From polarity establishment to fast hyphal growth in the filamentous fungus *Ashbya gossypii*

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Summary

Summary

Fungi are an evolutionary successful group of organisms with great ecological importance. The impact of filamentous fungi on human welfare is enormous. They cause the majority of economically significant diseases of crop plants and are becoming increasingly important as human pathogens.

The formation of hyphae (elongated, tubular cells) is a key characteristic of filamentous fungi. Hyphal growth allows them to spread rapidly through various substrates in search of nutrients or mating partners, or to penetrate host organisms. Elucidation of mechanisms that control hyphal growth and fungal morphogenesis may lead to the identification of new fungicide targets, and further may increase the understanding of other hyperpolarized cell types such as neurons in animals, pollen tubes in plants or rhizoids in algae.

Part I

Ashbya gossypii and the budding yeast Saccharomyces cerevisiae carry a very similar set of genes. Yet A. gossypii is a filamentous fungus displaying constantly polarized growth at hyphal tips resulting in surface expansion rates that are up to 30 times higher than in yeast cells. Polar growth in budding yeast is tightly controlled in a cell cycle-dependent manner. Cell polarity establishment, polar growth and isotropic expansion all take place during formation of a bud, therefore these processes are difficult to separate experimentally. In contrast, growing hyphal tips are ideal systems to study sustained polar growth though the knowledge about the organization of this highly dynamic site is presently limited.

I found that factors that are involved in plasma membrane vesicle fusion, control of the polarized actin cytoskeleton and regulation of cell polarity in A. gossypii occupy distinct subcellular regions in the hyphal tip. Core cell polarity factors such as AgCdc42, AgCdc24 and AgBoi1/2 were restricted to different parts of the tip cortex, whereas the formin AgBni1, the polarisome components AgSpa2 and AgPea1 and the exocyst were also found in the apical body, which is a vesicle-based structure commonly observed in the apex of growing fungal hyphae. Importantly, localization of these proteins to different zones changes with increasing elongation speed. Slow hyphae with surface expansion rates close to bud growth in S. cerevisiae display most polarity factors at the tip cortex independent of the factor's identity, and at slow growth speeds apical bodies are absent. These

findings suggest that fast growing hyphal tips are subdivided into functional zones where different sets of polarity factors exert their function. A model of fast hyphal growth can be postulated based on this hypothesis.

