

The *mtfA* Transcription Factor Gene Controls Morphogenesis, Gliotoxin Production, and Virulence in the Opportunistic Human Pathogen *Aspergillus fumigatus*

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Aspergillus fumigatus is the leading causative agent of invasive aspergillosis (IA). The number of cases is on the rise, with mortality rates as high as 90% among immunocompromised patients. Molecular genetic studies in *A. fumigatus* could provide novel targets to potentially set the basis for antifungal therapies. In the current study, we investigated the role of the transcription factor gene *mtfA* in *A. fumigatus*. Our results revealed that *mtfA* plays a role in the growth and development of the fungus. Deletion or overexpression of *mtfA* leads to a slight reduction in colony growth, as well as a reduction in conidiation levels, in the overexpression strain compared to the wild-type strain. Furthermore, production of the secondary metabolite gliotoxin increased when *mtfA* was overexpressed, coinciding with an increase in the transcription levels of the gliotoxin genes *gliZ* and *gliP* with respect to the wild type. In addition, our study showed that *mtfA* is also necessary for normal protease activity in *A. fumigatus*; deletion of *mtfA* resulted in a reduction of protease activity compared to wild-type levels. Importantly, the absence of *mtfA* caused a decrease in virulence in the *Galleria mellonella* infection model, indicating that *mtfA* is necessary for *A. fumigatus* wild-type pathogenesis.

Aspergillus fumigatus is a ubiquitous saprotrophic fungus that is also an opportunistic human pathogen. Inhalation of *A. fumigatus* conidia can cause allergic bronchopulmonary aspergillosis, an allergic response to the spores that occurs in hypersensitive patients (1, 2). In immunodepressed patients *A. fumigatus* is the leading causative agent of invasive aspergillosis (IA). This group of patients includes those infected with HIV, cancer patients undergoing chemotherapy, organ transplant patients, individuals with genetic immunodeficiencies, and patients with hematological malignancies (3–8). A number of factors are contributing to the increasing proportion of the population affected by this disease (9), for example, the rise in HIV cases, more advanced technology to perform organ transplants, and more effective therapies for cancer patients and autoimmune diseases (3, 9–11). Once the fungal infection has been established, IA has a mortality rate ranging from 40 to 90% in these patients.

The primary route of infection by *A. fumigatus* is inhalation. The small size (2.5 to 3.0 μm) of the asexual spores, called conidia, allows them to reach the lung alveoli (12). The first point of contact is with the bronchial epithelial cells (1). These cells have dectin-1 receptors that can recognize the β -1,3-glucan on the cell surfaces of conidia (1, 13, 14), activating the production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) and of antimicrobial peptides and cytokines as part of the initial immune response. In healthy individuals, conidia that are able to evade mucociliary clearance are quickly removed by either alveolar macrophages or epithelial cells via phagocytosis. A proinflammatory response also includes the recruiting neutrophils that have the capability to eliminate hyphae, preventing further fungal colonization. The identification of genetic mechanisms that regulate *A. fumigatus* conidiation could contribute to strategies to decrease the primary source of the fungal inoculum.

Fungal morphological development, such as conidiation, and secondary metabolism have been shown to be genetically linked (15–18). *A. fumigatus* possesses the capacity to produce a large

range of secondary metabolites, also called natural products, which are important for environmental fitness (15, 19). Some of these secondary metabolites are virulence factors during *A. fumigatus* infection. The best known is gliotoxin, which has been shown to inhibit phagocytosis by macrophages and to kill neutrophils (20–34).

Knowledge of genetic links connecting morphogenesis and biosynthesis of natural products in *A. fumigatus* is still limited. The most studied genes are those encoding components of the global regulatory *velvet* protein complex (17, 18, 35), in which VeA might act as a scaffold. Previously reported work from our laboratory has shown that *A. fumigatus* *veA* plays a role in growth and development, as well as in regulating protease activity (17). Furthermore, we found that *veA* regulates the expression of secondary-metabolite gene clusters and concomitant biosynthesis of associated compounds, such as gliotoxin, fumagillin, fumitremorgin G, and fumigaclavine C (17, 35).

Components of the conserved *velvet* complex, particularly VeA, have been characterized in greatest depth in the model fungus *Aspergillus nidulans* (15–18, 36–39). Recently, in a mutagenesis screening, we identified *mtfA*, a *veA*-dependent gene encoding a novel C₂H₂ finger domain transcription factor in this model organism (40). *A. nidulans* *mtfA* regulates both morphological development and secondary metabolism. Deletion of *A. nidulans* *mtfA* decreases conidiation and sexual development (40). Fur-

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TABLE 1 Fungal strains used in the study

Strain name	Pertinent genotype	Source
CEA10	Wild type	Gift from Robert Cramer
CEA17	<i>pyrG1</i>	Gift from Robert Cramer
tTDS1	<i>pyrG1 gpdA(p)::mtfA::trpC(t)::pyrG^{A.fum}</i>	This study
tTDS4.1	<i>pyrG1 ΔmtfA::pyrG^{A.para}</i>	This study
tTDS10	<i>pyrG1 ΔmtfA::pyrG^{A.para} mtfA::ptrA</i>	This study
tTDS5.1	<i>pyrG1 mtfA::gfp::pyrG^{A.fum}</i>	This study

thermore, absence of *mtfA* also completely prevents the expression of genes involved in the production of the mycotoxin sterigmatocystin, the antitumoral compound terrequinone, and the beta-lactam antibiotic penicillin (40). Our previous studies also revealed that *mtfA* orthologs are present in many fungal species, including *A. fumigatus* (40). It is possible that *mtfA* could play similar roles in *A. fumigatus* that might affect virulence. In our current study, we characterized the role of this conserved master transcription factor gene in this opportunistic pathogen, particularly its roles in growth, conidiation, production of gliotoxin, and protease activity, as well as direct assessment of its role in pathogenicity.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Strains and culture conditions. The *A. fumigatus* strains used in this study are listed in Table 1. The strains were grown on Czapek-Dox medium (Difco) plus the necessary supplements (41) unless otherwise indicated. For solid medium, 10 g/liter of agar was added. Stocks were stored in 30% glycerol at -80°C .

