redkar et al., 1998). To generate *nepA* OE strains, *afc-1* was co-transformed with the *nepA* overexpression construct and *pyr4*. Transformants were selected on MLS medium plus arginine. The *nepA* OE construct was verified by PCR. The *nepA* OE strains were then transformed again with the *A. flavus argD* gene. Transformants were selected on MLS medium. The *nepA* OE construct was verified by PCR.

Additionally, the fully complemented $afc-1$ ⁺⁺ strain was generated by cotransformation of *afc-1* with the *pyr4* and *argD* genes. The *A. flavus* strains that were used in this study are listed in Table 1. Primers used to generate Δ*nepA* and *nepA* OE strains are listed in Table 2.

A. flavus strain	Genotype
3357	wide-type
$afc-1$	a uracil and arginine deficient mutant strain
$afc-I$ ⁺⁺	<i>afc-1</i> full complemented with <i>pyr4</i> and <i>argD</i>
$\triangle nepA-1$	nepA deletion strain
\triangle <i>nepA</i> -2	nepA deletion strain
\triangle <i>nepA</i> -3	nepA deletion strain
$nepA$ OE-1	nepA overexpression strain
$nepA$ OE-2	nepA overexpression strain
$nepA$ OE-3	nepA overexpression strain

Table 1. *A. flavus* strains used in this study.

Table 2. Primers used in this study.

Pathogenicity assay on maize kernels

A. flavus 3357, *afc-1 ++* and *nepA* mutant strains were grown on PDA plates and conidia were harvested. Maize ears were removed from the plants 21-22 days after pollination and inoculated with *A. flavus* strains in the lab. Kernels were wound-inoculated. Control ears were mock inoculated with sterile distilled water containing 0.5% (v/v) Triton X-100. Inoculated kernels were incubated in a greenhouse and collected at 96 hpi. Three ears were harvested for each treatment as three biological replicates. Three mock inoculated ears were harvested as controls. Kernels were either fixed for histology studies or frozen in liquid nitrogen immediately and stored at -80° C.

For expression analysis, RNA was isolated as described above, and treated with DNase (Promega) according to the manufacturer's instructions. cDNA synthesis was performed using the First Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit (Fermentas) following the manufacturer's instructions. RT-PCR was performed using Ex Taq (Chemicon) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The PCR products were analyzed through a 0.8 $\%$ (w/v) agarose gel.

Kernels for histology studies were collected in tissue embedding capsules (Fisher). Samples were fixed, dehydrated, and embedded as described in chapter two. The paraffin blocks were sectioned with an RM2255 microtome (Leica) and mounted on glass slides. Slides were dried on a hot plate overnight and stored at room temperature. The staining was carried out as previously described (chapter two; Livingston et al., 2009, 2013). Images were collected on an Eclipse E600 light microscope (Nikon) with an Infinity1-3C digital camera.

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Growth and conidiogenesis assays

Growth and conidiogenesis assays were performed by placing 10 μ l of 1×10^4 conidia/ml conidia suspension in the center of a 100 mm \times 15 mm (diameter \times height) plate and incubating it at 28° C. Ten plates were included for each fungal strain. Three different types of media were used, PDA, MLS and CEM. CEM contains 30 grams of fresh maize kernels per liter. Colony diameters were measured 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7 days post inoculation (dpi). A no.2 cork borer (with an area of about 22.5 mm²) was used to collect conidia located at about 0.5cm away from the center of the plate. Conidia were then diluted in 1ml 0.5% (v/v) Triton X-100. The number of conidia was counted using a hemocytometer.

Cytotoxic activity determination on tobacco, *A. thaliana***, and maize leaves**

A. flavus 3357, *afc-1*⁺⁺ and *nepA* mutant strains were grown on PDA plates at 28^oC for 5 days. Conidial suspensions were harvested, and grown on PDB at 28° C for 2 days with agitation (200 rpm). Mycelia and conidia were harvested by filtrating through a filter paper. RNA extraction and RT-PCR were performed as described above. Tobacco and *A. thaliana* plants were kindly provided by [Dr. Ralph](http://www.cropsci.ncsu.edu/personnel/Dewey_Ralph/) Dewey and Dr. Heike Sederoff, respectively. Maize seeds were allowed to germinate and grow in the lab for about four weeks before infiltration. *A. flavus* was infiltrated into leaves of tobacco, *A. thaliana*, and maize seedling using a syringe.

RESULTS

Identification and sequence analysis of *NLPs* **from** *A. flavus*

Three *A. flavus* genes contain the NPP1 domain, named *nepA* (AFLA_096450), *nepB* (AFLA_054320), and *nepC* (AFLA_013750). The degree of DNA sequence homology between the three *NLP* members is low with maximum identity of 62.81%. These *NLPs* are located in different chromosomes. *NepA* was mapped to the telomeric end of chromosome five. It is located between the aflatrem biosynthesis gene cluster and another secondary metabolite biosynthesis gene cluster. The other two *A. flavus NLPs*, *nepB* and *nepC*, were mapped to chromosome one and four, respectively.

We analyzed the predicted amino acid sequences of the three *A. flavus* NLPs. The three *A. flavus* NLPs were aligned with NLPs from other micro-organisms, including *Aspergillus fumigatus* (Nierman et al., 2005), *Fusarium verticillioides* (Ma et al., 2010), *F. oxysporum* (Meir et al., 2009), *Pythium aphanidermatum* (Veit et al., 2001), *P. sojae* (Qutob et al., 2002), *Botrytis elliptica* (Staats et al., 2007), and *V. dahliae* (Santhanam et al., 2013). *A. fumigatus* is a human pathogen which is taxonomically closely-related to *A. flavus*. The other six are plant pathogens which are taxonomically unrelated to *A. flavus*. It appears that nepA belongs to type I NLPs that contain two conserved cysteine (Cys) residues, Cys-62 and Cys-83, whereas nepB and nepC belong to type II NLPs that have five cysteines (Fig. 1A). The conserved Cys-62 and Cys-83 are likely involved in the formation of the disulfide bond of the NLP proteins (Ottmann et al., 2009). Only nepB and nepC have the intact heptapeptide motif. In nepA, the first amino acid of this motif is alanine, not glycine (Fig. 1A). In addition,

all three *A. flavus* NLPs were predicted to be secretory proteins containing signal peptides (Fig. 1A). Phylogenetic analysis indicated that nepA is more close-related to the NLP from *B. elliptica*, whereas nepB and nepC are more close-related to the *A. fumigatus* NLP (Fig. 1B).

Figure 1. Sequence analysis of NLPs from *A. flavus* and other micro-organisms. A, Alignment of amino acid sequence of the NLPs. Predicted signal peptides are framed; conserved Cys are highlighted in gray; conserved heptapeptide 'GHRHDWE' motifs are underlined. B, Phylogenetic relationship of the NLPs. *A. flavus* NLPs are framed. Accession numbers of NLPs: XP_002381464 (nepA*A*. *flavus*), XP_002383557 (nepB*A*. *flavus*), XP_002375395 (nepC*A*. *flavus*), XP_748279 (NLP*A*. *fumigatus*), FVEG_04647 (NLP*F*. *verticillioides*), AAY88967 (NLP*F*. *oxysporum*), AAD53944 (NLP*P. aphanidermatum*), AAM48171 (NLP*P*. *sojae*), ABB43265 (NLP*B. elliptica*), and EGY15829 (NLP*V. dahliae*).

nepA*A. flavus* --MVSKNLLAILAAAVAVQGSPLDK-------RAVVNHDSITPFPETVPNTATGN **Predicted signal peptides**

B

NepA **is involved in virulence of** *A. flavus* **on maize kernels**

Our previous microarray studies showed that *nepA* was expressed 12.1 fold higher in living kernels compared with autoclaved kernels (Dolezal et al., 2013). In this study, we conducted RNA sequencing (RNA-seq) analysis to analyze the expression levels of these three *A. flavus NLPs*. We found that a large number of putative *A. flavus* secretory protein encoding genes were detected during early pathogenesis on maize kernels (Table S3). Of these putative *A. flavus* secretory protein encoding genes, the three *NLPs* were detectable at 24, 48 and 72 hpi (Fig. 2; Table S3). As expected, *nepA* was expressed at higher levels compared with both *nepB* and *nepC* at all three time points. But no transcripts of these three *A. flavus NLPs* was detected at 12 hpi (Fig. 2). RT-PCR analysis also revealed that *nepA* was expressed during colonization of maize kernels at 96 hpi (Fig. 3A), but was not expressed in PDB (Fig. 5A).

Targeted deletion and overexpression (OE) of *nepA* in *A. flavus* was pursued using the auxotrophic mutant *afc-1* strain. The *∆nepA* strains were generated by replacing the *nepA* coding sequence with *pyrimidine-4* (*pyr-4*) through homologous recombination. The *nepA* OE strains were obtained by co-transforming *pyr4* and *nepA* gene driven by the *glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase*, *Aspergillus nidulans* (*gpdA*) promoter into the auxotrophic mutant *afc-1* strain. Several independent *∆nepA* and *nepA* OE strains were transformed again with the *A. flavus argD* gene to complement the arginine deficiency. We demonstrated that aflatoxins were produced by all fungal strains that we generated (data not shown).

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∆nepA-1 and *nepA OE-3* strains were used for maize kernel assays. The maize kernel assay was performed in a four-year study from 2009 to 2012. The *∆nepA-1* strain showed significantly compromised virulence on maize kernels. Kernels inoculated with the *∆nepA-1* strain still developed ear rot symptoms, but had less colonization on the surface of the kernel compared with the ones that were inoculated with *nepA OE-3* or *3357* (Fig. 3B). Moreover, *∆nepA-1* remained at the inoculation site in most kernels (Fig. 3E). In the aleurone near the inoculation site, a thin layer of *∆nepA-1* mycelia accumulated between the pericarp and the intact aleurone cells (Fig. 3A). However, the *nepA OE-3* strain showed as much colonization as *3357*. Both *nepA OE-3* and *3357* were capable of colonizing all tissues of the kernel and forming a biofilm-like structure at the endosperm-scutellum interface [Fig. 3C(f and g)]. Most of the aleurone cells colonized by both *nepA OE-3* and *3357* were destroyed [Fig. 3C(b and c)]. A distinct feature of *nepA OE-3* was the formation of extensive hyphal tips in a few kernels [Fig. 3C(c)].

Figure 2. Expression analysis of *NLPs* during early infection by *A. flavus* on maize kernels. Kernels were wound-inoculated with wild-type *A. flavus* strain *3357*, and harvested at 12, 24, 48 and 72 hpi. After RNA isolation and cDNA library preparation, RNA-sequencing (RNAseq) was performed using Illumina HiSeq. The relative expression levels of nepA, nepB and nepC were analyzed by comparing the fragments per kilobase of exon per million fragments mapped (FPKM). *RPS9*: *40S ribosomal protein S9*; hpi: hours post inoculation.

Figure 3. *NepA* is involved in virulence of *A. flavus* during colonization in maize kernels. A, RT-PCR analysis of *nepA* gene expression in the *∆nepA*-1, *nepA* overexpression (OE)-3, and wild-type (WT) *3357* strains*. NepA* is not expressed in *∆nepA*-1, but is strongly expressed in *nepA* OE-3 and expressed at a low level in *3357*. B, *∆nepA*-1 shows reduced pathogenicity on the kernel compared with *nepA* OE-3 and *3357*. C, Light microscope images taken from sections stained with safranin and fast green: (a-d), The aleurone of *∆nepA*-1(a), *nepA* OE-3 (b), *3357* (c) and mock (d) inoculated kernels. *∆nepA*-1 growth was restricted between the pericarp and aleurone with very limited fungal growth. Both *nepA* OE-3 and *3357* extensively colonized and destroyed the aleurone. *NepA* OE-3 formed more straight hyphal tips in some kernels (c). (e), *∆nepA*-1 was restricted at the inoculation site in most kernels. (fh), The endosperm-scutellum interface of *nepA* OE-3 (f), *3357* (g) and mock (h) inoculated kernels. Both *nepA* OE-3 and *3357* colonized all kernel regions and formed a biofilm-like structure at the endosperm-scutellum interface. Mock inoculated kernels were used as controls. Kernels were harvested at 96 hours post inoculation. Arrows denote fungal colonization. *ZmCAT1*: *catalase 1*, *Zea mays*; *AfHis*: *histone*, *A. flavus*; *Af*: *A. flavus*; Al: aleurone; En: endosperm; Sc: scutellum. Scale bars: 5 mm in B; 50 µm in C (a, f-h); 30 µm in C (b-d); 200 μ m in C(e).

NepA **affects vegetative growth and conidiation of** *A. flavus* **on PDA**

We analyzed radial growth and conidiation of three *∆nepA* strains (*∆nepA*-1, *∆nepA*-2 and *∆nepA*-3), three *nepA* OE strains (*nepA* OE-1, *nepA* OE-2 and *nepA* OE-3), and two control strains ($afc-I$ ⁺⁺ and 3357). We found that radial growth and conidiation of all the *∆nepA* and *nepA* OE strains were similar to those of the control strains on corn extract medium (CEM) and on minimal medium (MLS) plates. However, when grown on PDA plates, all three tested *∆nepA* strains showed significantly reduced growth rates and produced less conidia than the *nepA* OE strains and the control strains (Table 1). Our previous studies also indicated that the Δ*nepA* strains were impaired in growth in PDB compared to WT and the *nepA* OE strains (Dolezal, 2010). Nevertheless, the morphology of both the *∆nepA* and *nepA* OE strains is similar to that of the control strains (Fig. 4). Collectively, these data suggest that deletion of *nepA* affects fungal vegetative growth and asexual reproduction when grown on potato dextrose-based media. But overexpression of *nepA* has no effect on vegetative growth and asexual reproduction when grown on PDA, CEM or MLS.