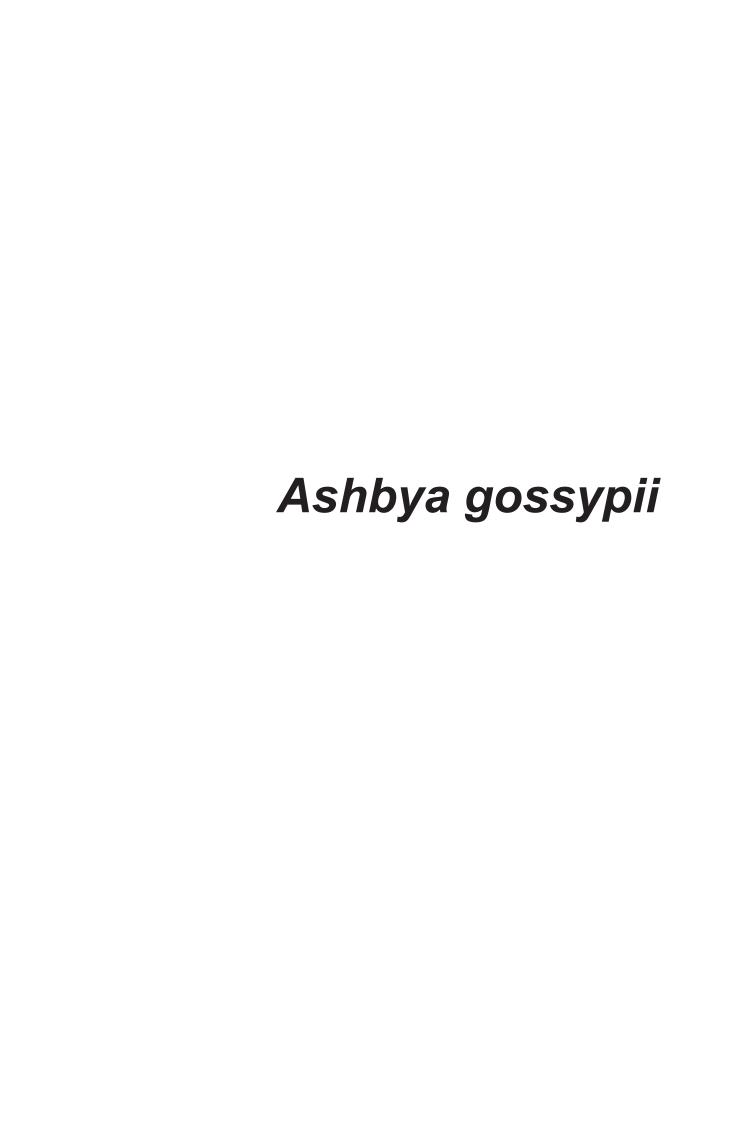
Part II

Establishment of a fungal mycelium depends on constant hyphal elongation and formation of new hyphae, which arise by branching. Emergence of a lateral branch requires establishment of a novel axis of cell polarity at the hyphal cortex, an event which might a priori not involve an identical set of polarity factors needed for sustained polar growth. Therefore, I looked for A. gossypii candidate genes the deletion of which could generate mycelia with severely reduced or even absent lateral branching while tip expansion was unchanged. I found that loss of AgGic1/2 resulted in such a phenotype. AgGic1/2 also plays a role in the first polarity establishment during germination since spores lacking AgGic1/2 display delayed germ tube emergence. The data reported in this PhD-thesis clearly indicate that AgGic1/2 is important for cell polarity establishment but dispensable for polarity maintenance in A. gossypii. In S. cerevisiae the homologous proteins ScGic1 and ScGic2 act as effectors of the key polarity factor ScCdc42. This molecular function is probably conserved in A. gossypii since AgGic1/2 interacts with AgCdc42 in a two-hybrid assay. Degradation of AgGic1/2 is likely to be mediated by its carboxyterminal PEST domains, which are not predicted in the homologous yeast proteins ScGic1 and ScGic2. AgGic1/2 may have a regulatory function in branch initiation based on the finding that an AgGIC1/2 allele lacking the part that encodes the PEST domains induces an increase in branching if expressed from a strong promoter. It is possible that controlled degradation of AgGic1/2 constitutes a simple mechanism that is involved in regulating emergence of new lateral branches.

Part III

It is generally believed that the vast number of small GTP-binding proteins present in cells of higher organisms today has evolved by gene duplications of a common ancestor. Furthermore it is taken for granted that after duplication mutations alter the protein's effector interactions, thereby changing its function. In contrast to these assumptions we show here for the two duplicated *RHO1* genes

from the filamentous fungus Ashbya gossypii that the different functions of the encoded proteins are not due to different effector interactions. Instead we found that both proteins are regulated by different GAP-proteins and that GAP specificity is determined by either a tyrosine or a histidine at a single position in the switch I region of the two Rho1 proteins. An analogous histidine residue is found in some atypical GTP-binding proteins of higher eukaryotes, suggesting that the evolutionary mechanism we describe here might be a common way for diversification of GTP-binding protein function.



Ashbya gossypii

Stigmatomycosis is a general term for a fungal disease that occurs on different crops. It is used to describe an affection in which fruits are internally infected as a result of punctures made by plant-feeding bugs of the suborder Heteroptera. Among other fungi, Ashbya gossypii, also known as Nematospora gossypii or Eremothecium gossypii (Kurtzman, 1995), was identified as a causative agent of stigmatomycosis on cotton bolls (internal boll disease), and was isolated from samples collected in southern Africa and on different Caribbean islands (Ashby and Nowell, 1926). Internal boll disease made it virtually impossible to grow cotton in certain parts of the tropics during the first half of the twentieth century (Batra, 1973). However, insects are essential for the spread of the causative fungi. Thus, control of the insect population by insecticides has proven efficient against stigmatomycosis (Dammer and Grillo-Ravelo, 1996). Nevertheless, A. gossypii is still present in nature and was recently isolated from true bugs in Florida (Fred Dietrich, unpublished results).