Generation of *mtfA* deletion, complementation, and overexpression mutant strains. (i) ***mtfA* deletion strain.** The *mtfA* deletion ($\Delta mtfA$) strain, tTDS4.1, was obtained by gene replacement using the *A. fumigatus* CEA17 strain, a *pyrG* auxotroph derived from the CEA10 isolate (Table 1). The deletion cassette was generated by fusion PCR as described by Szczyk et al. (42). Briefly, 1.5-kb fragments corresponding to the *mtfA* 5' and 3' untranslated regions (UTRs) were PCR amplified from *A. fumigatus* genomic DNA using fumRM75p1/fumRM75p2, and fumRM73p3/fumRM73p4, respectively (Table 2). The intermediate fragment corresponding to *Aspergillus parasiticus* was PCR amplified from the genomic DNA of the fungus using primers Afumparapyrf2 and Afumparapyrr2 (Table 2). The three fragments were joined by fusion PCR using primers fumRM75p1 and fumRM73p4 (Table 2). Confirmation of double crossover and gene replacement was carried out by Southern blotting. Quantitative reverse transcription (qRT)-PCR analysis was used to confirm the absence of *mtfA* expression in the deletion mutants ($\Delta mtfA$) using primers AfumRM7qrtPCRf and AfumRM7qrtPCRR (Table 2). The resulting deletion strain was denoted tTDS4.1 (Table 1).

(ii) **Complementation strain.** A complementation strain was generated as follows. A 5.8-kb fragment containing the *mtfA* wild-type locus (including the *mtfA* coding region plus 3.3 kb of the 5' UTR and 1.5 kb of the 3' UTR) was PCR amplified with primers AfummtfAcompF and AfumRM7cp2 (Table 2). The primers contained engineered NotI sites to facilitate ligation to pTDS3, a PJET-based plasmid containing the fungal transformation marker *ptrA*. The fragment was digested with NotI and ligated into pTDS3 previously digested with the same enzyme to generate the complementation vector pTDS10. This plasmid was then transformed into the $\Delta mtfA$ strain, tTDS4.1 (Table 1). Integration of the plasmid was confirmed via PCR, and expression levels were evaluated using qRT-PCR. The resulting complementation strain was denoted tTDS10 (Table 1).

TABLE 2 Primers used in the study

Primer name	Sequence (5'→3')
fumRM75p1	GTGACAGGTAGAATATTCTGTCTCCAGAATCC
fumRM75p2	GGTGTTTGCGCGAAAGTATGCA
fumRM73p3	ACTGTGACTTTGTTTGAACAACACAACCT
fumRM73p4	TGCGGAGTATGACCATGCCAT
Afumparapyrf2	CGGGCCGTTGCATACTTTCGCGCAAAACACC GGATCCTATGGATCTCAGACAAT ATACC
Afumparapyrr2	AGGTTGTGTTGTTCAAAAACAAAGTCACAGTG TCGACATCACCCCTTACCCAAAC
fumRM70Ep1	AAAAAGCCGCGCCATGGATGTCGCAAGCCT CATCTC
fumRM70Ep2	AAAAAAAAAAAAAGCGCCGCTATTGGACC ATGGCGGTAGC
AfummtfAcompF	AAAAAAAAAAAAAGCGCCGCGGACAAGAC AGATCGAAGCAGCC
AfumRm7Cp2	AAAAAAAAAAAAAGCGCCGCGCTTTGCTGTT GCAATGGT
AfumRM7midF	ATGGATGTCGCAAGCCTCATCTCGCCT
AfumRM7rev	TTGGACCATGGCGGTAGCAACTGGGC
AfumRM7gfpLink	TTGGACCATGGCGGTAGCAACTGGCGGAG CTGGTGCAGGCGCTGGAGCC
AfumRM7qrtPCRf	GCTTCGCTGCTCCCAGCGTATCG
AfumRM7qrtPCRR	GTTGATGACCCGGGGAGGGAAGAG
18s_qRTPCRf_849	TAGTCGGGGCGCTCAGTATTCAGC
18s_qRTPCRR_850	GTAAGGTGCCGAGCGGGTTCATCAT
brlA_qRTPCRf_1158	TGCACCAATATCCGCCAATGC
brlA_qRTPCRR_1159	CGTGTAGGAAGGAGGAGGGGTTACC
gliP_qRTPCR_F840	AGTTACACCGACTCGCATCCAGCTGC
gliP_qRTPCR_R841	CTGGGGCAGACCAATGCGTAG
gliZ_qRTPCR_F838	ACGACGATGAGGAATCGAACCCG
gliZ_qRTPCR_R839	GGTGCTCCAGAAAAGGGAGTCTGTTG
gdpApromoF	AAGTACTTTGCTACATCCATACTCC
Afu_wetA_f	TTGACTCGCTGTCAAGTGATTGTGG
Afu_wetA_r	TGGTGGATTTGTGGTGGGGAGTT

(iii) ***mtfA* overexpression strain.** The *mtfA* overexpression (OEmtfa) strain, tTDS1, was generated by transforming *A. fumigatus* CEA17 with the plasmid pTDS1. This overexpression plasmid was generated first by PCR amplification of the *mtfA* coding region from *A. fumigatus* genomic DNA with primers fumRM70Ep1 and fumRM70Ep2 (Table 2), containing AscI and NotI sites. Then, the fragment was digested with AscI and NotI and ligated into pSD21 (17) previously digested with the same enzymes. pSD21 contains the *A. nidulans gpdA* promoter, *gpdA(p)*, the *A. nidulans trpC* terminator, *trpC(t)*, and the *A. fumigatus pyrG* transformation selection marker. Integration of the overexpression vector into the genome was confirmed by PCR using primers gdpApromoF and fumRM70Ep2 (Table 2). Overexpression of *mtfA* was confirmed by qRT-PCR using primers AfumRM7qrtPCRf and AfumRM7qrtPCRR (Table 2).

Morphological studies. Fungal growth was evaluated as colony diameter. *A. fumigatus* wild-type (CEA10), $\Delta mtfA$, complementation, and OEmtfa strains were point inoculated on Czapek-Dox medium and incubated at 37°C . The experiments were carried out with three replicates. The strains were grown for 5 days in the dark, and the colony diameter was measured.

To determine the role of *mtfA* in *A. fumigatus* conidiation, spores (1×10^7 spores/ml) of *A. fumigatus* CEA10, $\Delta mtfA$, complementation, and OEmtfa strains were inoculated in 25 ml of liquid Czapek-Dox medium. The cultures were grown at 37°C . At 72 h, the mycelial mats were collected and homogenized in 10 ml of distilled water (dH_2O). The conidia were counted using a hemacytometer under a light microscope.