Table 3. Growth and conidiation of *A. flavus* strains on PDA. Mean estimated growth rates (μ_{max}), time to visible growth (λ), and number of spores produced per 22.5 mm² after 7 days of incubation were shown. In each column, different letters next to the means show significant (*p*<0.05) according to Tukey HSD test. Three *A. flavus ∆nepA* strains, *∆nepA*-1, *∆nepA*-2 and *∆nepA*-3, three *nepA* OE strains, *nepA* OE-1, *nepA* OE-2 and *nepA* OE-3, and two control strains, 3357 and $afc-1$ ⁺⁺, were used.

A. flavus	$\mu_{max}(mm/day) \pm SD$	λ (day) \pm SD	No. of spores per m $l \pm SD$
\triangle <i>nepA</i> -3	11.9 ± 0.57 ^a	3 ± 0^a	a $(5.2e+06) \pm (7.3e+05)$
\triangle nepA-2	12 ± 0.47^{ab}	3 ± 0^a	a $(5.2e+06) \pm (7.3e+05)$
$\triangle nepA-I$	12 ± 0.71^{ab}	3 ± 0^a	$(2.6e+06) \pm (1.1e+05)$
$afc-1$ ⁺⁺	13 ± 1.66^b	2 ± 0^b	$(2.6e+07) \pm (7.1e+06)$
nepA OE-1	14.2 ± 1.1 ^c	2 ± 0^b	bc $(1.2e+07) \pm (2.5e+06)$
nepA OE-3	$14.5 \pm .85$ ^c	2 ± 0^b	cd $(1.2e+07) \pm (1.7e+06)$
3357	15.6 ± 0.84^d	2 ± 0^b	d $(1.6e+07) \pm (3.6e+06)$
nepA OE-2	17.3 ± 0.67^e	2 ± 0^b	cd $(1.4e+07) \pm (3.8e+06)$

Figure 4. Radial growth and colony morphology of *A. flavus* strains on PDA. Pictures were taken 6 days after incubation at 28°C. The 100 mm \times 15 mm (diameter \times height) plates were used. Three *A. flavus ∆nepA* strains, *∆nepA*-1, *∆nepA*-2 and *∆nepA*-3, three *nepA* OE strains, *nepA* OE-1, *nepA* OE-2 and *nepA* OE-3, and two control strains, *3357* and *afc-1 ++* , were used.

NepA **overexpression mutant induces necrosis on tobacco leaves**

It has been shown that NLPs from *P. sojae* and *V. dahliae* trigger necrosis after infiltration into leaves of dicotyledonous plants (Dong et al., 2012; Santhanam et al., 2013; Zhou et al., 2012). To test the necrosis-inducing activity of nepA, PDB cultures of three *∆nepA* strains (*∆nepA*-1, *∆nepA*-2 and *∆nepA*-3), three *nepA* OE strains (*nepA* OE-1, *nepA* OE-2 and *nepA* OE-3), and two control strains ($afc-I^{++}$ and 3357) were infiltrated into the same tobacco leaf. Leaf tissue started to collapse at 16 hours post infiltration of all the *nepA* OE strains (data not shown). In contrast, no obvious tissue necrosis was observed upon infiltration of any of the *∆nepA* strains or any of the control strains. Figure 5A shows the expression levels of *nepA* in the *A. flavus* strains grown in PDB that have been used for infiltration. Figure 5B shows necrosis induced by *nepA* OE-3, but not other strains. To investigate whether nepA is able to induce necrosis in other plant species, we infiltrated the *∆nepA*, *nepA* OE, and control strains into leaves of *A. thaliana* and maize seedling. But no necrosis was observed in either *A. thaliana* or maize leaves (data not shown).

Figure 5. The necrosis-inducing activity of *A. flavus* nepA on tobacco leaves. A, RT-PCR analysis of *nepA* gene expression in the *∆nepA* (*∆nepA*-1, *∆nepA*-2 and *∆nepA*-3), *nepA* overexpression (OE) (*nepA* OE-1, *nepA* OE-2 and *nepA* OE-3), and control strains (*afc-1 ++* and *3357*) grown on PDB medium*. NepA* is not expressed in either the *∆nepA* or the control strains, but is strongly expressed in *nep*A OE strains. B, *NepA* OE-3 induced necrosis near the injection site at 24 h after infiltration. Necrosis was not observed in areas infiltrated with either the *∆nepA*-1 or control strains. *AfHis*: *histone*, *A. flavus*.

DISCUSSION

The NLPs are non-specific toxins capable of inducing host tissue necrosis and defense responses. Distinct features of NLP members, including signal peptides, conserved cysteine residues, and heptapeptide motifs, were found in the predicted amino acid sequences of three *A. flavus* NLPs (Fig. 1A). These conserved characteristics of NLPs appear to be important in formation of the three dimensional structures of these NLP proteins. Previous studies indicated that a NLP from *P. aphanidermatum* has structural homology to actinoporins which are toxins produced by sea anemones (Ottmann et al., 2009). Both NLPs and actinoporins are small polypeptides with a central β-sandwich architecture surrounded by helices, and signal peptides that target cellular surfaces (Birck et al., 2004; Ottmann et al., 2009). It appears that these NLP specific structures are important in forming transmembrane pores and causing a higher rate of metabolic leakage of plant cells (Qutob et al., 2006).

Several reports suggest that NLPs are associated with pathogenicity and host defense response only on dicotyledonous plants (Bailey, 1995; Schouten et al., 2008). In this study, we demonstrated that the three *NLPs* from *A. flavus* were expressed during pathogenesis on maize kernels. One of these *A. flavus NLPs*, *nepA*, was selected for further study because it was more highly expressed on living kernels than autoclaved kernels. We provide evidence showing that *nepA* is involved in virulence of *A. flavus* on maize kernels. The *A. flavus nepA* deletion mutant can still colonize at the inoculation site of the kernel, which could be attributed to the complementary roles of other effectors such as nepB and nepC. In our kernel assay, *∆nepA* was localized at the inoculation site of kernels collected in the first three years.

However, colonization in the endosperm and germ was observed in two kernels collected in the fourth year. This difference could be potentially due to natural infection, cross contamination, or changes of the environmental conditions. The other possibility is that the *nepA* gene was reintroduced to *∆nepA*-1 through vertical gene transfer or dynamic changes of the multinucleated fungal cells when growing in culture or on plants.

Our expression analysis indicated that *nepA* was not expressed when *A. flavus* was grown in PDB, but was expressed during early stages of infection in maize kernels. A NLP from the wheat leaf pathogen *Mycosphaerella graminicola* also was only expressed in plant tissue (Motteram et al., 2009). These findings are consistent with the hypothesis that NLPs are important in pathogenicity but are not essential for fungal growth. However, we did find that growth and reproduction of the *∆nepA* mutants were reduced when grown on potato dextrose-based media (a medium commonly used to culture this fungus), but not when grown on corn extract medium (CEM) or minimal medium (MLS). These findings lead to the question of how nepA affects growth and conidiation of *A. flavus* under certain conditions, and how *A. flavus* balances pathogenicity and nutrient usage under pathogenic conditions. These data support the idea that reduced pathogenicity of the *∆nepA* strain on maize kernels is not due to decreased growth rate.

In the large majority of our observations, overexpression of *nepA* resulted in increased colonization by *A. flavus* near the aleurone layer of the kernel. Similar to the WT, the *nepA* OE mutant was able to form a biofilm-like structure around the scutellum. However, the distinction between the overexpression mutant and wild type NRRL *3357* was

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not clear in all sections from all kernels. We know that colonization patterns of *A. flavus* within the kernel can vary. This could be due to the location of the section in relation to the infection site, position of the kernel on the ear, or other environmental conditions. Observations of infected germ tissue after tetrazolium chloride staining showed that cell death is associated with infection by *A. flavus*, but it is unclear if NepA was involved in this necrosis. Further functional analysis of these *A. flavus* NLPs will be helpful in addressing these questions.

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Supplemental Material from Chapter Two

Figure S1. CummeRbund volcano plots revealing gene expression changes in maize kernels during *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* infection. Note that large fold changes in expression are not always significantly different, because the number of reads for those genes may be fewer due to low expression levels. Af: *A. flavus* inoculated kernels; Fv: *F. verticillioides* inoculated kernels; hpi: hours post inoculation.

Figure S2. Overview of metabolic pathway changes in maize kernels during *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* infection. RNA-seq analysis was conducted for the kernels collected at 72 hpi. The bioinformatics software Biocyc was used. Red lines denote genes that were up-regulated. Purple lines denote genes that were down-regulated.
		filtered				Af aligned >1		Fv aligned >1
sample name	raw reads	reads	Zm aligned 1 time	Zm aligned >1 time	Af aligned 1 time	time	Fv aligned 1 time	time
Af 24hpi rep1	8211619	8209860	1915768 (23.33%)	3561164 (43.38%)	275817 (3.36%)	91250 (1.11%)	785 (0.01%)	54317 (0.66%)
Af 24hpi rep2	9650455	9648270	2512189 (26.04%)	5636564 (58.42%)	79800 (0.83%)	44716 (0.46%)	$236(0.00\%)$	33531 (0.35%)
Af 24hpi rep3	$1E+07$	10153555	2704971 (26.64%)	6263965 (61.69%)	80884 (0.80%)	68132 (0.67%)	$264(0.00\%)$	54618 (0.54%)
Af 48hpi rep1	$1.2E + 07$	12138102	2826897 (23.29%)	6337058 (52.21%)	1017499 (8.38%)	67109 (0.55%)	1703 (0.01%)	45455 (0.37%)
Af 48hpi rep2	$1.3E + 07$	13236640	2962051 (22.38%)	6284100 (47.48%)	1904865 (14.39%)	76533 (0.58%)	$3161 (0.02\%)$	47091 (0.36%)
Af 48hpi rep3	8725318	8723247	2268016 (26.00%)	5244160 (60.12%)	315524 (3.62%)	35964 (0.41%)	749 (0.01%)	23069 (0.26%)
Af 72hpi rep1	$1.1E + 07$	10807719	2195336 (20.31%)	4496919 (41.61%)	2225101 (20.59%)	151538 (1.40%)	3810 (0.04%)	76234 (0.71%)
Af 72hpi rep2	6171913	6170385	795275 (12.89%)	1610319 (26.10%)	2281934 (36.98%)	150892 (2.45%)	3238 (0.05%)	64230 (1.04%)
Af 72hpi rep3	9546884	9544716	1192019 (12.49%)	2284284 (23.93%)	3775197 (39.55%)	233676 (2.45%)	5543 (0.06%)	93074 (0.98%)
Fv 24hpi rep1	$3.4E + 07$	33515074	10013189 (29.88%)	17529753 (52.30%)	$161(0.00\%)$	142269 (0.42%)	$10052(0.03\%)$	124429 (0.37%)
Fv 24hpi rep2	$3.7E + 07$	37262165	10706610 (28.73%)	21039870 (56.46%)	$67(0.00\%)$	76799 (0.21%)	3223 (0.01%)	64367 (0.17%)
Fv 24hpi rep3	$1.8E + 07$	18025843	5516769 (30.60%)	8905667 (49.40%)	89 (0.00%)	91284 (0.51%)	43268 (0.24%)	79758 (0.44%)
Fv 48hpi rep1	$2.6E + 07$	25542561	7473907 (29.26%)	12510490 (48.98%)	408 (0.00%)	85783 (0.34%)	1103477 (4.32%)	155354 (0.61%)
Fv 48hpi rep2	$3.6E + 07$	35641066	9784132 (27.45%)	18224938 (51.13%)	457 (0.00%)	65019 (0.18%)	2103675 (5.90%)	156558 (0.44%)
Fv 48hpi rep3	$2.9E + 07$	28734612	8603081 (29.94%)	15324007 (53.33%)	$138(0.00\%)$	67167 (0.23%)	358421 (1.25%)	67823 (0.24%)
Fv 72hpi rep1	$3E+07$	30309760	8320996 (27.45%)	12451610 (41.08%)	$1055(0.00\%)$	45614 (0.15%)	4631867 (15.28%)	175525 (0.58%)
Fv 72hpi rep2	$3.4E + 07$	33776535	8016750 (23.73%)	13871450 (41.07%)	199942 (0.59%)	296387 (0.88%)	3204135 (9.49%)	730673 (2.16%)
Fv 72hpi rep3	$3.5E + 07$	35460716	10115726 (28.53%)	17445490 (49.20%)	540 (0.00%)	73771 (0.21%)	2067253 (5.83%)	184092 (0.52%)
mock 24hpi rep1	$3.9E + 07$	38963116	11746275 (30.15%)	21494974 (55.17%)	$183(0.00\%)$	69410 (0.18%)	2530 (0.01%)	60270(0.15%)
mock 24hpi rep2	$3.3E + 07$	33474139	9707341 (29.00%)	18248372 (54.51%)	$181(0.00\%)$	115372 (0.34%)	$1667(0.00\%)$	99961 (0.30%)
mock 24hpi rep3	$4.2E + 07$	42306413	11878792 (28.08%)	22949097 (54.24%)	$150(0.00\%)$	166534 (0.39%)	2370 (0.01%)	147631 (0.35%)
mock 48hpi rep1	$2.8E + 07$	27847499	8063312 (28.96%)	14995525 (53.85%)	$90(0.00\%)$	82509 (0.30%)	$1413(0.01\%)$	67909 (0.24%)
mock 48hpi rep2	$2.5E + 07$	24714093	7001696 (28.33%)	13446730 (54.41%)	89 (0.00%)	93930 (0.38%)	$1193(0.00\%)$	78514 (0.32%)
mock 48hpi rep3	$2.5E + 07$	25189608	7377053 (29.29%)	13695801 (54.37%)	$224(0.00\%)$	69528 (0.28%)	$1258(0.00\%)$	56443 (0.22%)
mock 72hpi rep1	$3.4E + 07$	34313793	10352174 (30.17%)	19114836 (55.71%)	$64(0.00\%)$	29933 (0.09%)	5305 (0.02%)	24394 (0.07%)
mock 72hpi rep2	$4E + 07$	40167261	12216804 (30.41%)	22261056 (55.42%)	284 (0.00%)	38898 (0.10%)	$2139(0.01\%)$	32634 (0.08%)
mock 72hpi rep3	$3.4E + 07$	33614893	9252626 (27.53%)	17579380 (52.30%)	$144(0.00\%)$	162145 (0.48%)	$2763(0.01\%)$	137111 (0.41%)

Table S1. Sequencing statistics for individual reads from the pooled RNA-Seq libraries. Samples were sequenced in three lanes of the Illumina HiSeq. Data were collected from TopHat2_SE output. Af, *A. flavus* infected maize kernels; Fv, *F. verticillioides* infected maize kernels; mock, mock inoculated maize kernels; hpi, hours post inoculation; rep, biological replicates.