A. gossypii is a natural overproducer of riboflavin (vitamin B₂), which is responsible for the yellow color of colonies on agar plates (figure 1f; Demain, 1972). Riboflavin is essential only in tiny amounts as a precursor for oxidoreductase coenzymes. The large quantities present in A. gossypii probably serve to protect spores against ultraviolet light (Stahmann et al., 2001). Biotechnical riboflavin production by genetically engineered A. gossypii strains and other microorganisms are nowadays replacing chemical synthesis of this vitamin, which is widely used as a food colorant (E-101) or as animal feed additive (reviewed by Stahmann et al., 2000).

A. gossypii is closely related to the budding yeast Saccharomyces cerevisiae. About 95 % of the 4700 proteincoding A. gossypii genes are orthologues of S. cerevisiae genes, and 90% map within blocks of synteny (blocks of conserved gene order). These findings suggest that the A. gossypii and the S. cerevisiae lineage split about 100 million years ago. During this time, about 100 genomic rearrangements, few gene deletions and duplications happened that were maintained in the A. gossypii genome. The S. cerevisiae genome emerged from a more eventful evolutionary history including the duplication of the entire genome, followed by extensive gene loss. Almost 500 pairs of "twin genes", which are genes that originally had an identical sequence after the genome duplication, remained in S. cerevisiae. Obviously, one syntenic homologue for each pair of twin genes is found in A. gossypii (Dietrich et al., 2004). A. gossypii is an excellent model organism. Contrary to other filamentous fungi, it integrates linear DNA with high efficiency at the homologous genomic locus and is therefore amenable to targeted genetic manipulation (Wendland et

al., 2000). Furthermore, plasmids carrying an autonomously replicating sequence from budding yeast are maintained in *A. gossypii* (Wright and Philippsen, 1991). In *A. gossypii*, several haploid nuclei occupy a common cytoplasm (Ashby and Nowell, 1926; Gladfelter et al., 2006), which makes it possible to study and maintain recessive mutations that are deleterious or even lethal. A heterokaryonic mycelium contains both mutated and wild-type nuclei and thus displays no defects. The uninucleated spores that are isolated from heterokaryotic mycelium give rise to homokaryotic strains that show the phenotype associated with the mutation.

Like most fungi, *A. gossypii* has the capability to form long, tubular cells called hyphae. Septa, which are chitinous partition walls, subdivide hyphae into compartments that are occupied by several nuclei. (Ashby and Nowell, 1926).

A. gossypii produces needle-shaped conidia (asexual spores, figure 1a). When environmental conditions are good, spores expand in the middle of the spore body and form a spherical germ bubble (figure 1b). Germ tubes emerge perpendicularly to the hyphal axis (figure 1c). At this stage, hyphal elongation rate is about 0.1 µm/min on rich medium (Knechtle et al., 2003). A second germ tube is established opposite the first one (figure 1d). Hyphal growth and lateral branching (figure 1e) results in formation of a dense network of intertwined hyphae, a so-called mycelium (figure 1f). Hyphal elongation rates can reach 3.5 µm/min at the border of older mycelia. At this stage, new hyphal tips are generated by tip splitting (figure 1g), which is also called tip branching or dichotomous branching. Tip splitting results in a Y-shaped bifurcation of A. gossypii hyphae (figure 1f, arrowheads; Knechtle et al., 2003; Schmitz et al., 2006). Conidia are formed in the center of the fungal mycelium in a poorly described process. Sporangia, the spore-containing structures (figure 1h), are formed by enlargement of successive hyphal segments between septa, so that hyphae are converted into chains of sporangia (Ashby and Nowell, 1926). Little is known about the relationship between A. gossypii, its host plants and its insect vectors. For this reason, the life cycle presented here refers to A. gossypii grown under laboratory conditions and might be incomplete.

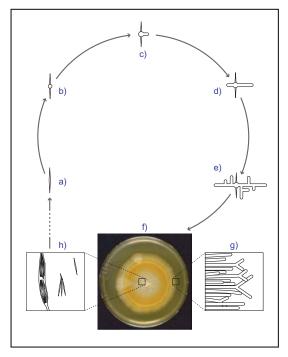


Fig. 1: Life cycle of *A. gossypii*. The figure summarizes the life cycle of *A. gossypii* from germination to sporulation (Ashby and Nowell, 1926; Knechtle et al., 2003; Schmitz et al., 2006, reviewed by Philippsen et al., 2005 and Wendland and Walther, 2005).

Part I

The localization of polarity factors changes with increasing hyphal elongation rate.