Fluorescence microscopy. The subcellular localization of the *mtfA* gene product was determined in *A. fumigatus* strain tTDS5.1, where the

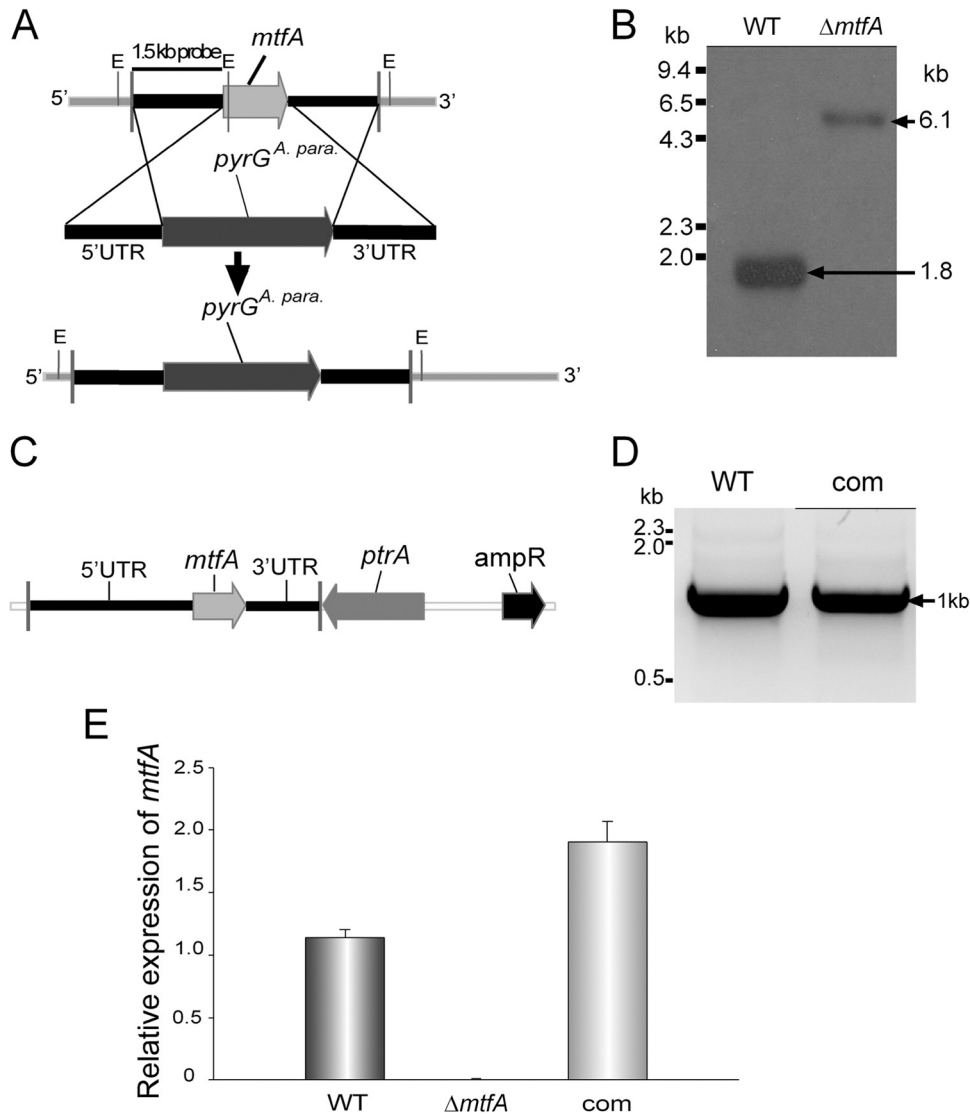


FIG 1 Generation of *A. fumigatus mtfA* deletion and complementation strains. Confirmation of *mtfA* deletion ($\Delta mtfA$) and complementation (com) strains by Southern blotting, PCR, and qRT-PCR. (A) Diagram showing the replacement of *mtfA* with the marker gene *pyrG* by a double-crossover event. EcoRI restriction sites (E) and probe template are shown. (B) X-ray image showing the Southern blot results confirming the deletion of *mtfA*. Genomic DNA samples were digested with EcoRI. The expected band sizes were 1.8 kb (wild type [WT]) and 6.1 kb ($\Delta mtfA$). (C) Linear representation of plasmid pTDS10 used for complementation. (D) PCR confirmation of the *mtfA* wild-type allele integration in the $\Delta mtfA$ genome. The wild-type strain was used as a control. The PCR yielded the predicted 1-kb PCR product. (E) qRT-PCR expression analysis of *mtfA* with primers AfumRM7prtPCRf and AfumRM7prtPCRR (Table 2). *mtfA* expression is recovered in the complementation strain. The relative expression was calculated using the $2^{-\Delta\Delta CT}$ method, as described by Livak and Schmittgen (70). Expression of 18S rRNA was used as an internal reference gene. Values were normalized to the expression levels in the wild type, considered 1. The error bars represent standard errors.

MtfA protein was tagged with the green fluorescent protein (GFP). This strain was generated by transforming CEA17 with an *mtfA::gfp::pyrG^{A.fum}* cassette. The cassette was generated by fusion PCR as previously described by Szweczyk et al. (42). First, the 3' end of the *mtfA* coding region was PCR amplified from genomic DNA with primers AfumRM7midF and AfumRM7rev (Table 2). The 3' UTR of the *mtfA* gene was PCR amplified with primers fumTM73p3 and fumRM73p4, also from genomic DNA (Table 2). The plasmid p1439 (36) was used as the template to PCR amplify the intermediate DNA fragment containing *gfp::pyrG^{A.fum}*. The three fragments were fused using primers AfumRM7midF and fumRM73p4 (Table 2). Correct integration of the cassette into the genome was verified by PCR with primers fumRM75p1 and fumRM73p4 (Table 2).

Conidia from tTDS5.1 were inoculated on coverslips submerged in

Watch minimal medium (43) and incubated at 37°C in both light and dark for 16 h. Then, the slides were washed with 1× phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) and stained for 5 min with DAPI (4', 6-diamidino-2-phenylindole) (1:1,000) under gentle agitation. Samples were then viewed using a Nikon Eclipse E-600 microscope equipped with Nomarski optics and fluorochromes for GFP, with excitation at 470 nm and emission at 525 nm and ×600 magnification. Micrographs were obtained using a Hamamatsu Orca-ER high-sensitivity monochrome digital charge-coupled-device (CCD) camera with Microsuite 5 image capture and optimization software. The exposure time was 500 ms for DAPI images and 2 s for GFP images.