Table S2. Differentially expressed maize genes during infection by *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides*. Fold change of genes that were not differentially expressed in some comparisons were left blank. Positive and negative fold changes denote up- and downregulation, respectively. Af, *A. flavus* infected maize kernels; Fv, *F. verticillioides* infected maize kernels; hpi, hours post inoculation.

Table S2 Continued

gene name	annotation	Af24hpi	Af48hpi	Af72hpi	Fv24hpi	Fv48hpi	Fv72hpi
GRMZM2G063880	WRKY106	11.74		14.26		5.17	11.31
GRMZM5G863420	WRKY82	5.56		6.64		4.03	6.26
GRMZM2G083350	WRKY26	42.43	5.4	22.13		8.52	33.9
GRMZM2G048295	MYB72			3.43			4.77
GRMZM2G160840	MYB118			4.6			5.33
GRMZM5G803355	MYB51		-5.82				
GRMZM2G111306	MYBR1	-3.26		-3.2			
GRMZM2G121111	MYBR81		-5.2	-4.49			
GRMZM2G160838	MYB32			3.11			
GRMZM2G147346	MYB121			4.69			
GRMZM2G139284	MYB70			4.62			
GRMZM2G106558	MYB146						6.18
GRMZM2G070849	MYB75						3.84
GRMZM2G100709	GLK31						16.48
GRMZM2G131442	MYB4			8.64			8.76
GRMZM2G176327	MYB family			13.85			9.47
GRMZM2G069325	MYB130			3.77			3.68
GRMZM2G419239	MYB42	29.6		9.7			10.83
GRMZM2G081557	MYB9		13.91	39.4			20.55
GRMZM2G048826	NAC92		37.07				
GRMZM2G180328	NAC ₂₀			2.97			
GRMZM2G068973	NAC ₂₃			14.66			
GRMZM2G347043	NAC49			4.33			
GRMZM2G163251	NAC7	4.65					2.97
GRMZM2G109627	NAC118			12.37			8.8
GRMZM2G112548	NAC74			4.2			4.83
GRMZM2G100583	NAC75			5.07			3.91
GRMZM2G074358	NAC42	21.98		6.2			12.57
GRMZM2G068973	NAC ₂₃	5.44	6.92	15.53		4.3	10.27
GRMZM2G092137	bZIP9			4.07			
GRMZM2G042278	NLP15			6.31			
GRMZM2G365754	bZIP67						4.36
GRMZM2G377613	tumor-related protein-like						3.95
GRMZM2G400281	C2H2 zinc finger family						3.7
GRMZM2G048154	C2H2 zinc finger family			45.59			61.92
GRMZM5G804618	C2H2 zinc finger family	7.46	5.93	6.86		3.55	6.59
GRMZM2G376061	C2H2 zinc finger family			11.02			5.27
GRMZM2G400714	C2H2 family			2.89			
GRMZM2G069176	C2H2 family			15.09			14.68
GRMZM2G112799	C2H2 family			7.5			4.05
GRMZM2G106026	C2H2 family		24.86	378.49			188.97
GRMZM2G113860							
	C2H2 family	22.98		28.71		9.87	28.97
GRMZM2G117007	C3H7			4.16			
GRMZM2G002805	ZFP16-2			3.86			
GRMZM2G173425	zinc finger protein LSD2			3.09			
GRMZM2G140694	DOF29	7.16					3.03
GRMZM2G125775	AN17			8.96			5.09
GRMZM2G378490	DOF7			4.82			4.21
GRMZM2G413113	Orphan38	-3.72					
GRMZM2G023346	Orphan92			4.73			
GRMZM2G016145	Orphan123		-8.5				
GRMZM2G090264	Orphan213	-7.76	-6.24				
GRMZM2G180430	Orphan65			2.4			
GRMZM2G134671	Orphan43			3.25			
GRMZM2G097135	Orphan301			3.2			
GRMZM2G000603	Orphan ₈						7.6
	Orphan127						
GRMZM2G342197							28.61
GRMZM2G073823	GRAS68			68.18			
GRMZM2G163427	GRAS34			4.28			
GRMZM2G163427	GRAS34			5.85			
GRMZM2G073805	GRAS72			3.38			
GRMZM2G420280	GRAS family		7.49	16.09			4.65
GRMZM2G018254	GRAS48		8.21	15.18			8.35
GRMZM5G839518	bHLH152			-2.82			
GRMZM2G082586	bHLH105			-4.33			
GRMZM2G159937	bHLH57			2.94			

gene name annotation Af24hpi Af48hpi Af72hpi Fv24hpi Fv48hpi Fv72hpi GRMZM2G075828 transparent testa 12 protein Af72hpi By 17 By 17 transparent testa 12 protein 3.17 GRMZM5G842695 transparent testa 12 protein (LOC100282798), mRNA -3.73 -3.36
GRMZM2G011078 SC3 protein - 3.34 GRMZM2G011078 SC3 protein 3.33 GRMZM2G133006 | transporter 10.19 GRMZM2G010765 transporter 7.82 GRMZM2G010765 transporter 1 7.3 GRMZM2G151903 transporter 5.46
GRMZM2G115105 transporter 4.89 GRMZM2G115105 transporter 4.89

GRMZM2G089952 transporter 3.41 GRMZM2G089952 transporter 3.41
GRMZM2G031938 transporter 4.76 17.2 GRMZM2G031938 transporter GRMZM2G072034 transporter 2.94 GRMZM2G166459 transporter 3.33 GRMZM2G704053 transporter 2.86 GRMZM2G027016 transporter 8.12 3.79 4.56

GRMZM2G470075 transporter 7.33 7.34 6.31 3.88 GRMZM2G470075 transporter GRMZM2G135175 transporter 10.72 9.53 26.72 5.7 21.14 GRMZM2G080992 transporter GRMZM2G093090 | Aquaporin TIP4-4 (Tonoplast intrinsic protein 4-4)(ZmTIP4-4)(ZmTIP4;4) -4.77 GRMZM2G168439 Aquaporin TIP1-2 (Tonoplast intrinsic protein 1- 2)(ZmTIP1-2)(ZmTIP1;2) 9.71 GRMZM2G081843 Aquaporin PIP1-5 (Plasma membrane intrinsic protein 1-5)(ZmPIP1-5)(ZmPIP1;5)(ZmPIP1-5b) 20.77 7.1 GRMZM2G154628 Aquaporin PIP2-4 (Plasma membrane intrinsic protein 2-4)(ZmPIP2-4)(ZmPIP2;4) 3.95 3.55 GRMZM2G160710 ATFP4 7.29

GRMZM2G169726 ATFP4 7.29 GRMZM2G169726 ATFP4 3.41 4.26 GRMZM2G119975 ATFP4 5.13 10.35 3.65 12.68 GRMZM2G118497 metal transporter -3.05

GRMZM2G014454 metal transporter -2.7 GRMZM2G014454 metal transporter 2.7 GRMZM2G003179 metal transporter 3.27 3.27 2.73
GRMZM2G150450 Copper-exporting ATPase 3.5.39 Copper-exporting ATPase GRMZM2G169788 Copper-exporting ATPase 3.12 GRMZM2G092867 metal ion binding protein 3.83 GRMZM2G080887 mitochondrial membrane associated transporter 22.6 13.41 13.66 13.41 GRMZM2G331393 mitochondrial membrane associated transporter 20.99 4.46 12.87 mitochondrial membrane associated transporter 19.43 5.8 32.6 5.04 20.99 1 4.46 12.87 GRMZM2G009045 mitochondrial membrane associated transporter 19.43 5.8 32.6 32.6 5.04 GRMZM2G179294 high affinity nitrate transporter 4.59

GRMZM2G455124 nitrate transporter 5.73 5.73 2.87 GRMZM2G455124 nitrate transporter 5.73 2.87 2.87 2.85 GRMZM2G113800 nucleotide transporter 4.68 4.68 3.35
GRMZM2G044851 peptides and oligopeptides transporter 5.58 5.68 peptides and oligopeptides transporter -5.38 -5.68 GRMZM2G026459 peptides and oligopeptides transporter 8.43 GRMZM2G150468 peptides and oligopeptides transporter 27.43 GRMZM2G112456 oligopeptide transporter 4 10.93

GRMZM2G326707 phosphate transporter protein1 3.93 phosphate transporter protein1 GRMZM2G154090 phosphate transporter protein2 18.09 18.09 11.51 GRMZM2G112377 inorganic phosphate transporter 3 106.63 24.12 GRMZM2G142919 sialin 4.12 5.97 4.19 GRMZM2G020766 potassium transporter 3.36 GRMZM2G142661 potassium transporter 3.36 GRMZM2G097505 potassium transporter 9.5

GRMZM2G084779 potasium ion uptake permease 1 16.96 6.29 14.63 3.19 3.19 13.51 potasium ion uptake permease 1 GRMZM2G154211 sulphate transporter 3.46

GRMZM2G158013 sulphate transporter 7.94 sulphate transporter GRMZM2G042171 sulphate transporter 5.32

GRMZM2G342907 sulphate transporter 19.67 33.02 GRMZM2G342907 sulphate transporter 19.67 23.02 15.84 3RMZM2G140754 Alanine--tRNA ligase 4.4 Alanine--tRNA ligase 5.44
Sodium/hydrogen exchanger Fragment 6.32 GRMZM2G027851 Sodium/hydrogen exchanger Fragment GRMZM2G089631 unspecified cation transporter 39.76 9.51 GRMZM2G121070 unspecified cation transporter 4.32 3.11 GRMZM2G176430 unspecified cation transporter 9.77 29.86 10.6 $GRMZM2G126572$ transposon protein 9.62 GRMZM5G828581 transporter 6.64

GRMZM2G030831 cytochrome P450 2.93 GRMZM2G030831 cytochrome P450 -2.93 GRMZM2G126055 cytochrome P450 -4.88 -4 GRMZM2G175250 cytochrome P450 -3.19

Table S2 Continued

gene name	annotation	Af24hpi	Af48hpi	Af72hpi	Fv24hpi	Fv48hpi	Fv72hpi
GRMZM2G001200	hypothetical protein LOC100382872, mRNA			3.06			3.73
GRMZM2G001375	hypothetical protein LOC100278795, mRNA		6.81	10.58			6.34
GRMZM2G056068	hypothetical protein LOC100382730, mRNA	4.18		10.65		3.25	7.42
GRMZM2G181236	hypothetical protein LOC100279598			59.74			
GRMZM2G097404	hypothetical protein LOC100273950	-5.07					
GRMZM2G137375	hypothetical protein LOC100275111	-2.98					
GRMZM2G351484	hypothetical protein LOC100275136	-6.26					
GRMZM2G044174	hypothetical protein LOC100275455	-2.93					
GRMZM2G032350	hypothetical protein LOC100276200	-4.28					
GRMZM2G152703	hypothetical protein LOC100277102	-2.75					
GRMZM2G405017	hypothetical protein LOC100278922	-5.98					
GRMZM2G022694	hypothetical protein LOC100192630	3.46					
GRMZM2G035045	hypothetical protein LOC100272949	5.43					
GRMZM2G421126	hypothetical protein LOC100274299	5.6					
GRMZM2G162359	hypothetical protein LOC100274481	6.5					
GRMZM2G136771	hypothetical protein LOC100279046		-8.87				
GRMZM2G075595	hypothetical protein LOC100384061		53.36				
GRMZM2G426336	hypothetical protein LOC100191536			-3.38			
GRMZM2G148167	hypothetical protein LOC100193781			-2.94			
GRMZM2G071100	hypothetical protein LOC100216594			-3.33			
GRMZM2G043493				-3.23			
	hypothetical protein LOC100216770						
GRMZM2G124047	hypothetical protein LOC100217003			-3.52			
GRMZM2G150444	hypothetical protein LOC100272265			-5.99			
GRMZM2G457621	hypothetical protein LOC100272838			-3.58			
GRMZM5G834837	hypothetical protein LOC100273136			-3.63			
GRMZM2G107771	hypothetical protein LOC100273397			-3.46			
GRMZM2G031733	hypothetical protein LOC100273806			-4.66			
GRMZM5G832281	hypothetical protein LOC100274599			-3.25			
GRMZM2G136663	hypothetical protein LOC100275127			-3.18			
GRMZM2G034623	hypothetical protein LOC100275953			-4.26			
AC210193.4 FG002	hypothetical protein LOC100276953			-5.04			
GRMZM2G438243							
	hypothetical protein LOC100277095			-3.73			
GRMZM2G322917	hypothetical protein LOC100277625			-3.72			
GRMZM2G134064	hypothetical protein LOC100278163			-4.09			
GRMZM5G845644	hypothetical protein LOC100280037			-4.35			
GRMZM5G819835	hypothetical protein LOC100280137			-3.73			
GRMZM2G162127	hypothetical protein LOC100303844			-3.88			
GRMZM2G415470	hypothetical protein LOC100304274			-3.49			
GRMZM2G148404	hypothetical protein LOC100381686			-6.09			
GRMZM2G147942	hypothetical protein LOC100382040			-3.3			
GRMZM2G417107	hypothetical protein LOC100275319	-4.48		-3.94			
GRMZM2G056431	hypothetical protein LOC100276276	-4.3		-2.9			
GRMZM2G390150	hypothetical protein LOC100277984	-3.14		-3.61			
GRMZM2G132162			-5.06	-4.33			
	hypothetical protein LOC100303861						
GRMZM2G306643	hypothetical protein LOC100278004	-2.87	-3.5	-3.2			
GRMZM2G027472	hypothetical protein LOC100279126	-8.37	-8.98	-4.86			
GRMZM2G121137	hypothetical protein LOC100279160	-4.39	-6.77	-4.07			
GRMZM2G383408	hypothetical protein LOC100192085			2.73			
GRMZM2G068350	hypothetical protein LOC100192819			6.11			
GRMZM2G169931	hypothetical protein LOC100194368			3.09			
GRMZM5G828820	hypothetical protein LOC100216907			2.39			
GRMZM2G141665	hypothetical protein LOC100272718			2.48			
GRMZM5G876379	hypothetical protein LOC100274220			2.87			
GRMZM2G339562	hypothetical protein LOC100274353			2.68			
GRMZM2G094543	hypothetical protein LOC100274993			3.39			
GRMZM2G113480	hypothetical protein LOC100275199			6.55			
	hypothetical protein LOC100275408						
GRMZM2G157683				11.04			
GRMZM2G133430	hypothetical protein LOC100275437			2.58			
GRMZM2G136831	hypothetical protein LOC100276499			3.97			
GRMZM2G377647	hypothetical protein LOC100276586			3.28			
GRMZM2G302171	hypothetical protein LOC100277362			6.1			
GRMZM2G170742	hypothetical protein LOC100278075			15.9			
GRMZM2G164912	hypothetical protein LOC100278639			2.45			
GRMZM2G117993	hypothetical protein LOC100278684			3.52			
GRMZM2G093270	hypothetical protein LOC100278906			2.6			
GRMZM2G131055	hypothetical protein LOC100279381			3.15			