Ashbya gossypii and the budding yeast Saccharomyces cerevisiae carry a very similar set of genes. Yet A. gossypii is a filamentous fungus displaying constantly polarized growth at hyphal tips resulting in surface expansion rates that are up to 30 times higher than in yeast cells. Polar growth in budding yeast is tightly controlled in a cell cycle-dependent manner. Cell polarity establishment, polar growth and isotropic expansion all take place during formation of a bud, therefore these processes are difficult to separate experimentally. In contrast, growing hyphal tips are ideal systems to study sustained polar growth though the knowledge about the organization of this highly dynamic site is presently limited.

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Introduction

The controlled asymmetric distribution of cellular proteins creates polarity, e.g. polar secretion or maintained polar growth. Polarity is found in almost all cells from neurons and epithelial cells in mammals to single cell organisms like budding yeast and even bacteria. Analysis of different eukaryotic cell types revealed that internal and/or external cues adapt conserved core pathways for cytoskeleton assembly and protein transport to generate cell polarity. One of the beststudied example is the formation of a daughter cell in the budding yeast Saccharomyces cerevisiae: landmark proteins that are only found in yeast and closely related species provide a cortical cue to polarize the cytoskeleton and intracellular transport through conserved pathways (reviewed by Nelson, 2003) resulting in outgrowth of a bud.

In this thesis, a novel system, *Ashbya gossypii*, is analyzed, which allows to study an extreme case of polar growth. *A. gossypii* is a filamentous ascomycete with a genome that is unexpectedly closely related to the genome of budding yeast. More than 90% of *A. gossypii* genes show both homology and synteny with *S.cerevisiae* genes (Dietrich et al., 2004). Yet, the sustained filamentous growth-style of *A. gossypii* implies two profound differences to the unicellular *S. cerevisiae*.

Budding yeast cells alternate between polar and isotropic growth phases during cell cycles and couple mitosis and morphogenesis to maintain one nucleus per cell. Initial polarity establishment at the mother cell cortex is followed by a temporally restricted phase of polar growth, subsequent nonpolar bud expansion, and finally, reorientation of the polarity axis towards the mother-bud neck to deliver the material for cytokinesis and cell separation (figure 1A.) In contrast, A. gossypii forms long, tubular, multinucleated cells called hyphae. At the hyphal tip, cell polarity is maintained and thus polar growth continues as long as conditions are favorable. Neither septation, the process of cytoplasm separation by construction of chitinous partition walls, nor the cell cycle state of the nuclei that are close to the growing tip influence the axis of polarity (Ayad-Durieux et al., 2000; Knechtle, 2002; Philippsen et al., 2005; Wendland and Walther, 2005; Gladfelter et al., 2006). Sites of polar growth, the hyphal tips, separate by ever increasing distances from the original sites of polarity establishment (figure 1A). Thus, hyphal tips harbor autonomous growth control centers. Consequently, A. gossypii is a very good system to study sustained polar growth. In S. cerevisiae the phase of polar growth is transient and lasts only a few minutes. A second important difference between A. gossypii and S. cerevisiae is the efficiency of surface growth (Schmitz et al., 2006). Mature *A. gossypii* tips have a diameter of about 4 μ m and can extend with up to 3.3 μ m/min (Knechtle et al., 2003). Thus, 40 μ m² new cell surface can be synthesized per minute. *S. cerevisiae* synthesizes about 1.5 μ m² new surface per minute during the bud growth phase. It is obvious that the material transported to one maximally growing *A. gossypii* tip by far exceeds the material needed to build one *S. cerevisiae* bud. Since *A. gossypii* has to focus intracellular transport to the tightly restricted surface area of the hyphal tips, long-range transport must be very efficient in this fungus.

Virtually all genes involved in polar growth of yeast are conserved in *A. gossypii*. Presumably, the basic molecular function of most if not all proteins encoded by these about 200 polarity genes did not change through evolution (table 1) though they might be controlled differently in *A. gossypii* and in yeast (Dietrich et al., 2004, reviewed by Philippsen et al., 2005).