Protease activity. *A. fumigatus* wild-type, $\Delta mtfA$, complementation, and OEmtfA strains were point inoculated on plates containing Czapek-

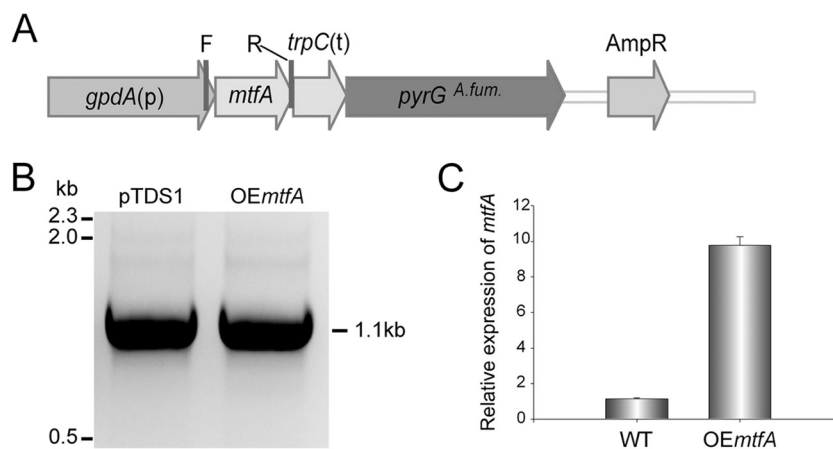


FIG 2 Generation of the *mtfA* overexpression strain. The *mtfA* overexpression (OE*mtfA*) strain was confirmed by PCR and qRT-PCR analyses. (A) Linear representation of the overexpression plasmid pTDS1. The primers utilized for the diagnostic PCR are shown: F (gdpA_{promo}F) and R (fumRM70Ep2) (Table 2). (B) PCR results, indicating integration of the overexpression plasmid into the genome, obtaining the expected 1.1-kb PCR product. pTDS1 was used as a positive control. (C) Expression of *mtfA* analyzed by qRT-PCR, showing greater accumulation of *mtfA* transcripts in the OE::*mtfA* strain than in the wild type. The qRT-PCR primers used were AfumRM7qrtPCRF and AfumRM7qrtPCRR (Table 2). The relative expression was calculated using the $2^{-\Delta\Delta CT}$ method, as described by Livak and Schmittgen (70). The expression of 18S rRNA was used as an internal reference gene. Values were normalized to the expression levels in the wild type, considered 1. The error bars represent standard errors.

Dox medium (1% agar) and 5% skim milk (Difco). The plates were incubated at 37°C in the dark. After 3 days, the cultures were blended in 25 ml distilled water and collected in a 50-ml Falcon tube. The tubes were centrifuged at 3,500 rpm at 4°C, and 1 ml of supernatant was transferred to an Eppendorf tube, where it was centrifuged again at 10,000 rpm for 10 min at 4°C. An azocasein assay was performed as previously described by Reichard et al. (44) with slight modifications. One-hundred microliters of supernatant was mixed with 400 μ l of azocasein (Sigma) at a concentration of 5 mg/ml; dissolved in 50 mM Tris buffer (pH 7.5), 0.2 M NaCl, 5 mM CaCl₂, 0.05% Brij 35, and 0.01% sodium azide; and incubated at 37°C for 90 min. One hundred and fifty microliters of 20% trichloroacetic acid was then added to stop the reaction, and the samples were left at room temperature for 30 min. The tubes were spun at 8,000 rpm for 3 min, and 500 μ l of the supernatant was mixed with 500 μ l 1 M NaOH. Two-hundred microliters from each sample was placed into a 96-well plate (BD Falcon) in duplicate, and the absorbance of the released azo group was read at 436 nm using a plate reader (Epoch by Biotek). A negative control was used with sterile distilled water mixed with azocasein.

In a separate experiment and to test for protease activity in cell-free culture supernatants, *A. fumigatus* CEA10, Δ *mtfA*, complementation, and OE*mtfA* strains were inoculated in 50 ml of liquid Czapek-Dox medium containing 2.5% skim milk (Difco). Cultures were grown at 37°C at 200 rpm. Culture supernatant was collected at 48 h and 72 h. The azocasein assay was performed on the culture supernatants as described above.

Gliotoxin analysis. Plates containing 25 ml of liquid Czapek-Dox medium were inoculated with 1×10^7 conidia/ml of *A. fumigatus* wild-type, Δ *mtfA*, complementation, and OE*mtfA* strains. Liquid stationary-phase cultures were incubated at 37°C in the dark. The supernatants were collected by filtration at 120 h after inoculation, using Mira cloth (Calbiochem) to remove the mycelium. Fifteen milliliters of supernatant was collected from each plate. An equal amount of chloroform was added to extract the gliotoxin. The gliotoxin extracts were then resuspended in 200 μ l of methanol and filtered through a 0.22- μ m-pore-size membrane. Quantification of gliotoxin was performed by high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC), as previously described by Cramer et al. (45) with some modifications. A Waters 1525 HPLC apparatus was used for the analysis. Injections of 20 μ l of the methanol extract were applied. The flow rate was 1 ml/min, using a mobile phase of water-acetonitrile-trifluoroacetic acid (65:34.9:0.1). UV detection was performed at 264 nm (Waters 2487 dual λ absorbance detector). Gliotoxin peak areas were compared to

those of standard gliotoxin samples of known concentrations (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO).

Gene expression analysis. Conidia (1×10^7 spores/ml) of *A. fumigatus* wild-type, Δ *mtfA*, complementation, and OE*mtfA* strains were inoculated in 25 ml of liquid Czapek-Dox medium and incubated in the dark at 37°C. Total RNA was collected at 72 h using Pig-B, as described by Weber and collaborators (46).

cDNA was generated from the extracted total RNA samples, and qRT-PCR was performed using an Mx3000p thermocycler (Agilent Technologies) with SYBR green Jumpstart Taq Ready mix (Sigma). Expression of *brlA*, *wetA*, *gliP*, and *gliZ* was examined. The PCR primers used to analyze the expression of these genes are listed in Table 2.

Pathogenesis analysis using *G. mellonella* as an infection model. Spore suspensions of *A. fumigatus* wild-type, Δ *mtfA*, complementation, and OE*mtfA* strains were generated in $1 \times$ PBS (with 0.1% Tween). The spore suspensions were quantified using a hemacytometer and diluted in $1 \times$ PBS to a concentration of 1×10^6 spores/10 μ l. The infection procedure was done as previously described by Fuchs et al. (47). Briefly, *G. mellonella* larvae with a weight range between 275 and 300 mg and lacking gray markings were selected for the experiment. Groups of 30 larvae were selected for each *A. fumigatus* strain, and PBS injections and noninjected larvae were used as a control. The larvae were injected behind the last left proleg with 1×10^6 spores, using a Hamilton syringe. The larvae were transferred into a petri dish (90 mm by 15 mm) wrapped in aluminum foil. The plates were placed at 37°C in the dark. After 16 h, the larvae were checked every 2 h for mortality. Mortality curves were generated using PRISM software. Statistical analysis was performed using a log rank test to generate pairwise comparisons of the survival of the larvae infected with different strains.