Table S2 Continued

	annotation	Af24hpi	Af48hpi	Af72hpi	Fv24hpi	Fv48hpi	Fv72hpi
gene name							
GRMZM2G177878	hypothetical protein LOC100279545			3.98			
GRMZM2G004880	hypothetical protein LOC100279565			2.41			
GRMZM2G061723	hypothetical protein LOC100279877			13.38			
GRMZM2G175396	hypothetical protein LOC100280069			3.58			
GRMZM2G128477	hypothetical protein LOC100280249			4.19			
GRMZM2G164475	hypothetical protein LOC100280402			3.2			
GRMZM2G134067							
	hypothetical protein LOC100303805			4.01			
GRMZM2G157327	hypothetical protein LOC100304412			4.19			
GRMZM2G076152	hypothetical protein LOC100381813			4.01			
GRMZM2G312661	hypothetical protein LOC100382070			2.82			
GRMZM2G130191	hypothetical protein LOC100382131			2.81			
GRMZM2G113583	hypothetical protein LOC100382196			8.62			
GRMZM2G178752	hypothetical protein LOC100383314			5.14			
GRMZM2G152189	hypothetical protein LOC100383538			7.17			
GRMZM2G004377	hypothetical protein LOC100383559			5.18			
GRMZM2G006977	hypothetical protein LOC100383926			3.18			
GRMZM2G008353	hypothetical protein LOC100383991			3.27			
GRMZM5G816086	hypothetical protein LOC100384717			6.58			
GRMZM2G468111	hypothetical protein LOC100277849		9.93	4.25			
GRMZM2G160611	hypothetical protein LOC100278801		28.69	12.01			
GRMZM2G100475	hypothetical protein LOC100304211		8.82	3.85			
GRMZM2G063765	hypothetical protein LOC100382742					2.59	
GRMZM5G822699	hypothetical protein LOC100382851						-3.59
GRMZM2G098102	hypothetical protein LOC100191602						14.82
GRMZM2G035557	hypothetical protein LOC100191804						2.67
	hypothetical protein LOC100192940						8.64
GRMZM2G126975							
GRMZM5G883250	hypothetical protein LOC100193298						2.58
GRMZM2G060714	hypothetical protein LOC100193379						5.51
GRMZM2G069694	hypothetical protein LOC100193809						4.01
GRMZM2G008528	hypothetical protein LOC100273559						7.27
GRMZM2G110220	hypothetical protein LOC100274259						5.9
GRMZM2G475956	hypothetical protein LOC100275132						3.16
GRMZM2G467072	hypothetical protein LOC100275382						15.62
GRMZM2G116640	hypothetical protein LOC100275790						3.16
GRMZM2G428216	hypothetical protein LOC100276732						3.38
GRMZM2G068826	hypothetical protein LOC100277874						5.21
GRMZM2G049654	hypothetical protein LOC100278542						11.13
GRMZM2G046353	hypothetical protein LOC100278926						5.56
GRMZM2G090328	hypothetical protein LOC100383500						6.53
GRMZM2G135013	hypothetical protein LOC100273022	16.17					12.01
GRMZM2G054807	hypothetical protein LOC100191889			4.66			4.63
GRMZM2G159477	hypothetical protein LOC100216915			4.14			3.33
GRMZM2G429617	hypothetical protein LOC100272958			45.35			26.13
GRMZM2G082943	hypothetical protein LOC100273016			2.57			2.77
GRMZM2G412986	hypothetical protein LOC100273057			3.53			3.33
GRMZM2G309327	hypothetical protein LOC100273276			4.13			4.94
GRMZM2G100650	hypothetical protein LOC100273327			5.6			2.96
GRMZM2G156310	hypothetical protein LOC100273481			6.09			4.39
GRMZM2G133613	hypothetical protein LOC100274035			8.32			4.83
GRMZM5G869299	hypothetical protein LOC100274346			3.75			2.69
GRMZM2G061702	hypothetical protein LOC100274378			12.94			6.72
GRMZM2G381071	hypothetical protein LOC100274538			6.34			5.53
GRMZM2G371167	hypothetical protein LOC100274648			6.46			3.89
GRMZM2G320960	hypothetical protein LOC100274847			9.23			5.46
GRMZM2G446201	hypothetical protein LOC100274970			4.12			4.28
GRMZM2G051151	hypothetical protein LOC100275200			5.36			4.48
AC194056.3 FG008	hypothetical protein LOC100275201			42.19			25.68
GRMZM2G039961	hypothetical protein LOC100275320			4.45			4.25
GRMZM2G165325	hypothetical protein LOC100275463			6.1			3.27
GRMZM5G856929	hypothetical protein LOC100275515			6.21			
							3.82
GRMZM2G022368	hypothetical protein LOC100276175			6.5			6.73
GRMZM2G133198	hypothetical protein LOC100276750			12.43			13.42
GRMZM2G430623	hypothetical protein LOC100277063			7.45			6.15
GRMZM2G140674	hypothetical protein LOC100277970			2.67			3.61
GRMZM2G408537	hypothetical protein LOC100278119			17.16			12.64
GRMZM2G033175	hypothetical protein LOC100278137			4.9			4.3

Table S2 Continued

gene name	annotation	Af24hpi	Af48hpi	Af72hpi	Fv24hpi	Fv48hpi	Fv72hpi
GRMZM2G444819	hypothetical protein LOC100278748			9.82			5.75
GRMZM2G444621	hypothetical protein LOC100280399			3.04			5.19
GRMZM2G046317	hypothetical protein LOC100303919			4.77			4.76
GRMZM5G882075	hypothetical protein LOC100304424			31.42			14.9
GRMZM2G316555	hypothetical protein LOC100382115			4.43			7.97
GRMZM2G021909	hypothetical protein LOC100382192			5.72			5.35
GRMZM5G863146	hypothetical protein LOC100382758			3.91			4.42
GRMZM2G037998	hypothetical protein LOC100383638			3.82			3.82
GRMZM2G346837	hypothetical protein LOC100384130			3.71			3.99
GRMZM2G105522	hypothetical protein LOC100384163			10.97			9.82
GRMZM2G119705	hypothetical protein LOC100192066	14.15		9.28			4.07
GRMZM2G155321	hypothetical protein LOC100216791	3.85		5.68			5.12
GRMZM2G164781	hypothetical protein LOC100276523	12.25		20.03			7.36
GRMZM2G094510	hypothetical protein LOC100278059	7.31		11.86			10.46
GRMZM2G170281	hypothetical protein LOC100279547	4.05		4.67			3.03
GRMZM5G812099	hypothetical protein LOC100384058	4.43		5.43			3.59
GRMZM2G166870	hypothetical protein LOC100273000		29.09	154.89			57.76
GRMZM2G138918	hypothetical protein LOC100192105	5.35	4.28	14.42			7.97
GRMZM2G176472	hypothetical protein LOC100382268	7.13	4.43	14.32			9.65
GRMZM2G449709	hypothetical protein LOC100382369	3.63	4.47	11.99			6.88
GRMZM2G100372	hypothetical protein LOC100191911					4.26	9.93
GRMZM2G032682	hypothetical protein LOC100278952	14.28				10.84	17.96
GRMZM2G091226	hypothetical protein LOC100193008			4.38		3.5	4.39
GRMZM2G092146	hypothetical protein LOC100275352			5.82		3.53	6.32
GRMZM2G334734	hypothetical protein LOC100278663			11.74		10.13	33.2
GRMZM2G061723	hypothetical protein LOC100279877			5.72		4.27	7.62
GRMZM2G041022	hypothetical protein LOC100273268	11.03		4.65		6.1	5.47
GRMZM2G131099	hypothetical protein LOC100275282	8.73		12.18		4.96	11.11
GRMZM2G325683	hypothetical protein LOC100276188	14.95		11.77		4.06	7.59
GRMZM2G151230	hypothetical protein LOC100277715	12.67		7.33		5.6	10.55
GRMZM2G039362	hypothetical protein LOC100277767	12.75		5.75		4.36	6.65
GRMZM2G037485	hypothetical protein LOC100382367	9.32		5.24		3.5	7.44
GRMZM2G323943	hypothetical protein LOC100383124	4.74		13.21		3.83	9.94
GRMZM2G152396	hypothetical protein LOC100304256		5.61	6.41		3.28	5.21
GRMZM2G364208	hypothetical protein LOC100275239	5.29	3.66	6.43		3.63	6.79
GRMZM2G161521	hypothetical protein LOC100275439	10.53	5.46	13.93		7.72	16.64
GRMZM2G041068	hypothetical protein LOC100275684	26.25	5.64	16.66		7.8	16.66
GRMZM2G325693	hypothetical protein LOC100277209	17.77	3.9	12.1		3.89	8.18
GRMZM2G010702	hypothetical protein LOC100382154	7	6.38	18.91		5.56	12.89
GRMZM2G449094	hypothetical protein LOC100384448	8.56	8.13	16.32		5.37	14.32
GRMZM2G322618	LOC100283550			-2.81			
GRMZM2G149935	LOC100280586			3.7			
GRMZM2G092817	LOC100280732			4.01			
GRMZM2G457309	LOC100281002			11.25			
GRMZM2G083538	LOC100281771			3.42			
GRMZM2G472248	LOC100283996			5.37			
GRMZM2G094428	LOC100284721			2.29			
GRMZM2G174719	LOC100285882			7.04			
GRMZM2G109959	LOC100280774					2.47	
GRMZM2G423129	LOC100281922			2.3		2.66	
GRMZM2G062283	LOC100282390			4.08			5.08
GRMZM2G133029	LOC100283967			3.77			2.89
GRMZM2G116629	LOC100283078	5.95		3.7			3.52
GRMZM2G108847	LOC100037813	14.34		11.62		3.41	7.07
GRMZM2G088819	LOC100284831	4.55	9.56	19.93		5.15	8.98
XLOC 038117	unknown	-3.28					
XLOC 103255	unknown	-3.81					
XLOC 112218	unknown	-5.7					
XLOC 037951	unknown	-3.43					
XLOC 084409	unknown	-7.05					
XLOC 103280	unknown	-9.79					
AC225346.3 FG001	unknown	-5.54					
GRMZM2G012901	unknown	-3.18					
GRMZM2G141864	unknown	-3.37					
GRMZM2G337581	unknown	-2.95					
GRMZM2G340307	unknown	-4.04					

Supplemental Material from Appendix A

Table S3. *A. flavus* secretory protein encoding genes that were detected during infection of maize kernels. Kernels were collected at 12, 24, 48 and 72 hpi. The fungal secretome database was used to analyze *A. flavus* genes coding for predicted secretory proteins (Choi et al., 2010). '+' denotes presence of transcripts. Genes that were not detected were left blank. hpi, hours post inoculation.