In budding yeast, a small GTP-binding protein, ScCdc42, is the key player in cell polarity, and conditional Sccdc42 mutants grow isotropically

resulting in large, round cells under restrictive conditions (Adams et al., 1990). When budding is initiated, ScCdc42 localizes to cortical landmarks. Its polarized localization and activation involves, among others, ScBem1 and ScCdc24. ScCdc24 is the sole guanosine nucleotide exchange factor (GEF) of ScCdc42 and stimulates the exchange of GDP against GTP. Activated ScCdc42 then recruits the adaptor protein ScBem1, which in turn can activate ScCdc24 resulting in a positive feedback loop (figure 1B, Bose et al., 2001; Butty et al., 2002; Irazoqui et al., 2003; Wedlich-Soldner et al., 2004). The PAK (p21 activated kinase) family kinase ScCla4 interacts via its CRIB (Cdc42/Rac interactive binding) domain with GTP-bound ScCdc42 and with its PH-domain with phosphatidylinositol 4-phosphate (PI4P). Both interactions are necessary for ScCla4 function (Benton et al., 1997; Wild et al., 2004). A peak of ScCla4 activity after bud emergence is thought to negatively regulate yeast cell polarity by inducing phosphorylation of ScCdc24. This phosphorylation triggers dissociation of ScCdc24 from ScBem1 and consequently interrupts ScCdc42 GTP/GDP

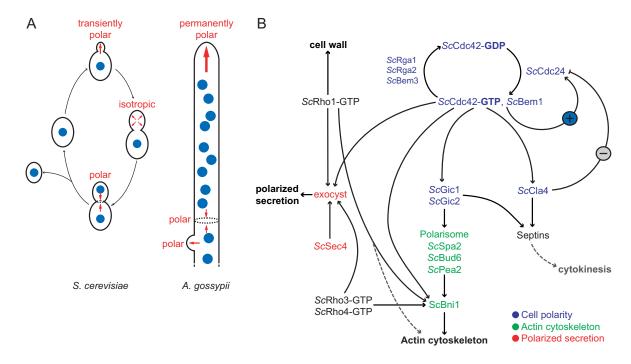


Fig. 1: Cell polarity in *S. cerevisiae* and *A. gossypii*. (A) Morphogenesis and cell polarity of *S. cerevisiae* and *A. gossypii*. Morphogenesis is coupled to the cell cycle in *S. cerevisiae*. Initial polar growth is transient and followed by non-polar expansion of the bud. Cytokinesis only takes place after mitosis and requires reorientation of the axis of polarity towards the mother-bud neck. *A. gossypii* maintains an axis of polarity, new sites of polarity can be established along the cortex. Septation takes place at the same time as hyphal growth. Adapted from Philippsen et al. 2005. (B) Model of cell polarity establishment and actin cytoskeleton polarization in *S. cerevisiae*. Adapted from Pruyne et al. 2004. Protein or protein complexes that are linked with black arrows interact together. The arrows between *Sc*Cdc42-GFP and *Sc*Cdc42-GDP indicate cycling between the two nucleotide-bound states. The plus sign indicates a positive feedback loop, the minus sign a shut-off loop. Note that not all known interactions are shown.

exchange thus promoting the switch from polar to isotropic growth. (Benton et al., 1997; Gulli et al., 2000; Bose et al., 2001). Furthermore, ScCla4 directly phosphorylates septins and is important for organization of the septin ring at the emerging bud (Cvrckova et al., 1995; Versele and Thorner, 2004). Active ScCdc42 initiates polarization of the actin cytoskeleton towards the incipient bud site by localizing the formin ScBni1 (Evangelista et al., 1997; Fujiwara et al., 1998). ScBni1 nucleates actin filaments and protects their growing barbed ends from capping proteins that would terminate

growth. (Evangelista et al., 2002; Sagot et al., 2002; Zigmond et al., 2003; Moseley et al., 2004). It interacts with ScSpa2, ScBud6, and ScPea2, three proteins that were copurified in a protein complex termed the polarisome (Sheu et al., 1998). ScSpa2 is important for localization of ScBni1 while ScBud6 was reported to stimulate in vitro actin assembly (Evangelista et al., 1997; Moseley et al., 2004). Interestingly, ScBni1 recruitment to the incipient bud site turned out not to directly depend on ScCdc42 binding despite the in vitro capacity of ScCdc42 to interact with the

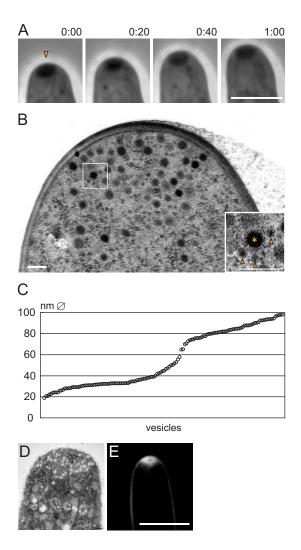
Table 1: Polarity factors in A. gossypii and S. cerevisiae