RESULTS

***mtfA* affects growth rate and conidiation in *A. fumigatus*.** In order to elucidate the role of *mtfA* (accession number XP_747808.1) in *A. fumigatus*, deletion (Δ *mtfA*), complementation, and overexpression (OE*mtfA*) strains were generated as specified in Materials and Methods. The strains were confirmed by Southern blotting or diagnostic PCR (Fig. 1 and 2). *mtfA* expression levels in wild-type, deletion, complementation, and overexpres-

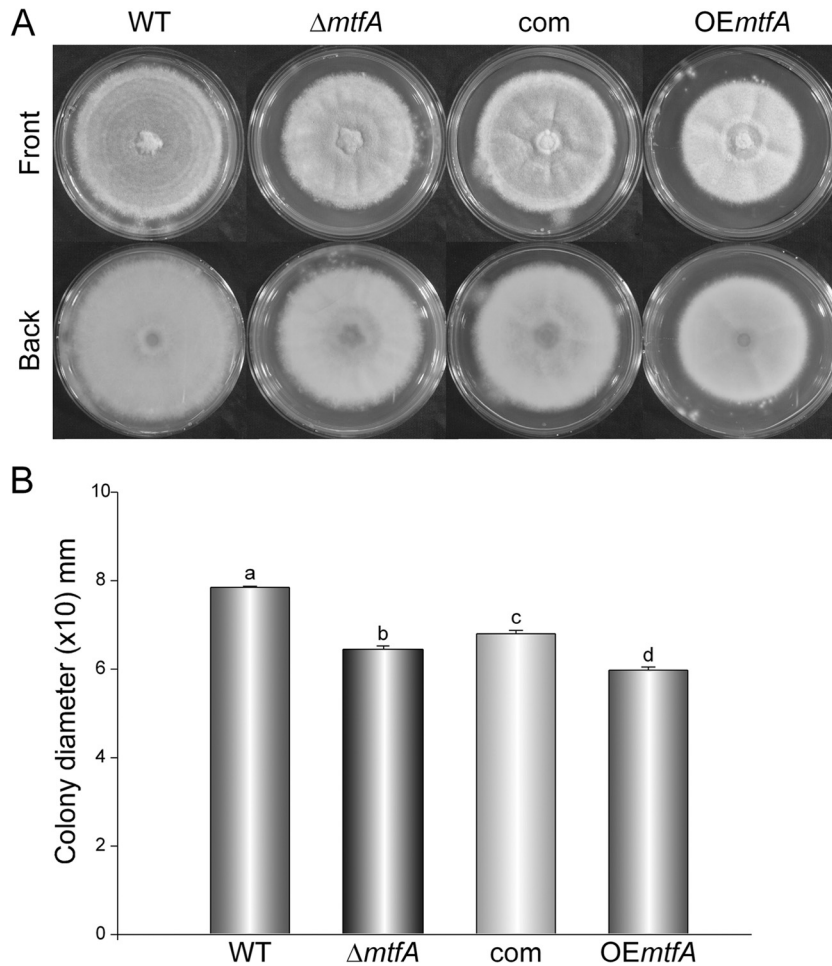


FIG 3 Effect of *mtfA* on *A. fumigatus* colony growth. (A) *A. fumigatus* wild-type, $\Delta mtfA$, complementation (com), and *mtfA* overexpression (OE*mtfA*) strains were point inoculated on solid Czapek-Dox medium, and the cultures were incubated at 37°C in the dark for 5 days. The experiment was carried out with three replicates. (B) Quantification of colony diameters in 5-day-old cultures. The error bars represent standard errors. Different letters above the bars represent significantly different values ($P \leq 0.05$).

sion analysis were also analyzed (Fig. 1E and 2C). As expected, the $\Delta mtfA$ strain did not show expression. Expression of *mtfA* in the OE*mtfA* strain was approximately 10 times greater than in the wild-type strain, indicating that the overexpression cassette was functional in the strain (Fig. 2).

Our results showed a slight reduction in colony growth in the $\Delta mtfA$ strain (18%) compared to the wild-type control (Fig. 3A and B). Complementation with the *mtfA* wild-type allele was able to partially recover radial growth. Overexpression of *mtfA* resulted in a more pronounced reduction in colony diameter (Fig. 3). The indicated differences in colony growth were statistically significant (Fig. 3).

In addition to its role in vegetative growth, our study revealed that *mtfA* also influences morphological differentiation. Overexpression of *mtfA* resulted in a significant reduction in conidiation in comparison to the wild type (68% reduction) (Fig. 4). Two genes in the asexual development pathway, *bristle A* (*brlA*), which encodes a known transcription factor essential for the initiation of conidiophore formation (48), and *wetA*, the last gene in this signaling pathway leading to conidiation, were both drastically downregulated in the overexpression strain (Fig. 4).

MtfA localizes in the nucleus. Our previous work showed that in *A. nidulans* the MtfA ortholog localizes in the nucleus. In the current study, we investigated whether the subcellular localization of MtfA is conserved in *A. fumigatus*. With this goal, a strain with *mtfA* fused to *gfp* was generated (Fig. 5A and B). A single copy of the fusion cassette was integrated at the *mtfA* locus. The resulting *mtfA::gfp* strain presented a wild-type phenotype (data not shown). Our results verified that MtfA also localizes in the nuclei when grown in the dark, as determined by comparison of the green fluorescent images with those from DAPI staining (Fig. 5C). A similar experiment carried out under white light yielded similar results, indicating that the localization of MtfA is not light dependent (see Fig. S1 in the supplemental material).