Secretome ID Secretome gene description 12hpi 24hpi 48hpi 72hpi AFLA 026140 | Alpha-amylase, putative $+ + + + + + + + + +$ AFLA 062690 | Alpha-1,6 mannosyltransferase subunit (Mnn9), putative + + + AFLA_091920 Alpha-1,6-mannosyltransferase subunit (Och1), putative + + + AFLA_105840 Alpha-galactosidase, putative + + + AFLA_026150 | Alpha-glucosidase AgdA, putative $+$ $+$ $+$ $+$ AFLA 060310 Alpha-glucosidase, putative $+ + + + +$ AFLA 083300 | Alpha-glucosidase, putative $+ + + + + + + + + +$ AFLA_063490 Alpha-L-arabinofuranosidase, putative + + + $AFLA_053690$ | Alpha-L-fucosidase 2, putative $+$ $+$ $+$ $+$ $AFLA_076120$ | Alpha-L-fucosidase 2, putative $+$ $+$ $+$ AFLA 025440 | Alpha-L-rhamnosidase A, putative $+ + + + +$ AFLA_050140 Alpha-L-rhamnosidase B, putative + + + AFLA 089770 | Alpha-N-arabinofuranosidase A, putative $+ + + + + +$ AFLA 097160 | Alpha-N-arabinofuranosidase A, putative $+$ AFLA_041900 Amidase family protein + + + + AFLA_061030 | Amidase family protein $+$ + $+$ + $+$ AFLA_024300 Amidase, putative + + + AFLA 004880 Amine oxidase, flavin-containing superfamily and the subset of $\vert + \vert$ AFLA 077160 | Amine oxidase, putative $+ + + + + + + + + +$ AFLA 124420 | Amine oxidase, putative $| + | + | + | + | +$ AFLA_066430 | Aminoadipic semialdehyde synthase, putative $+ + +$ + + AFLA_034640 | Aminopeptidase Y, putative $+$ $+$ $+$ $+$ AFLA_114830 | Aminopeptidase, putative $+$ + $+$ + $+$ AFLA 123170 | Amylase, putative $+ + + + + + + + + + + +$ AFLA_103170 | Anaphase-promoting complex subunit Apc5, putative $| + | + |$ AFLA_046630 Ankyrin repeat domain, putative + + + AFLA_040040 | Antigenic cell wall galactomannoprotein, putative $+ + +$ + + AFLA 073070 Arabinan-endo 1,5-alpha-L-arabinase, putative $+ + + +$ AFLA_127930 Arabinogalactan endo-1,4-beta-galactosidase GalA + + + AFLA 016210 | Arabinosidase, putative $+ + + + + + + +$ AFLA_073080 Arabinosidase, putative + + + AFLA_096120 Arylsulfatase, putative + + + AFLA_122380 Arylsulfatase, putative + + + AFLA 094450 Aspartic endopeptidase Pep1/aspergillopepsin F $| + | + | + | + | + | +$ AFLA 031250 Aspartic endopeptidase Pep2 $+ + + + + + + + + +$ AFLA 054660 Aspartic-type endopeptidase (OpsB), putative $+ + + + + +$ AFLA 038650 Aspartic-type endopeptidase, putative $+ + + + + + + +$ AFLA 121260 Aspartic-type endopeptidase, putative $+ + + + + + + + + +$ AFLA_019190 Aspartyl protease, putative + + + Aspergillopepsin, putative $+ + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + +$ AFLA 116740 Aspergillopepsin, putative $+ + + + + + +$ AFLA 099020 Autophagic serine protease Alp2 $+ + + + + + + + + + + +$ AFLA 043640 Autophagy related lipase Atg15, putative $+ + + + + + + + +$ AFLA 091500 Beta galactosidase, putative $+ + + + + + + + + + + + + + + +$

Laon DJ Communi Secretome ID	Secretome gene description	12hpi	24hpi	48hpi	72hpi
AFLA 128480	Beta glucosidase, putative		$^{+}$	$^{+}$	$\! + \!$
AFLA 047270	Beta-1,6-glucan boisynthesis protein (Knh1), putative		$\ddot{}$	$\overline{+}$	$\overline{+}$
AFLA 017100	Beta-galactosidase	$^{+}$	$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 016530	Beta-galactosidase, putative	$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$	$\overline{+}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 037600	Beta-galactosidase, putative		$\ddot{}$	$\overline{+}$	$\ddot{}$
			$\ddot{}$	$\overline{+}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 090730	Beta-glucosidase		$\ddot{}$	$\qquad \qquad +$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 069670 AFLA 126780	Beta-glucosidase 1, putative		$\ddot{}$	$\overline{+}$	$\ddot{}$
	Beta-glucosidase 2, putative		$\ddot{}$	$+$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 014190	Beta-glucosidase, putative		$\ddot{}$	$\qquad \qquad +$	$\qquad \qquad +$
AFLA 023350	Beta-glucosidase, putative			$\overline{+}$	
AFLA 051140	Beta-glucosidase, putative	$+$	$\ddot{}$	$\overline{+}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 039000	Beta-lactamase, putative				$\ddot{}$
AFLA 128610	Beta-mannosidase		$^{+}$	$\qquad \qquad +$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 078900	Beta-N-acetylhexosaminidase NagA, putative	$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$	
AFLA 057680	Beta-N-hexosaminidase, putative		$^{+}$	$\ddot{}$	$+$
AFLA 119790	Beta-xylosidase		$^{+}$	$\ddot{}$	$+$
AFLA 011080	Beta-xylosidase, putative		$^{+}$	$\ddot{}$	$+$
AFLA 028000	BNR/Asp-box repeat domain protein	$^{+}$	$^{+}$	$\ddot{}$	$+$
AFLA 025130	BYS1 domain protein, putative	$^{+}$	$+$	$^{+}$	$+$
AFLA 035740	Bys1 family protein				$+$
AFLA 095090	C6 transcription factor, putative		$+$	$+$	
AFLA 029170	C-8 sterol isomerase (Erg-1), putative	$^{+}$	$\ddot{}$	$\, +$	$\! + \!\!\!\!$
AFLA 059900	Calcium-binding protein, putative				$+$
AFLA 042310	cAMP-regulated D2 esterase, putative		$^{+}$		$^{+}$
AFLA 081630	Carboxyl ester lipase, zebrafish, putative		$+$	$+$	$^{+}$
AFLA 045610	Carboxylesterase domain containing protein, putative		$+$	$\ddot{}$	$+$
AFLA 126000	Carboxylesterase hlo, putative			$\ddot{}$	$+$
AFLA 046500	Carboxylesterase, putative		$+$	$\ddot{}$	$+$
AFLA 049530	Carboxylesterase, putative		$^{+}$	$\ddot{}$	$+$
AFLA 057790	Carboxylesterase, putative		$^{+}$	$\ddot{}$	$+$
AFLA 060140	Carboxylesterase, putative		$^{+}$	$\ddot{}$	$+$
AFLA 104460	Carboxylesterase, type B, putative		$^{+}$	$\ddot{}$	$+$
AFLA 008990	Carboxypeptidase CpyA/Prc1, putative	$^{+}$	$^{+}$	$\ddot{}$	$+$
AFLA 012020	Carboxypeptidase S1, putative	$^{+}$	$^{+}$	$\ddot{}$	$+$
AFLA 085960	Cell surface protein, putative	$^{+}$	$^{+}$	$^{+}$	$^{+}$
AFLA 126860	Cell wall cysteine-rich protein			$\ddot{}$	$+$
AFLA 078320	Cell wall glucanase (Scw11), putative		$+$		
AFLA 052780	Cell wall glucanase (Scw4), putative		$+$	$+$	$+$
AFLA 128120	Cell wall glucanase, putative	$+$		$\ddot{}$	
AFLA 064740	Cell wall glycosyl hydrolase YteR, putative		$+$	$\ddot{}$	$+$
AFLA 023600	Cell wall protein PhiA	$^{+}$	$+$	$\ddot{}$	$+$
AFLA 061960	Cell wall protein, putative				
AFLA 086990	Cell wall protein, putative	$+$		$\ddot{}$	$\boldsymbol{+}$
AFLA_039410	Cell wall serine-threonine-rich galactomannoprotein	$+$	$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\boldsymbol{+}$
	Mp1				
AFLA 069820	Cellobiohydrolase, putative	$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\boldsymbol{+}$

Table S3 Continued

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Secretome ID	Secretome gene description	12hpi	24hpi	48hpi	72hpi
AFLA 009060	Endo-1,4-beta-xylanase, putative	$^{+}$	$\ddot{}$ $\overline{+}$	$^{+}$ $\overline{+}$	$^{+}$ $\overline{+}$
AFLA 085590	Endo-arabinanase, putative				
AFLA 131570	Endo-arabinase, putative		$\ddot{}$	$\overline{+}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 045690	Endo-beta-1,6-glucanase, putative		$\ddot{}$	$\overline{+}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 038420	Endo-chitosanase B			$+$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 011440	Endoglucanase, putative	$^{+}$	$^{+}$	$\overline{+}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 029160	Endoglucanase, putative	$^{+}$	$\ddot{}$	$\overline{+}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 066300	Endoglucanase, putative	$^{+}$	$\ddot{}$	$\overline{+}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 077840	Endoglucanase, putative	$\ddot{}$	$\overline{+}$	$+$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 087870	Endoglucanase, putative	$^{+}$	$\ddot{}$	$\overline{+}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 105910	Endoglucanase, putative	$^{+}$	$\ddot{}$	$\overline{+}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 111970	Endoglucanase, putative	$^{+}$	$\ddot{}$	$+$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 138380	Endoglucanase, putative		$\ddot{}$	$\overline{+}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 039160	Endoglucanase-1, putative		$\ddot{}$	$\overline{+}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 126410	Endoglucanase-1, putative	$\! + \!\!\!\!$	$^{+}$	$\overline{+}$	$^{+}$
AFLA 123210	Endoglucanase-4, putative		$^{+}$		$\ddot{}$
AFLA 012960	Endoglycoceramidase, putative				
AFLA 003810	Endonuclease/exonuclease/phosphatase family	$+$		$+$	
	protein				
AFLA 083730	Epoxide hydrolase, putative		$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\ddot{}$	
AFLA 028270	Esterase family protein				$\ddot{}$
AFLA 002200	Esterase, putative	$+$	$+$		$^{+}$
AFLA 063680	Esterase, putative		$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$	$^{+}$
AFLA 105900	Esterase, putative	$^{+}$	$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 041950	Exo-beta-1,3-glucanase Exg0	$^{+}$	$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 107800	Exo-beta-1,3-glucanase, putative	$^{+}$	$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$	$^{+}$
AFLA 096690	Exopolygalacturonase, putative		$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$	$^{+}$
AFLA 138170	Exopolygalacturonase, putative	$\qquad \qquad +$	$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 002640	Exo-polygalacturonase, putative		$\ddot{}$		$\ddot{}$
AFLA 123690	Extracellular arabinanase, putative	$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\ddot{}$		$^{+}$
AFLA 014920	Extracellular aspartic endopeptidase, putative		$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$	$^{+}$
AFLA 105150	Extracellular carboxylesterase, putative			$\ddot{}$	$^{+}$
AFLA 061810	Extracellular cellulase CelA/allergen Asp F7-like,	$+$	$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\ddot{}$	$\boldsymbol{+}$
	putative				
AFLA 023500	Extracellular conserved serine-rich protein	$\boldsymbol{+}$		$\! + \!$	$\boldsymbol{+}$
AFLA 010120	Extracellular dioxygenase, putative		$\ddot{}$		$\boldsymbol{+}$
AFLA 020430	Extracellular dioxygenase, putative		$^+$		$^+$
AFLA 131820	Extracellular dioxygenase, putative		$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$	$\qquad \qquad +$
AFLA 110160	Extracellular dipeptidyl-peptidase Dpp4	$+$	$^{+}$	$^{+}$	$^{+}$
AFLA 059500	Extracellular endo-1,5-alpha-L-arabinase, putative	$\boldsymbol{+}$	$^{+}$	$^{+}$	$^{+}$
AFLA 045290	Extracellular endoglucanase/cellulase, putative	$^+$	$^{+}$	$^{+}$	$^{+}$
AFLA 001420	Extracellular exo-polygalacturonase, putative		$^{+}$	$\qquad \qquad +$	$^{+}$
AFLA 050150	Extracellular exo-polygalacturonase, putative		$\boldsymbol{+}$		$+$
AFLA 126750	Extracellular glycine-rich protein			$\boldsymbol{+}$	
AFLA 039400	Extracellular guanyl-specific ribonuclease RntA	$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\boldsymbol{+}$	$^+$
AFLA 020170	Extracellular lipase, putative		$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\boldsymbol{+}$

Table S3 Continued

Table S3 Continued

Secretome ID	Secretome gene description	12hpi	24hpi	48hpi	72hpi
AFLA 025190	Extracellular lipase, putative		$^{+}$	$^{+}$	$\hspace{0.1mm} +$
AFLA 065540	Extracellular lipase, putative		$^{+}$	$+$	
AFLA 122390	Extracellular lipase, putative		$^{+}$		$\! + \!$
AFLA 078590	Extracellular matrix protein, putative			$+$	
AFLA 019800	Extracellular phytase, putative		$^{+}$		
AFLA 089400	Extracellular phytase, putative		$^{+}$	$+$	$\! + \!$
AFLA 085500	Extracellular proline-glycine rich protein		$^{+}$	$+$	
AFLA 123700	Extracellular proline-rich protein		$^{+}$		
AFLA 064810	Extracellular proline-serine rich protein		$^{+}$	$+$	$\! + \!$
AFLA 109400	Extracellular protein, putative		$^{+}$		$\boldsymbol{+}$
AFLA 070940	Extracellular rhamnogalacturonase, putative		$^{+}$		
AFLA 002090	Extracellular serine carboxypeptidase, putative	$\! + \!\!\!\!$	$^{+}$		$\boldsymbol{+}$
AFLA 137110	Extracellular serine-rich protein, putative				
AFLA 085140	Extracellular thaumatin domain protein, putative		$^{+}$		
AFLA 137880	Extracellular triacylglycerol lipase, putative				$\ddot{}$
AFLA 007560	F5/8 type C domain protein			$^{+}$	$\! + \!$
AFLA 075370	FAD binding domain protein		$^{+}$		$\ddot{}$
AFLA 004220	FAD dependent oxidoreductase, putative		$^{+}$	$+$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 096380	FAD dependent oxidoreductase, putative		$^{+}$		$\! + \!$
AFLA 135400	FAD dependent oxidoreductase, putative		$^{+}$	$+$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 139470	FAD dependent oxidoreductase, putative	$+$	$^{+}$	$\boldsymbol{+}$	
AFLA 049190	FAD/FMN-containing isoamyl alcohol oxidase MreA	$\ddot{}$	$^{+}$		$\qquad \qquad +$
AFLA 136670	FAD/FMN-containing isoamyl alcohol oxidase		$^{+}$	$+$	$\overline{+}$
	MreA-like, putative				
AFLA 124950	FAD/FMN-containing protein		$\qquad \qquad +$	$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\qquad \qquad +$
AFLA 078060	FAD-binding oxidoreductase, putative				$^{+}$
AFLA 110890	FAD-dependent oxygenase, putative	$^{+}$	$^{+}$	$^{+}$	
AFLA 042090	Fasciclin domain family protein		$^{+}$	$\qquad \qquad +$	$^{+}$
AFLA 081980	Ferulic acid esterase (FaeA), putative			$\qquad \qquad +$	$^{+}$
AFLA 000910	Feruloyl esterase B, putative			$\boldsymbol{+}$	$^{+}$
AFLA 001440	Feruloyl esterase B, putative		$^{+}$	$\boldsymbol{+}$	$^{+}$
AFLA 128870	Feruloyl esterase, putative		$^{+}$	$^{+}$	$^{+}$
AFLA 028830	FG-GAP repeat protein, putative		$^{+}$	$\boldsymbol{+}$	$^{+}$
AFLA 118340	Flavin containing polyamine oxidase, putative	$\ddot{}$	$^{+}$	$^{+}$	$^{+}$
AFLA 138050	Flavonoid 3-hydroxylase, putative		$^{+}$	$^{+}$	$\! + \!$
AFLA 064300	Fructosyl amino acid oxidase, putative		$^{+}$		$\! + \!$
AFLA 104300	Fungal alpha-L-arabinofuranosidase, putative				
AFLA 071790	Galactose oxidase, putative			$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 042800	Gamma-gliadin, putative				
AFLA 057690	GDSL lipase/acylhydrolase family protein		$+$		
AFLA 039660	GDSL-like lipase/acylhydrolase domain protein			$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\! + \!$
AFLA 001230	Gloeobacteria sulfatase, putative				$\qquad \qquad +$
AFLA 021600	Glucan 1,3-beta-glucosidase, putative			$+$	
AFLA 107790	Glucan 1,3-beta-glucosidase, putative	$\qquad \qquad +$			
AFLA 122400	Glucan 1,4-alpha-glucosidase, putative	$\qquad \qquad +$	$+$	$^+$	
AFLA 034920	Glucan endo-1,3-alpha-glucosidase agn1, putative		$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\boldsymbol{+}$