A. g. polarity factor		S. cerevisiae* ORI		Size(es) of homolog(s) in S. cerevisiae*					y to S.c. log(s)	A. g. deleti on**	Deletion homo	
	1°	2°	(aa)	1°	2°	1°	2°		1°	2°		
AgBEM1 (AEL241W)		EM1 200W)	549	55	51	57	%	lethal	via	ble		
AgBNI1 (AFR669W)		PNI1 271C)	1918	19	53	50	%	lethal	via	ble		
AgBOI1/2 (AGL293C)	ScBOI2 (YER114C)	ScBOI1 (YBL085W)	984	1040	980	45 %	44 %	viable	viable double/	viable		
AgBUD6 (AFR495C)		UD6 319C)	702	788		788 51		51 % viable		via	ble	
AgCDC24 (ADR388C)		DC24 041W)	761	85	54	60	%	lethal	let	hal		
AgCDC42 (AGL093W)		DC42 229C)	191	191		94 %		lethal	let	hal		
AgCLA4	ScCLA4	ScSKM1	793	842	655	63 %	54 %	viable	viable	viable		
AEL205W	(YNL298W)	(YOL113W)							double∆	: viable		
AgEXO70 (AFR100W)		XO70 085W)	614	62	23	51	%	lethal	let	hal		
AgGIC1/2	ScGIC2	ScGIC1	381	383	314	40 %	38 %	viable	viable	viable		
(AAL047C)	(YDR309C)	(YHR061G)	501	303	314	40 70	30 70	Vidore	double∆	: viable		
AgPEA2 (AGR135C)		EA2 149C)	389	42	20	38	%	viable	via	ble		
AgRHO1b (ABR183W)		HO1 165W)	207	20)9	76	%	lethal	let	hal		
AgSEC3 (ADR012C)		EC3 008C)	1319	13	36	35	%	lethal	let	hal		
AgSEC4 (AGL021W)		EC4 005W)	212	21	15	85	%	lethal	let	hal		
AgSPA2	ScSPA2	ScSPH1	2202	1466	661	27.0/	25.0/		viable	viable		
(ADL022C)	(YLL021W)	(YLR313C)	3392	1466	661	27 %	25 %	viable	double	Δ: viable		

^{*} Data from AGD3 (http://agd.vital-it.ch/index.html).

^{**}Data for yeast deletions are taken from SGD (http://www.yeastgenome.org/). Data for *A. gossypii* deletion phenotypes from Ayad-Durieux et al. 2000, Brachat S. unpublished, Cavicchioli D. unpublished, Galati V., unpublished, Knechtle et al. 2003, 2006 and unpublished, Schmitz et al. 2006, Wendland et al. 2001, and my own, unpublished results.

Rho-binding domain of ScBni1 (Evangelista et al., 1997; Ozaki-Kuroda et al., 2001). Therefore, recruitment of ScBni1 must happen through ScCdc42 effectors. Two possible candidates are ScGic1 and ScGic2. They both contain a CRIB domain and interact with ScCdc42, ScGic2 was shown to recruit polarisome components and both ScGic1 and ScGic2 are involved in initial septin recruitment to the site of bud formation (Brown et al., 1997; Chen et al., 1997; Jaquenoud and Peter, 2000; Iwase et al., 2006). However, ScGic2 is degraded after initiation of polar growth and strains that lack both GIC homologs are still able to bud, thus a parallel pathways must exist to localize ScBni1 (Jaquenoud et al., 1998). Direct activation of ScBni1 is mediated by the two Rho GTPases ScRho3 and ScRho4, probably by disruption of an auto-inhibitory intramolecular interaction of ScBni1 (Alberts, 2001; Dong et al., 2003). From the site of cell polarity establishment, actin cables emanate into the cell serving as tracks