MtfA acts as a positive regulator of protease activity in *A. fumigatus*. The ability to secrete hydrolytic enzymes into its environment contributes to the success of *A. fumigatus* in colonizing its natural niches (49). Our results showed that *mtfA* acts as a positive regulator of protease production in *A. fumigatus*. The quantitative azocasein assay showed a significant decrease in protease activity in the deletion mutant colonies, with reduction of 50% compared to the wild type (Fig. 6). Furthermore, analysis of

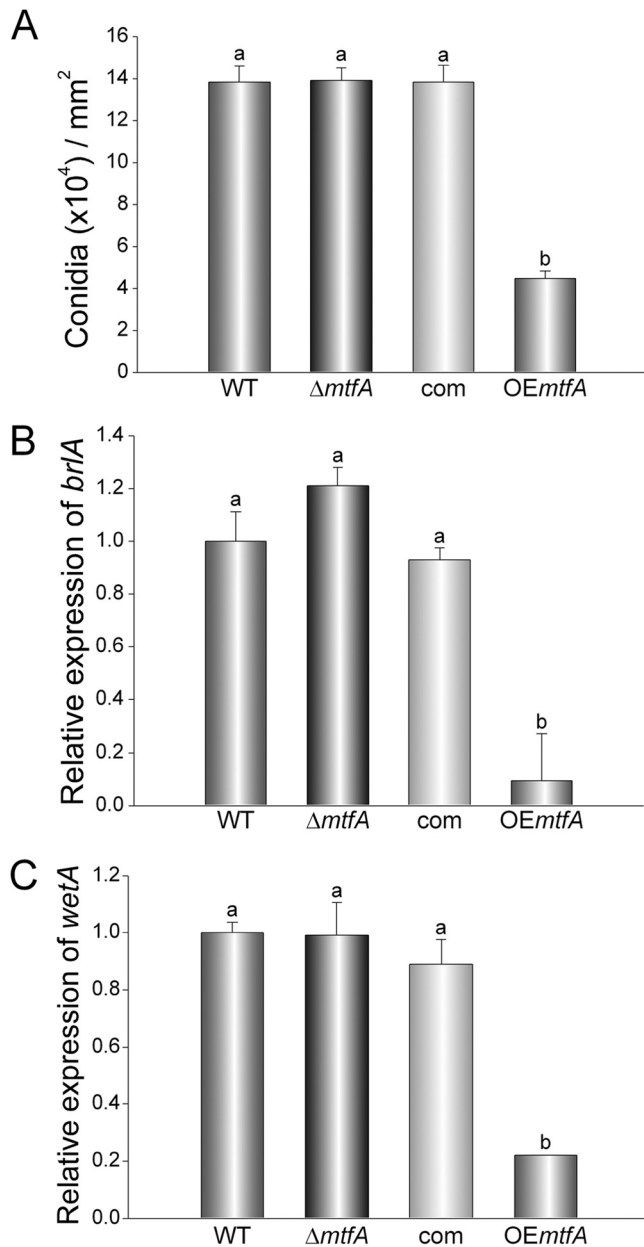


FIG 4 Effect of *mtfA* on *A. fumigatus* asexual development. *A. fumigatus* wild-type, $\Delta mtfA$, complementation (com), and *mtfA* overexpression (OE*mtfA*) strains were inoculated in Czapek-Dox liquid medium (1×10^7 spores/ml), and the cultures were grown for 72 h at 37°C. (A) Mycelial mats were homogenized in water, and conidia were quantified using a hemacytometer. (B and C) Expression analysis of *brlA* (B) and *wetA* (C). The error bars represent standard errors. Different letters above the bars represent significantly different values ($P \leq 0.05$).

protease activity in culture supernatants showed a pattern similar to that observed in solid cultures, indicating a reduction in secreted protease activity in the absence of *mtfA* (see Fig. S2 in the supplemental material).

Gliotoxin production is dependent on *mtfA*. Gliotoxin is a secondary metabolite produced by *A. fumigatus* that has been shown to have immunosuppressive properties. The mycotoxin has been associated with pathogenicity and has been isolated from

the lungs of infected mice (20–34). In the model fungus *A. nidulans*, it was shown that *mtfA* controlled the production of several secondary metabolites, such as penicillin and the mycotoxin sterigmatocystin (40). For this reason, we investigated whether *mtfA* controls gliotoxin production in *A. fumigatus*. Cultures of *A. fumigatus* wild-type, $\Delta mtfA$, complementation, and OE*mtfA* strains were analyzed for gliotoxin content by HPLC after 120 h of incubation time. Our results indicated an increase in the production of the toxin in the OE*mtfA* strain (Fig. 7A). At 120 h, the overexpression strain showed a 4-fold increase in the production of gliotoxin.

The gene cluster responsible for the production of gliotoxin has been identified (50). This gene cluster includes a putative Zn₂Cys₆ binuclear transcription factor gene, *gliZ* (21), and a non-ribosomal peptide synthase gene, *gliP* (45, 51–53), both necessary for gliotoxin production. We investigated whether *mtfA* affects gliotoxin production in *A. fumigatus* by regulating the transcription of *gliZ* and *gliP*. The overexpression mutant showed an increase in *gliZ* and *gliP* expression at 72 h (Fig. 7B and C). The increase in the transcription of both of these genes is concomitant with the increase in the production of gliotoxin observed in the OE*mtfA* strain.

***mtfA* is necessary for normal virulence in a *G. mellonella* infection model.** *G. mellonella* larvae are commonly used as a nonvertebrate host for virulence studies of fungal species (54–58). The insect presents both cellular and humoral responses to the invading fungal pathogen (59–62). Our pathogenicity assay indicated that absence of *mtfA* results in a decrease in virulence (Fig. 8). Thirty-three percent of the larvae infected with the $\Delta mtfA$ strain survived the infection at the end of the 30-h monitoring time. Overexpression of *mtfA* showed no differences in virulence with respect to the wild-type control.

DISCUSSION

The filamentous fungus *A. fumigatus*, the leading causative agent of IA, efficiently disseminates by producing abundant conidia. The small size of the asexual spores allows them to reach the lung alveoli, resulting in devastating infections in immunosuppressed hosts (12, 63). Our current study revealed that conidiation in *A. fumigatus* is regulated by the *mtfA* gene. *mtfA* encodes a putative C₂H₂ zinc finger domain-type transcription factor first described in the model organism *A. nidulans* (40), where this master transcription factor gene was shown to regulate both development and secondary metabolism (40). Similarly to the case in *A. nidulans*, absence of *mtfA* in the opportunistic pathogen *A. fumigatus* resulted in a slight decrease in colony growth, and forced overexpression of *mtfA* resulted in a greater decrease in colony growth, along with severe reduction in conidiation. The decrease in conidial formation in the *mtfA* overexpression strain coincided with a significant decrease in the expression of *brlA* with respect to the wild-type strain. BrlA is another C₂H₂ zinc finger transcription factor that acts as a primary regulator of asexual development, controlling the developmental switch from vegetative growth to conidiophore formation (48, 64). Expression of the *wetA* gene is also downregulated in the *A. fumigatus* *mtfA* overexpression strain. WetA, also present during conidiogenesis, is required for the synthesis of a layer in the cell wall that results in impermeable conidia (65). Additionally, it is known that WetA also regulates the expression of additional genes expressed at a late stage in the formation of the asexual spores (65).