Table S3 Continued

raoiv os commuta Secretome ID	Secretome gene description	12hpi	24hpi	48hpi	72hpi
AFLA 034950	Glucoamylase, putative	$+$	$+$	$^{+}$	$+$
AFLA 076820	Glucose oxidase, putative	$+$	$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\qquad \qquad +$	$\boldsymbol{+}$
AFLA_018040	Glucose-methanol-choline (Gmc) oxidoreductase,	$+$	$+$	$+$	$\boldsymbol{+}$
	putative				
AFLA_035080	Glucose-methanol-choline (Gmc) oxidoreductase,		$^{+}$	$\! + \!\!\!\!$	$\boldsymbol{+}$
	putative				
AFLA_040600	Glucose-methanol-choline (Gmc) oxidoreductase,				$\boldsymbol{+}$
	putative				
AFLA_092920	Glucose-methanol-choline (Gmc) oxidoreductase,				$\boldsymbol{+}$
	putative				
AFLA_107410	Glucose-methanol-choline (Gmc) oxidoreductase,				$\boldsymbol{+}$
	putative				
AFLA 014380	Glutamate carboxypeptidase, putative		$\boldsymbol{+}$	$^+$	$^+$
AFLA 072960	Glutamate carboxypeptidase, putative				$\boldsymbol{+}$
AFLA 109490	Glutamate carboxypeptidase, putative			$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\! + \!$
AFLA 101230	Glutaminase GtaA			$^+$	$\boldsymbol{+}$
AFLA 031760	Glutaminase, putative	$\! + \!$		$\qquad \qquad +$	$\! + \!$
AFLA 111400	Glutaminyl cyclase, putative			$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\! + \!$
AFLA 063250	Glutaminyl-peptide cyclotransferase, putative		$\! + \!$	$\qquad \qquad +$	$\! + \!$
AFLA 041450	Glutamyl-tRNA(Gln) amidotransferase, subunit A		$\! + \!$	$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\! + \!$ $\! + \!$
AFLA 120940	Glycan biosynthesis protein (PigL), putative Glycoside hydrolase, putative		$\! + \!$	$^+$ $\qquad \qquad +$	$\! + \!$
AFLA 095790 AFLA 120410	Glycosyl hydrolase family 43 protein			$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\! + \!$
AFLA 062930	Glycosyl hydrolase, family 43, putative			$^+$	$\boldsymbol{+}$
AFLA 001640	Glycosyl hydrolase, putative			$\qquad \qquad +$	$\! + \!$
AFLA 092470	Glycosyl hydrolase, putative	$^{+}$		$^+$	$\! + \!$
AFLA 104880	Glycosyl hydrolase, putative			$\qquad \qquad +$	$\! + \!$
AFLA 097890	Glycosyl hydrolases family 32 superfamily	$\! + \!$		$\qquad \qquad +$	$\! + \!$
AFLA 060420	Glycosyl transferase family 8 family, putative			$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\! + \!$
AFLA 137460	Glycosyl transferase, putative			$\qquad \qquad +$	$\boldsymbol{+}$
AFLA 016860	GMC oxidoreductase, putative			$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\! + \!$
AFLA 082250	GMC oxidoreductase, putative			$^+$	$\boldsymbol{+}$
AFLA 087060	GMC oxidoreductase, putative			$^+$	$\boldsymbol{+}$
AFLA 110510	GPI anchored cell wall protein, putative			$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\! + \!$
AFLA 113240	GPI anchored cell wall protein, putative	$^{+}$		$^+$	$\! + \!$
AFLA 115840	GPI anchored cell wall protein, putative		$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\boldsymbol{+}$
AFLA 123410	GPI anchored cell wall protein, putative		$^{+}$	$^{+}$	$^{+}$
AFLA 106450	GPI anchored CFEM domain protein		$\ddot{}$		$\boldsymbol{+}$
AFLA 077810	GPI anchored dioxygenase, putative		$\! + \!$		$\boldsymbol{+}$
AFLA 004200	GPI anchored glycoprotein, putative	$\! + \!\!\!\!$	$\boldsymbol{+}$	$^+$	$\boldsymbol{+}$
AFLA 002270	GPI anchored protein, putative			$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\boldsymbol{+}$
AFLA 011700	GPI anchored protein, putative	$\! + \!$		$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\boldsymbol{+}$
AFLA 021260	GPI anchored protein, putative		$\! + \!$	$\! + \!$	$\boldsymbol{+}$
AFLA 025060	GPI anchored protein, putative			$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\boldsymbol{+}$
AFLA 040110	GPI anchored protein, putative		$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\boldsymbol{+}$
AFLA 047090	GPI anchored protein, putative	$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\boldsymbol{+}$

Table S3 Continued

Secretome ID	Secretome gene description	12hpi	24hpi	48hpi	72hpi
AFLA 058410	GPI anchored protein, putative	$+$	$^{+}$	$+$	$^{+}$
AFLA 068360	GPI anchored protein, putative	$^{+}$	$^{+}$	$+$	$+$
AFLA 069090	GPI anchored protein, putative		$^{+}$	$+$	$+$
AFLA 091650	GPI anchored protein, putative	$+$	$\ddot{}$	$+$	$+$
AFLA 051250	GPI anchored serine-rich protein	$\! + \!\!\!\!$	$^{+}$	$+$	$+$
AFLA 021660	GPI anchored serine-threonine rich protein		$\ddot{}$	$+$	$+$
AFLA 028340	GPI anchored serine-threonine rich protein	$+$	$\ddot{}$	$+$	$+$
AFLA 103140	GPI anchored serine-threonine rich protein		$^{+}$	$+$	$+$
AFLA 113120	GPI-anchored cell wall organization protein Ecm33	$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\ddot{}$	$+$	$+$
AFLA 087490	Heme/steroid binding protein, putative		$\ddot{}$	$+$	$+$
AFLA 015090	HET-C domain protein		$^{+}$	$+$	$+$
AFLA 039870	Histidine acid phosphatase, putative		$\ddot{}$	$+$	$+$
AFLA 108950	Histidine acid phosphatase, putative	$^{+}$	$^{+}$	$+$	$+$
AFLA 059610	Homeobox-containing protein wariai, putative		$\ddot{}$		$+$
AFLA 104890	Hydrolase, putative		$^{+}$	$^{+}$	$+$
AFLA 131460	Hydrophobin family protein		$^{+}$	$+$	
AFLA 081480	IgE-binding protein	$\boldsymbol{+}$	$^{+}$	$+$	
AFLA 135590	Inosine-uridine preferring nucleoside hydrolase,		$\ddot{}$	$+$	$\ddot{}$
	putative				
AFLA 007630	Integral membrane protein, Mpv17/PMP22 family,		$+$	$+$	$+$
	putative				
AFLA 102480	Isoamyl alcohol oxidase			$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\boldsymbol{+}$
AFLA 017080	Isoamyl alcohol oxidase, putative			$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\qquad \qquad +$
AFLA 063120	Isoamyl alcohol oxidase, putative		$^{+}$	$\boldsymbol{+}$	
AFLA 065010	Isochorismatase family hydrolase, putative		$^{+}$	$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\qquad \qquad +$
AFLA 000890	Laccase TilA		$^{+}$	$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\qquad \qquad +$
AFLA 123160	Laccase, putative		$^{+}$		$\boldsymbol{+}$
AFLA 088610	Lactonohydrolase, putative		$^{+}$	$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\qquad \qquad +$
AFLA 138110	Lactonohydrolase, putative				
AFLA 121230	L-amino acid oxidase LaoA				$\boldsymbol{+}$
AFLA 084170	L-ascorbate oxidase, putative		$^{+}$	$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\qquad \qquad +$
AFLA 080660	L-asparaginase		$^{+}$	$^{+}$	
AFLA 013880	Lipase 2, putative		$^{+}$		
AFLA 121020	Lipase 8, putative		$^{+}$	$\qquad \qquad +$	$^{+}$
AFLA 016150	Lipase, putative		$^{+}$	$+$	
AFLA 102380	Lipase, putative		$\qquad \qquad +$		$\! + \!$
AFLA 126740	Lipase, putative				
AFLA 029690	Lipase/esterase, putative		$\ddot{}$	$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\boldsymbol{+}$
AFLA 110960	Lysophospholipase Plb1	$\boldsymbol{+}$		$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\qquad \qquad +$
AFLA 059410	Lysophospholipase Plb3		$^{+}$	$\boldsymbol{+}$	
AFLA 070170	Lysosomal alpha-glucosidase, putative	$\boldsymbol{+}$		$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\qquad \qquad +$
AFLA 107990	Lysosomal protective protein, putative			$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\qquad \qquad +$
AFLA 132770	Lysosomal protective protein, putative			$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\boldsymbol{+}$
AFLA 138180	Lysozyme, putative				$\qquad \qquad +$
AFLA 081910	Major allergen Asp F2			$^+$	
AFLA 038730	Mannan endo-1,4-beta-mannosidase A, putative		$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\boldsymbol{+}$
Tuolo os Comunuou Secretome ID	Secretome gene description	12hpi	24hpi	48hpi	72hpi
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AFLA 033400	Mannosidase MsdS	$+$	$+$	$^{+}$	$+$
AFLA 095980	Mannosylphosphate transferase (Mnn4), putative		$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$	$^{+}$
AFLA 037920	Mating alpha-pheromone PpgA			$\ddot{}$	
AFLA 040370	Membrane copper amine oxidase, putative		$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$	$^{+}$
AFLA 134170	ML domain protein, putative	$+$	$^{+}$	$\ddot{}$	$^{+}$
AFLA 061110	Mono-and diacylglycerol lipase, putative		$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$	$^{+}$
AFLA 096240	Monooxygenase, putative		$^{+}$	$\ddot{}$	$^{+}$
AFLA 119350	Monooxygenase, putative			$\ddot{}$	$^{+}$
AFLA 122300	Monooxygenase, putative				$^{+}$
AFLA 113300	Monoxygenase, putative	$^{+}$			
AFLA 006190	Multicopper oxidase, putative			$\ddot{}$	$^{+}$
AFLA 053930	Multicopper oxidase, putative				$^{+}$
AFLA 045660	Multicopper oxidase/laccase, putative				
AFLA 091580	Multiple inositol polyphosphate phosphatase, putative		$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$	$^{+}$
AFLA 028300	Muramidase, putative		$\ddot{}$		
AFLA 052730	Muramidase, putative				$\boldsymbol{+}$
AFLA 119040	Muramidase, putative	$^{+}$	$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$	$^{+}$
AFLA 090690	Mycelial catalase Cat1	$+$	$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$	$^{+}$
AFLA 013540	Neuroligin, putative		$+$	$\ddot{}$	$^{+}$
AFLA 095530	Neuroligin, putative				$^{+}$
AFLA 057670	Neutral protease 2, putative	$+$		$\ddot{}$	$^{+}$
AFLA 127540	Neutral/alkaline nonlysosomal ceramidase, putative		$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\ddot{}$	$^{+}$
AFLA 107610	NmrA-like family protein			$\ddot{}$	$^{+}$
AFLA 083420	Non-hemolytic phospholipase C, putative			$\ddot{}$	$^{+}$
AFLA 096450	NPP1 domain protein		$^{+}$	$\ddot{}$	$^{+}$
AFLA 013750	NPP1 domain protein, putative		$^{+}$	$\ddot{}$	$^{+}$
AFLA 054320	NPP1 domain protein, putative		$^{+}$	$\ddot{}$	$^{+}$
AFLA 004810	Nuclear pore glycoprotein p62, putative	$+$	$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$	$^{+}$
AFLA 064860	Nuclease S1, putative	$+$		$\ddot{}$	$^{+}$
AFLA 067380	Nucleoside diphosphatase Gda1		$\qquad \qquad +$	$\ddot{}$	$\boldsymbol{+}$
AFLA 121160	Oxalate decarboxylase oxdC, putative			$\ddot{}$	
AFLA 073210	Oxalate decarboxylase, putative	$\boldsymbol{+}$	$+$	$\ddot{}$	
AFLA 121990	Oxidoreductase, putative			$\ddot{}$	
AFLA 016360	PAF acetylhydrolase family protein	$+$	$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$	$^{+}$
AFLA 019760	Palmitoyl-protein thioesterase		$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$	
AFLA 111130	Pantetheine-phosphate adenylyltransferase family	$^{+}$		$\ddot{}$	$^{+}$
	protein				
AFLA 057770	Pectate lyase A	$+$	$+$	$+$	$+$
AFLA 044970	Pectate lyase, putative		$\boldsymbol{+}$		$\qquad \qquad +$
AFLA 077040	Pectate lyase, putative		$^{+}$	$^{+}$	$^{+}$
AFLA 116650	Pectate lyase, putative			$^{+}$	$^{+}$
AFLA 121970	Pectate lyase, putative	$+$			$\qquad \qquad +$
AFLA 007720	Pectin lyase	$+$	$\qquad \qquad +$		$^{+}$
AFLA 017180	Pectin lyase A, putative			$^{+}$	$\! + \!\!\!\!$
AFLA 116040	Pectin lyase B		$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\qquad \qquad +$	$\boldsymbol{+}$
AFLA 025400	Pectin lyase D, putative		$+$	$\qquad \qquad +$	$+$