for myosin-V dependent transport of vesicles and mRNA. Once the vesicles arrived at their destination, they fuse with the target membrane, a process that is mediated by the conserved, octameric exocyst protein complex. Deletion of any of the exocyst genes leads to accumulation of secretory vesicles and subsequent cell death (TerBush et al., 1996; Hazuka et al., 1997). Interestingly, the exocyst seems to be at the interface between cell polarity and secretion. ScSec4, a Rab GTPase that is active on post-Golgi vesicles, recruits the exocyst component ScSec15 and triggers interactions between ScSec15 and other exocyst components thereby assembling the exocyst complex (Salminen and Novick, 1987; Walch-Solimena et al., 1997; Guo et al., 1999). Various exocyst subunits contact components of the polarity machinery: ScExo70 interacts with ScRho3, ScSec3 with ScCdc42 and ScRho1 (see below). The interactions between small Rho GTPases and the exocyst are believed to allosterically regulate exocytosis (Finger et al., 1998; Adamo et al., 1999; Guo et al., 2001; Zhang et al., 2001; Roumanie et al., 2005). Furthermore, ScSec15 interaction with ScBem1 is important for ScSec15 localization especially during early stages of bud growth (France et al., 2006). The small GTPase ScRho1 plays a dual role in actin cytoskeleton control and cell wall synthesis. Like

Fig. 2: Vesicles accumulate in the hyphal tip of A. gossypii hyphae. (A) Frames from a time-lapse movie of an A. gossypii hyphal tip. The time interval between the presented images is 20 s. A phase-dense apical structure is observed in the very apex of the tip (arrowhead). Mycelium from the border of a 2-3 days old colony was inoculated over night on glass slides that were coated with a thin layer of AFM containing 19 % gelatine. The hyphae were covered with a cover slide and allowed to recover for 1-2 hours prior to imaging. Scale bar = 5 µm. (B) Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) micrograph of a thin section through the hyphal tip of a cryofixed A. gossypii mycelium. Vesicles are accumulated in the apex of the hyphal tip. The inset shows a higher magnification of the region enclosed by the rectangle in panel. The white arrowheads depict vesicles of different sizes. (C) The diameter of 140 tip-based vesicles was measured and plotted on the yaxis. The vesicle with the lowest diameter marks the left end of the x-axis, the vesicle with the biggest diameter the right end of the x-axis. Clearly, most vesicles had a diameter between 20 and 40 nm or between 70 and 100 nm as indicated by the small slope of the curve in these regions. (D) TEM of a chemically fixed hyphal tip displaying an apical vesicle cluster. Scalebars in B and D = 400 nm. (E) A hyphal tip stained with the live dye FM 4-64 displays a fluorescent, spherical-shaped area in the hyphal tip resembles the phase-dark mass observed by phase contrast microscopy. Mycelium from the border of a 2-4 days old colony was inoculated on a thin layer of AFM microscopy agar and incubated over night at room temperature. 2-4 μl of $11 \mu M FM 4-64$ were pipetted to the sample, the mycelium was covered with a cover slide and allowed to recover for 10-15 minutes prior to microscopy. Scale bar = $5 \mu m$.

ScCdc42, it can interact and activate ScBni1 directly in vitro. However, ScRho1 was found to mainly regulate the actin cytoskeleton via its effector ScPkc1 (Kohno et al., 1996; Imamura et al., 1997; Dong et al., 2003). In contrast, cell wall synthesis is controlled by ScRho1 directly via interaction with the $\beta(1,3)$ -glucan synthase ScFks1 and also indirectly through an ScPkc1-dependent pathway (Drgonova et al., 1996; Qadota et al., 1996, Nonaka et al., 1995; Kamada et al., 1996). I analyzed the localization of A. gossypii proteins, which are orthologs of S. cerevisiae factors involved in secretion, control of the actin cytoskeleton and regulation of cell polarity. These A. gossypii proteins have previously been shown or are documented the first time in this PhD thesis to act similarly to their S. cerevisiae orthologs. I could locate these polarity factors to distinct regions in the tip where they may execute their function. Furthermore, I found that the locations in the hyphal tip strongly depend on growth speed and distinct zones are most pronounced in fast elongating hyphae. In slow hyphae, the localization of most polarity factors overlap at the tip cortex. We suggest that distinct zones in the hyphal tip fulfill different cellular functions for sustained polar growth and that these zones have speed-dependent, flexible locations.

Results

Vesicles accumulate in the hyphal tip of *A. gossypii*.