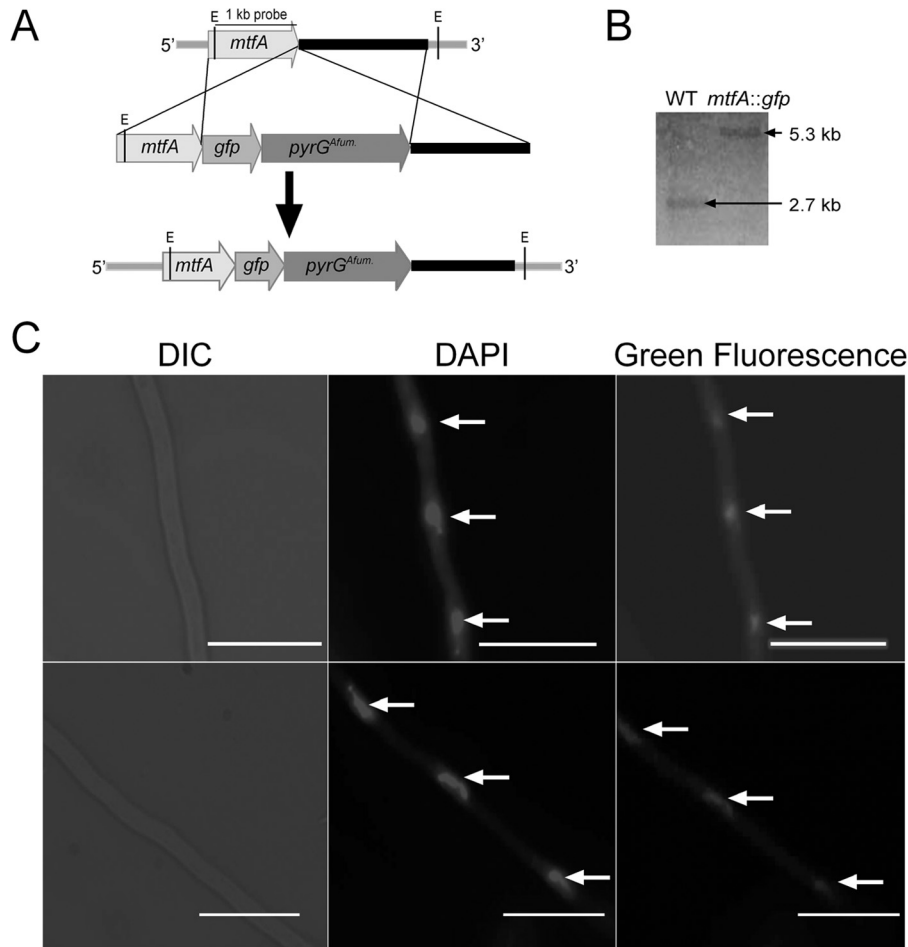


FIG 5 Nuclear localization of *A. fumigatus* MtfA. (A) Diagram showing the strategy used to fuse *mtfA* with *gfp*. The tag was integrated into the *mtfA* locus via double-crossover events, using *pyrG* as the selection marker. (B) Southern analysis results confirming the integration of the *mtfA::gfp* cassette at the *mtfA* locus. Genomic DNA samples were digested with EcoRI. The expected bands corresponded to 2.7-kb (WT) and 5.3-kb (*mtfA::gfp*) DNA fragments. (C) Micrographs showing the nuclear localization of MtfA::GFP grown in the dark. From left to right are Nomarski images (differential interference contrast [DIC]), DAPI images, and green fluorescent images. The scale bars represent 20 μm. The arrows indicate nuclei.

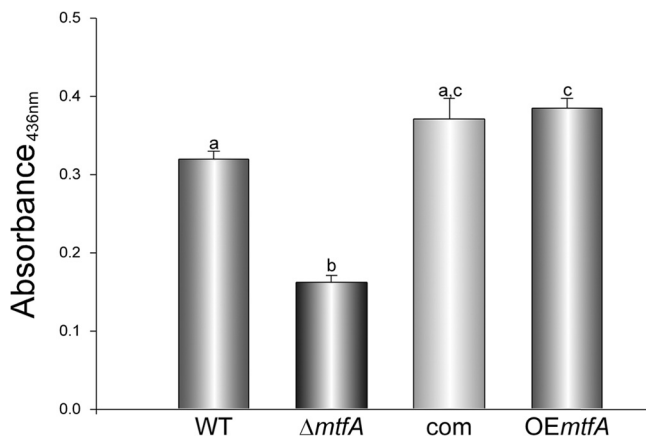


FIG 6 Protease activity is controlled by *mtfA*. *A. fumigatus* wild-type, Δ *mtfA*, complementation (com), and *mtfA* overexpression (OEmtfA) strains were point inoculated on solid Czapek-Dox medium supplemented with 5% skim milk (Difco), and the cultures were incubated for 4 days at 37°C in the dark. Proteolytic activity was quantified by using an azocasein assay as described in Materials and Methods. The experiment was carried out with three replicates. Standard errors are shown. Different letters above the bars represent significantly different values ($P \leq 0.05$).

A. fumigatus MtfA was found to localize mainly in nuclei, similar to the case in *A. nidulans* (40), where *mtfA* was also shown to control the expression of biosynthetic genes involved in the production of secondary metabolites, some with beneficial properties, such as penicillin, and others detrimental, such as the mycotoxin sterigmatocystin (40). For this reason, we evaluated whether *A. fumigatus* *mtfA* influences the production of gliotoxin, a compound known for its negative impact on the immune system, including inhibition of phagocytosis and killing of neutrophils (20–34), as well as acting as an antioxidant (66), facilitating *A. fumigatus* infection in the lung (67). Overexpression of *A. fumigatus* *mtfA* resulted in an increase in gliotoxin production with respect to the control strains. Furthermore, our study indicated that expression of *gliZ*, encoding a putative Zn₂Cys₆ binuclear transcription factor that controls the expression of the gliotoxin gene cluster (21), and *gliP*, encoding a non-ribosomal peptide synthase essential for gliotoxin biosynthesis (45, 51–53), were upregulated when *mtfA* was overexpressed, suggesting that the observed increase in gliotoxin production could, at least in part, result from the *mtfA*-dependent increase in *gliZ* expression, leading to greater expression of gliotoxin biosynthetic genes. Based on our previous