Table S3 Continued

Table S3 Continued

Secretome ID	Secretome gene description	12hpi	24hpi	48hpi	72hpi
AFLA 119860	Pectin lyase, putative	$^{+}$	$^{+}$	$^{+}$	$+$
AFLA 124660	Pectin lyase, putative	$^{+}$	$^{+}$	$^{+}$	$\boldsymbol{+}$
AFLA 100100	Pectin methylesterase, putative		$^{+}$	$^{+}$	$+$
AFLA 001410	Pectinesterase		$+$	$^{+}$	$\boldsymbol{+}$
AFLA 020000	Pectinesterase		$+$	$^{+}$	$+$
AFLA 039450	Penicillin-binding protein, putative		$+$	$+$	$\boldsymbol{+}$
AFLA 065450	Penicillolysin/deuterolysin metalloprotease, putative			$+$	$+$
AFLA 037450	Peptidase, putative	$\qquad \qquad +$			$\ddot{}$
AFLA 120180	Pheromone processing carboxypeptidase (Sxa2),	$\qquad \qquad +$	$\ddot{}$		$\boldsymbol{+}$
	putative				
AFLA 013680	Phosphatidylglycerol specific phospholipase C,	$\boldsymbol{+}$	$+$	$+$	$+$
	putative				
AFLA 007870	Phosphatidylserine decarboxylase, putative		$+$	$+$	
AFLA 038690	Phosphoglycerate mutase family protein, putative		$+$	$+$	$^{+}$
AFLA 004420	Phospholipase D, putative		$+$	$^{+}$	
AFLA 029800	Phospholipase D, putative		$^{+}$	$+$	$^{+}$
AFLA 117760	Phytase, putative		$+$	$+$	
AFLA 132650	Polysaccharide deacetylase (NodB), putative	$\! + \!\!\!\!$	$+$	$+$	$^{+}$
AFLA 102060	Polysaccharide deacetylase, putative			$+$	
AFLA 085430	Prenylcysteine lyase, putative		$^{+}$	$+$	
AFLA 021870	Probable 1,4-beta-D-glucan cellobiohydrolase A			$+$	$^{+}$
AFLA 045570	Probable acetylxylan esterase A		$+$	$+$	
AFLA 074520	Probable alpha-galactosidase A		$+$	$+$	$^{+}$
AFLA 025300	Probable alpha-galactosidase B			$+$	
AFLA 138090	Probable alpha-glucuronidase A	$^{+}$	$+$	$+$	
AFLA 090240	Probable endo-1,4-beta-xylanase A		$^{+}$	$+$	$^{+}$
AFLA 065190	Probable endo-1,4-beta-xylanase B	$^{+}$	$+$	$+$	
AFLA 063510	Probable endo-1,4-beta-xylanase F1		$+$	$+$	$^{+}$
AFLA 008110	Probable endo-1,4-beta-xylanase F3		$+$	$+$	
AFLA 105920	Probable endopolygalacturonase B	$^{+}$	$+$	$+$	
AFLA 074250	Probable endopolygalacturonase D		$^{+}$	$+$	$^{+}$
AFLA 108160	Probable endopolygalacturonase I	$^{+}$	$+$	$+$	
AFLA 082390	Probable exo-1,4-beta-xylosidase xlnD		$^{+}$	$^{+}$	$+$
AFLA 122480	Probable exopolygalacturonase B		$+$	$^{+}$	$+$
AFLA 086360	Probable exopolygalacturonase C		$+$	$^{+}$	
AFLA 131770	Probable exopolygalacturonase X		$^{+}$	$+$	$\boldsymbol{+}$
AFLA 066140	Probable feruloyl esterase A		$+$	$+$	
AFLA 028260	Probable glucan 1,3-beta-glucosidase A		$^{+}$	$+$	$+$
AFLA 116950	Probable mannan endo-1,4-beta-mannosidase A		$+$	$+$	$^{+}$
AFLA 069870	Probable mannan endo-1,4-beta-mannosidase F	$^{+}$	$+$	$^{+}$	$^{+}$
AFLA 138570	Protease S8 tripeptidyl peptidase I, putative	$^{+}$	$+$	$+$	$^{+}$
AFLA 057990	Purine nucleoside permease, putative		$+$	$^{+}$	$^{+}$
AFLA 058940	Pyruvate dehydrogenase, putative		$^{+}$	$+$	$^{+}$
AFLA 090700	Quercetin 2,3-dioxygenase, putative		$+$	$^{+}$	$^{+}$
AFLA 086080	Restculine oxidase, putative			$^{+}$	$^{+}$
AFLA 060280	Rhamnogalacturonan acetylesterase RgaE		$\! + \!$	$\! + \!\!\!\!$	$^{+}$

Table S3 Continued **Secretome ID Secretome gene description 12hpi 24hpi 48hpi 72hpi** AFLA 025660 Rhamnogalacturonan acetylesterase, putative $+ + + +$ AFLA_041820 Rhamnogalacturonase B, putative + + + + AFLA_124310 Rhamnogalacturonase, putative + + + AFLA 072650 Salicylate hydroxylase, putative $+ + + + + +$ AFLA 074380 Salicylate hydroxylase, putative $+ + + + + + + +$ AFLA 096290 Salicylate hydroxylase, putative $+ + + + + +$ AFLA 137280 Sarcosine oxidase, putative $+ + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + +$ AFLA_067000 SCP-like extracellular protein, putative + + + + Secreted dipeptidyl peptidase DppV $+ + + + + + + + + + + + + + +$ AFLA 024050 Secretory lipase, putative $+ + + + + + +$ AFLA 077710 Secretory lipase, putative $+ + + + + + + + + + + + +$ AFLA 132930 Secretory pathway protein Ssp120, putative $+ + + + + + + +$ AFLA_100650 Serine carboxypeptidase (CpdS), putative + + + + Serine carboxypeptidase, putative $\vert + \vert$ AFLA 041800 Serine peptidase, family S28, putative $+ + + +$ AFLA 104670 Serine peptidase, putative $+ + + + + + + + + + + + +$ AFLA 110210 Serine protease, putative $+ + + + + + + + +$ $AFLA$ 024600 Short chain oxidoreductase (CsgA), putative $+ + +$ AFLA 102400 Siderophore biosynthesis enzyme, putative $+ + + + + + + +$ AFLA 002020 Spherulin 4-like cell surface protein, putative $+ + +$ AFLA 094440 Spherulin 4-like cell surface protein, putative $+ + + +$ AFLA 104470 Spherulin-1B, putative $+$ AFLA 093550 Stress response protein Rds1, putative $+ + + + +$ AFLA 067180 Sulfatase-1, sulf-1, putative $+ + +$ AFLA 076430 SUN domain protein (Uth1), putative $+ + + + + + + +$ AFLA_068080 Superoxide dismutase [Cu-Zn] + + + + AFLA 011550 Tannase, putative $+ + + + + + + +$ AFLA 104840 Tannase, putative $+ + +$ AFLA 006350 Thioredoxin reductase, putative $+ + + + + + + + + + + +$ AFLA 101550 Thioredoxin reductase, putative $+ + +$ AFLA 132020 Toxin biosynthesis peroxidase, putative $+ + + + + +$ AFLA 041880 Triacylglycerol lipase (LipA), putative $+$ AFLA 011910 Triacylglycerol lipase, putative $+ + + + + + +$ AFLA_000860 Tripeptidyl peptidase A + + + + AFLA 086160 Tripeptidyl peptidase SED3 $+ + + + + + + +$ AFLA 040430 Tripeptidyl-peptidase (TppA), putative $+ + + + + + + + +$ AFLA_018450 Tyrosinase, putative + + + + AFLA 067860 Tyrosinase, putative $+ + + + + + +$ AFLA 120380 Tyrosinase, putative $+ + + + + + +$ AFLA_126850 Vacuolar protease A, putative + + + AFLA_015670 Vacuolar segregation protein (Pep7), putative + + + + WD repeat-containing protein, putative $+$ + $+$ + $+$ $AFLA_101270$ WSC domain protein, putative $+$ $+$ $+$ $+$ AFLA 136480 Xylosidase : arabinofuranosidase $+ + + +$ AFLA 004380 Xylosidase : arabinofuranosidase, putative $+ + +$ AFLA 053070 Yapsin, putative $+ + + + + + + + + +$

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raone ob Comunitium Secretome ID	Secretome gene description	12hpi	24hpi	48hpi	72hpi
AFLA 014620	Putative uncharacterized protein	$^{+}$	$+$	$+$	$^{+}$
AFLA 014890	Putative uncharacterized protein		$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 015560	Putative uncharacterized protein				
AFLA 015960	Putative uncharacterized protein				$+$
AFLA 016240	Putative uncharacterized protein			$^{+}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 016980	Putative uncharacterized protein		$\! + \!\!\!\!$	$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 017230	Putative uncharacterized protein			$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 017350	Putative uncharacterized protein		$^{+}$	$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 017460	Putative uncharacterized protein		$+$	$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 017740	Putative uncharacterized protein			$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 017750	Putative uncharacterized protein	$^{+}$	$^{+}$	$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 018920	Putative uncharacterized protein		$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 019160	Putative uncharacterized protein	$^{+}$	$+$	$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 019170	Putative uncharacterized protein		$^{+}$	$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 019510	Putative uncharacterized protein	$^{+}$	$\ddot{}$	$\overline{+}$	$\overline{+}$
AFLA 019620	Putative uncharacterized protein	$^{+}$	$+$	$\overline{+}$	$\overline{+}$
AFLA 020010	Putative uncharacterized protein		$+$	$\overline{+}$	$+$
AFLA 020420	Putative uncharacterized protein		$+$	$\overline{+}$	$\overline{+}$
AFLA 021010	Putative uncharacterized protein		$\ddot{}$	$\overline{+}$	$+$
AFLA 021530	Putative uncharacterized protein	$+$	$\, +$	$\overline{+}$	$+$
AFLA 023130	Putative uncharacterized protein				$+$
AFLA 023150	Putative uncharacterized protein				$\overline{+}$
AFLA 023250		$^{+}$	$+$	$^{+}$	$+$
AFLA 023610	Putative uncharacterized protein Putative uncharacterized protein	$^{+}$		$\overline{+}$	$\overline{+}$
AFLA 023830	Putative uncharacterized protein		$+$	$\overline{+}$	$+$
AFLA 023850	Putative uncharacterized protein		$+$	$\overline{+}$	$\overline{+}$
AFLA 023990	Putative uncharacterized protein		$+$	$+$	$\overline{+}$
AFLA 024190		$+$		$\overline{+}$	$\overline{+}$
AFLA 024550	Putative uncharacterized protein		$\, +$	$+$	$\overline{+}$
AFLA 025010	Putative uncharacterized protein		$+$	$\overline{+}$	$\overline{+}$
AFLA 025230	Putative uncharacterized protein		$+$	$\overline{+}$	$\overline{+}$
AFLA 025260	Putative uncharacterized protein Putative uncharacterized protein		$\ddot{}$	$\overline{+}$	$\overline{+}$
		$\! + \!\!\!\!$	$\overline{+}$	$\overline{+}$	$\overline{+}$
AFLA 025880 AFLA 027210	Putative uncharacterized protein Putative uncharacterized protein	$^{+}$	$+$	$\overline{+}$	$+$
AFLA 028880	Putative uncharacterized protein				$+$
AFLA 029470			$\, +$	$\overline{+}$	$\overline{+}$
	Putative uncharacterized protein			$^{+}$	
AFLA 029550	Putative uncharacterized protein		$\ddot{}$	$\overline{+}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 029970	Putative uncharacterized protein		$+$	$\overline{+}$	$\overline{+}$
AFLA 030270	Putative uncharacterized protein	$\ddot{}$	$+$	$\overline{+}$	$+$
AFLA 030550	Putative uncharacterized protein		$\ddot{}$	$\overline{+}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 031040	Putative uncharacterized protein		$\overline{+}$	$\overline{+}$	$+$
AFLA 031050	Putative uncharacterized protein			$\overline{+}$	$\overline{+}$
AFLA 031440	Putative uncharacterized protein			$\overline{+}$	$\overline{+}$
AFLA 032330	Putative uncharacterized protein		$\, +$ $+$	$+$	
AFLA 032670	Putative uncharacterized protein	$\! + \!$			$\qquad \qquad +$
AFLA 032930	Putative uncharacterized protein		$+$	$\overline{+}$	$\overline{+}$

Table S3 Continued

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Secretome ID	Secretome gene description	12hpi	24hpi	48hpi	72hpi
AFLA 053730	Putative uncharacterized protein			$+$	$\! +$
AFLA 053920	Putative uncharacterized protein		$^{+}$		
AFLA 054020	Putative uncharacterized protein		$+$	$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 054220	Putative uncharacterized protein				
AFLA 054240	Putative uncharacterized protein			$^{+}$	
AFLA 054330	Putative uncharacterized protein		$+$	$+$	
AFLA 054460	Putative uncharacterized protein				
AFLA 056240	Putative uncharacterized protein		$^{+}$		$\boldsymbol{+}$
AFLA 056470	Putative uncharacterized protein		$+$	$+$	
AFLA 056760	Putative uncharacterized protein		$+$		
AFLA 056870	Putative uncharacterized protein			$+$	$\boldsymbol{+}$
AFLA 057050	Putative uncharacterized protein		$^{+}$	$+$	
AFLA 057180	Putative uncharacterized protein				$\ddot{}$
AFLA 057500	Putative uncharacterized protein		$^{+}$	$+$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 057520	Putative uncharacterized protein			$+$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 059820	Putative uncharacterized protein		$\! + \!\!\!\!$	$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 059840	Putative uncharacterized protein		$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 060110	Putative uncharacterized protein		$\ddot{}$	$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 060350	Putative uncharacterized protein		$\ddot{}$		$\ddot{}$
AFLA 061050	Putative uncharacterized protein		$+$	$+$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 061460	Putative uncharacterized protein		$+$	$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 061650	Putative uncharacterized protein				$\ddot{}$
AFLA 061720	Putative uncharacterized protein		$^{+}$	$+$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 062430	Putative uncharacterized protein		$^{+}$	$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 062640	Putative uncharacterized protein	$^{+}$	$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 062890	Putative uncharacterized protein		$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 063040	Putative uncharacterized protein		$+$	$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 063070	Putative uncharacterized protein		$+$	$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 063080	Putative uncharacterized protein				$\ddot{}$
AFLA 063110	Putative uncharacterized protein				$\ddot{}$
AFLA 063260	Putative uncharacterized protein	$^{+}$	$^{+}$	$^{+}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 063480	Putative uncharacterized protein		$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 064620	Putative uncharacterized protein		$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 064680	Putative uncharacterized protein		$+$		$\ddot{}$
AFLA 064820	Putative uncharacterized protein				$\overline{+}$
AFLA 064840	Putative uncharacterized protein	$^{+}$	$+$	$+$	$\overline{+}$
AFLA 064900	Putative uncharacterized protein	$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\! + \!$	$\! + \!$
AFLA 065270	Putative uncharacterized protein				$\ddot{}$
AFLA 065430	Putative uncharacterized protein			$^{+}$	
AFLA 066120	Putative uncharacterized protein				$^{+}$
AFLA 066670	Putative uncharacterized protein				$^{+}$
AFLA 066760	Putative uncharacterized protein		$+$	$+$	$^{+}$
AFLA 067140	Putative uncharacterized protein		$^{+}$	$^{+}$	$^{+}$
AFLA 068220	Putative uncharacterized protein				
AFLA 068610	Putative uncharacterized protein	$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\ddot{}$	$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\boldsymbol{+}$
AFLA 069600	Putative uncharacterized protein		$\qquad \qquad +$		

Table S3 Continued

raon do Communica Secretome ID		12hpi	24hpi		72hpi
AFLA 089300	Secretome gene description Putative uncharacterized protein		$+$	48hpi $+$	$+$
AFLA 089460	Putative uncharacterized protein				$\overline{+}$
AFLA 090090	Putative uncharacterized protein		$^{+}$	$^{+}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 090410	Putative uncharacterized protein		$\ddot{}$	$\overline{+}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 090560			$\ddot{}$	$\overline{+}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 090710	Putative uncharacterized protein		$\ddot{}$	$\overline{+}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 092020	Putative uncharacterized protein		$^{+}$	$\overline{+}$	$\ddot{}$
	Putative uncharacterized protein		$\ddot{}$	$\overline{+}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 092170 AFLA 094140	Putative uncharacterized protein		$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$
	Putative uncharacterized protein		$\ddot{}$		$\overline{+}$
AFLA 094270	Putative uncharacterized protein				
AFLA 094600	Putative uncharacterized protein	$^{+}$	$^{+}$	$^{+}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 094770	Putative uncharacterized protein			$\overline{+}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 094980	Putative uncharacterized protein		$+$	$\overline{+}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 095000	Putative uncharacterized protein			$\overline{+}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 095200	Putative uncharacterized protein		$^{+}$	$^{+}$	$+$
AFLA 095400	Putative uncharacterized protein	$^{+}$	$+$	$+$	$+$
AFLA 095950	Putative uncharacterized protein	$^{+}$	$+$	$+$	$+$
AFLA 096130	Putative uncharacterized protein	$^{+}$	$+$	$^{+}$	$+$
AFLA 096230	Putative uncharacterized protein			$+$	$+$
AFLA 096470	Putative uncharacterized protein				$+$
AFLA 096650	Putative uncharacterized protein			$^{+}$	$+$
AFLA 096660	Putative uncharacterized protein			$+$	$+$
AFLA 096780	Putative uncharacterized protein			$^{+}$	$+$
AFLA 097130	Putative uncharacterized protein		$+$	$+$	$+$
AFLA 097190	Putative uncharacterized protein		$+$	$+$	$+$
AFLA 097270	Putative uncharacterized protein			$^{+}$	$+$
AFLA 097310	Putative uncharacterized protein			$^{+}$	$+$
AFLA 097340	Putative uncharacterized protein	$^{+}$	$+$	$+$	$+$
AFLA 097670	Putative uncharacterized protein	$^{+}$	$+$	$+$	$+$
AFLA 097770	Putative uncharacterized protein			$^{+}$	$+$
AFLA 098660	Putative uncharacterized protein			$+$	$+$
AFLA 099050	Putative uncharacterized protein	$^{+}$	$+$	$+$	$+$
AFLA 099110	Putative uncharacterized protein	$^{+}$	$+$	$\ddot{}$	$+$
AFLA 099390	Putative uncharacterized protein		$+$		
AFLA 100560	Putative uncharacterized protein				$\! + \!\!\!\!$
AFLA 101330	Putative uncharacterized protein	$^{+}$	$^{+}$	$+$	$+$
AFLA 101350	Putative uncharacterized protein				$^{+}$
AFLA 101540	Putative uncharacterized protein	$^{+}$	$+$	$+$	$+$
AFLA 101960	Putative uncharacterized protein		$+$	$+$	$+$
AFLA 102080	Putative uncharacterized protein	$^{+}$	$+$	$^{+}$	$+$
AFLA 102190	Putative uncharacterized protein		$+$	$^{+}$	$+$
AFLA 102360	Putative uncharacterized protein		$+$	$^{+}$	$+$
AFLA 102440	Putative uncharacterized protein			$+$	$+$
AFLA 103460	Putative uncharacterized protein			$^{+}$	$+$
AFLA 104690	Putative uncharacterized protein		$+$	$^{+}$	$+$
AFLA 105020	Putative uncharacterized protein		$\ddot{}$	$^{+}$	$\boldsymbol{+}$

Table S3 Continued

raon do Communica Secretome ID	Secretome gene description	12hpi	24hpi	48hpi	72hpi
AFLA 105140	Putative uncharacterized protein			$+$	
AFLA 105270	Putative uncharacterized protein		$\qquad \qquad +$	$\overline{+}$	$\overline{+}$
AFLA 105280	Putative uncharacterized protein	$+$	$\ddot{}$	$+$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 105420	Putative uncharacterized protein		$\ddot{}$	$+$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 105460	Putative uncharacterized protein		$\ddot{}$		$\ddot{}$
AFLA 105500	Putative uncharacterized protein				$\ddot{}$
AFLA 106530	Putative uncharacterized protein		$^{+}$	$\qquad \qquad +$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 107430	Putative uncharacterized protein	$\! + \!$	$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 107860	Putative uncharacterized protein	$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$	$+$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 108290	Putative uncharacterized protein				$\ddot{}$
AFLA 108500	Putative uncharacterized protein				$\ddot{}$
AFLA 109960	Putative uncharacterized protein		$^{+}$	$^{+}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 110270	Putative uncharacterized protein		$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 111540	Putative uncharacterized protein		$\ddot{}$	$\overline{+}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 112540	Putative uncharacterized protein	$^{+}$	$+$	$+$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 113380	Putative uncharacterized protein			$^{+}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 113590	Putative uncharacterized protein		$^{+}$	$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 115080	Putative uncharacterized protein		$^{+}$	$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 115370	Putative uncharacterized protein		$^{+}$	$^{+}$	$+$
		$^{+}$	$+$	$^{+}$	
AFLA 116020 AFLA 116340	Putative uncharacterized protein	$\! + \!\!\!\!$	$+$	$^{+}$	
AFLA 116540	Putative uncharacterized protein				$\! + \!\!\!\!$
	Putative uncharacterized protein				$\ddot{}$
AFLA 116550	Putative uncharacterized protein		$^{+}$	$+$	$+$
AFLA 116900	Putative uncharacterized protein		$^{+}$	$\ddot{}$ $+$	$+$
AFLA 116940	Putative uncharacterized protein		$^{+}$		$\ddot{}$
AFLA 116970	Putative uncharacterized protein		$+$		
AFLA 117030	Putative uncharacterized protein			$+$	$\! + \!\!\!\!$
AFLA 117090	Putative uncharacterized protein		$\! + \!\!\!\!$		$\ddot{}$
AFLA 117130	Putative uncharacterized protein				$\ddot{}$
AFLA 117170	Putative uncharacterized protein		$\! + \!\!\!\!$	$+$	$+$
AFLA 118130	Putative uncharacterized protein			$\ddot{}$	$+$
AFLA 118420	Putative uncharacterized protein	$\! + \!\!\!\!$	$^{+}$	$+$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 118490	Putative uncharacterized protein	$^{+}$	$^{+}$	$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 118510	Putative uncharacterized protein	$\! + \!\!\!\!$	$^{+}$	$^{+}$	$+$
AFLA 118600	Putative uncharacterized protein		$^{+}$	$\ddot{}$	$^{+}$
AFLA 118690	Putative uncharacterized protein		$^{+}$	$^{+}$	$+$
AFLA 118790	Putative uncharacterized protein		$+$		$^{+}$
AFLA 119150	Putative uncharacterized protein			$+$	$+$
AFLA 119240	Putative uncharacterized protein		$+$	$^{+}$	$^{+}$
AFLA 119680	Putative uncharacterized protein		$+$	$\ddot{}$	$+$
AFLA 119690	Putative uncharacterized protein		$+$	$^{+}$	$+$
AFLA 119770	Putative uncharacterized protein		$^{+}$	$+$	$+$
AFLA 121570	Putative uncharacterized protein		$^{+}$	$+$	$+$
AFLA 121660	Putative uncharacterized protein		$+$	$\ddot{}$	$+$
AFLA 121670	Putative uncharacterized protein			$\ddot{}$	$+$
AFLA 121740	Putative uncharacterized protein		$\boldsymbol{+}$		$^+$

Table S3 Continued

LAUIU DJ COMMITACU Secretome ID	Secretome gene description	12hpi	24hpi	48hpi	72hpi
AFLA 121940	Putative uncharacterized protein				$^{+}$
AFLA 121950	Putative uncharacterized protein				$\ddot{}$
AFLA 122180	Putative uncharacterized protein		$^{+}$	$+$	$^{+}$
AFLA 122240	Putative uncharacterized protein		$+$	$+$	$^{+}$
AFLA 122970	Putative uncharacterized protein				$^{+}$
				$^{+}$	
AFLA 123340	Putative uncharacterized protein		$^{+}$ $+$	$\ddot{}$	
AFLA 123580	Putative uncharacterized protein	$^{+}$	$+$	$\ddot{}$	
AFLA 123660	Putative uncharacterized protein			$\ddot{}$	$^{+}$
AFLA 123800	Putative uncharacterized protein			$^{+}$	$^{+}$
AFLA 124070	Putative uncharacterized protein		$^{+}$	$+$	
AFLA 124890	Putative uncharacterized protein				
AFLA 125360	Putative uncharacterized protein		$^{+}$		
AFLA 125390	Putative uncharacterized protein				$^{+}$
AFLA 125580	Putative uncharacterized protein		$^{+}$	$^{+}$ $\overline{+}$	
AFLA 125650	Putative uncharacterized protein		$+$		$^{+}$
AFLA 125950	Putative uncharacterized protein		$+$	$\overline{+}$	$\overline{+}$
AFLA 126240	Putative uncharacterized protein		$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$	$\overline{+}$
AFLA 126430	Putative uncharacterized protein		$^{+}$	$\ddot{}$	$\overline{+}$
AFLA 126570	Putative uncharacterized protein		$\overline{+}$	$\overline{+}$	$+$
AFLA 126870	Putative uncharacterized protein		$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$	$\overline{+}$
AFLA 127130	Putative uncharacterized protein	$+$	$+$	$\ddot{}$	$+$
AFLA 127190	Putative uncharacterized protein		$+$	$\overline{+}$	$+$
AFLA 127950	Putative uncharacterized protein	$+$	$+$	$\ddot{}$	$\overline{+}$
AFLA 128410	Putative uncharacterized protein			$\ddot{}$	$+$
AFLA 129080	Putative uncharacterized protein			$\ddot{}$	$\overline{+}$
AFLA 129230	Putative uncharacterized protein	$+$	$+$	$\overline{+}$	$\overline{+}$
AFLA 131400	Putative uncharacterized protein	$+$	$\overline{+}$	$\ddot{}$	$\overline{+}$
AFLA 131910	Putative uncharacterized protein		$+$	$\ddot{}$	$\overline{+}$
AFLA 132110	Putative uncharacterized protein		$+$	$\overline{+}$	$+$
AFLA 133630	Putative uncharacterized protein		$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$	$\overline{+}$
AFLA 133640	Putative uncharacterized protein		$\ddot{}$	$\ddot{}$	$+$
AFLA 133810	Putative uncharacterized protein	$+$	$+$	$\ddot{}$	$\overline{+}$
AFLA 134850	Putative uncharacterized protein		$+$	$\overline{+}$	$+$
AFLA 135210	Putative uncharacterized protein	$+$		$\ddot{}$	$+$
AFLA 135310	Putative uncharacterized protein			$\overline{+}$	$\overline{+}$
AFLA 136270	Putative uncharacterized protein		$+$	$+$	$\overline{+}$
AFLA 136610	Putative uncharacterized protein			$^{+}$	
AFLA 137180	Putative uncharacterized protein		$\ddot{}$	$\overline{+}$	$\ddot{}$
AFLA 138140	Putative uncharacterized protein		$\overline{+}$	$\overline{+}$	$\overline{+}$
AFLA 138150	Putative uncharacterized protein	$+$	$\overline{+}$	$\overline{+}$	$\overline{+}$
AFLA 138310	Putative uncharacterized protein			$\overline{+}$	$^{+}$
AFLA 138690	Putative uncharacterized protein				$^{+}$
AFLA 138790	Putative uncharacterized protein		$+$		$\overline{+}$
AFLA 138840	Putative uncharacterized protein			$\overline{+}$	$^{+}$
AFLA 139000	Putative uncharacterized protein		$\boldsymbol{+}$	$\overline{+}$	$^{+}$
AFLA 139050	Putative uncharacterized protein				$\overline{+}$

Table S3 Continued

Table S3 Continued