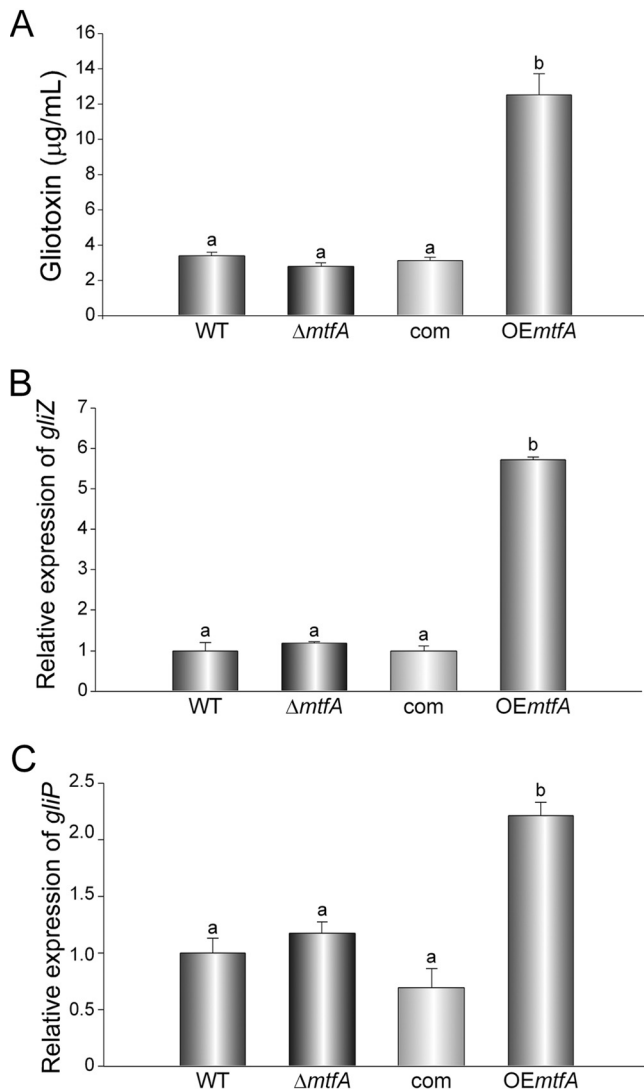


FIG 7 Gliotoxin production is regulated by *mtfA*. *A. fumigatus* wild-type, $\Delta mtfA$, complementation (com), and *mtfA* overexpression (OE*mtfA*) strains were grown in liquid Czapek-Dox stationary-phase cultures, and mycelial samples were collected at 72 h for RNA analysis. qRT-PCR was used to determine the expression levels of *gliZ* (A) and *gliP* (B) using primer pairs *gliZ*_qRT-PCR_F838 and *gliZ*_qRT-PCR_R839, and *gliP*_qRT-PCR_F840 and *gliP*_qRT-PCR_R841, respectively (Table 2). (C) Quantification of gliotoxin in filtrates from 120-h liquid Czapek-Dox stationary-phase cultures by HPLC. The bars represent the averages of three replicates. The error bars represent standard errors. Different letters above the bars represent significantly different values ($P \leq 0.05$).

studies in *A. nidulans*, it is possible that the regulatory scope of *mtfA* on *A. fumigatus* could be broader, including the biosynthesis of other natural products. Future studies in our laboratory will focus on elucidating whether *mtfA* regulates the biosynthesis of other secondary metabolites produced by the fungus.

In addition to fungal secondary metabolites, the activities of hydrolytic enzymes could also influence fungal infection. For example, an association between the production of fungal proteases and pathogenicity has been previously shown (49, 68). Secreted proteases could cause cytokine release, mucin secretion, and cell peeling (release of epithelial cells), which may contribute to in-

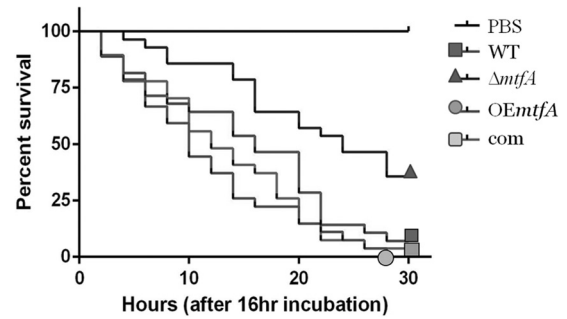


FIG 8 Deletion of *mtfA* decreases virulence in a *Galleria* model of infection. Larvae of *G. mellonella* were infected with *A. fumigatus* wild-type, $\Delta mtfA$, complementation (com), and *mtfA* overexpression (OE*mtfA*) strains. After a 16-h incubation period, survival was monitored every 2 h up to 30 h. Survival rates are shown. The experiments included 30 larvae per group. Statistical analysis was carried out by pairwise comparison using a log rank test.

creasing the ability of *A. fumigatus* to colonize the lung environment (1). Recently, our group also demonstrated that protease activity is regulated by *veA* in *A. fumigatus* (17) and other fungi, such as *Aspergillus flavus* (69). Due to the fact that in *A. nidulans* *mtfA* and *veA* are functionally connected (40), during the course of the present work we also examined the possible role of *mtfA* in regulating protease activity. Cultures of the $\Delta mtfA$ strain showed a decrease of protease activity compared to the wild type. These results provide evidence that *mtfA* is a positive regulator of protease activity in *A. fumigatus*. Additional experiments examining cell-free culture supernatants yielded similar results, with significant differences in the protease activity in the secreted proteins, depending on the presence or absence of *mtfA*.

Because *mtfA* plays a role in growth, conidiation, gliotoxin biosynthesis, and protease activity, it is possible that *mtfA* could also affect *A. fumigatus* pathogenesis. Using a *G. mellonella* infection model, we found that deletion of *mtfA* resulted in a decrease in the mortality rate. This indicates that *mtfA* is a virulence factor necessary to achieve normal pathogenesis levels in this commonly used infection system, showing potential as a promising target against *A. fumigatus* infection.

In conclusion, our studies revealed that *mtfA* affects several important cellular processes in the opportunistic pathogen *A. fumigatus*, such as growth and conidiation, the most important form of dissemination in this fungal species, affecting the expression of developmental genes. We also demonstrated that *mtfA* regulates the expression of gliotoxin genes, *gliZ* and *gliP*, and concomitant gliotoxin biosynthesis, as well as protease activity in the secretome. Importantly, deletion of *mtfA* resulted in a reduction in virulence in a *G. mellonella* infection model, suggesting that *mtfA* and *mtfA*-dependent factors may be used as possible genetic targets against invasive aspergillosis.

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