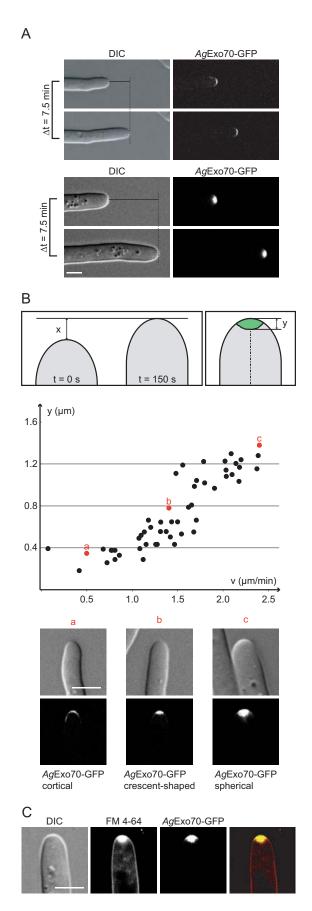
A prominent, phase-dense body was observed in the hyphal tip of A. gossypii if hyphae were grown in a medium that allows resolution of intracellular details by phase-contrast microscopy (figure 2A, movie S1). The body was roughly spherical $(1.2 \pm 0.1 \,\mu\text{m})$ in the direction of the hyphal axis and 1.9 ± 0.1 perpendicular to this axis, mean \pm S.E., n = 25) but slightly changed its morphology with time emphasising its dynamic nature. Furthermore, this body stayed in close association with the growing hyphal tip. Similar, tip based, phase-dense dynamic bodies were identified in several filamentous fungi where they were named "Spitzenkörper" or "apical body" (Girbardt, 1957, Lopez-Franco, 1996). The organization of the hyphal tip of A. gossypii was further characterized by transmission electron microscopy. Samples from the border of 2-3 days old A. gossypii mycelia were inoculated on thin dialysis membranes on AFM-agar plates, incubated over night, cryo-fixed and flat-embedded in resin. Virtually all of the hyphae processed for electron microscopy contained an accumulation of vesicles in the tip (figure 2B). Interestingly, 46 % of the vesicles had a diameter between 20 and 40 nm, 41 % a diameter between 70 and 100 nm, and only 13 % displayed an intermediate diameter between 40 and 70 nm indicating the presence of two main types of vesicles that differ in size (n = 140,

Table 2: Exocyst components in A. gossypii

A. gossypii exocyst	Homolog in S. cerevisiae*	A. gossypii. ORF size (aa)	Size of homolog in S. cerevisiae (aa)	Identity to S.c. homolog	A. gossypii deletion**
AgEXO70 (AFR100W)	ScEXO70 (YJL085W)	615	623	51 %	lethal
AgEXO84 (ADL321W)	ScEXO84 (YBR102C)	698	753	56 %	lethal
AgSEC10 (AGL130C)	ScSEC10 (YLR166C)	832	871	48 %	no data
AgSEC15 (AFR252C)	ScSEC15 (YGL233W)	869	910	53 %	lethal
AgSEC3 (ADR012C)	ScSEC3 (YER008C)	1320	1336	35 %	lethal
AgSEC5 (AGL158C)	ScSEC5 (YDR166C)	860	971	51 %	lethal
AgSEC6 (ACL047W)	ScSEC6 (YIL068C)	793	805	54 %	lethal
AgSEC8 (ADL317C)	ScSEC8 (YPR055W)	977	1065	40 %	lethal

^{*} Only one syntenic homolog of every A. gossypii exocyst component is present in S. cerevisiae

^{**} Galati V., unpublished results



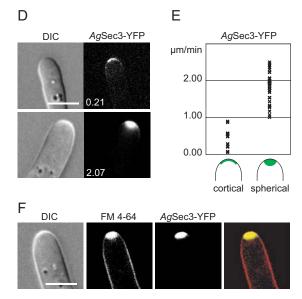


Fig. 3: The localization of Exo70-GFP is growth-speed **dependent.**(A) Frames of time-lapse movies of AgEXO70-GFP. Mycelium from the border of a two to three days old colony was inoculated on a time lapse slide on AFM agar and incubated over night at room temperature prior to microscopy. The two panels are taken from two independent movies; two picture series are shown per panel with a delay of 7.5 minutes between the two series. (B) Assessment of growth speed and AgExo70-GFP localization. The first sketch illustrates the hyphal elongation rate measurement: Two DIC-pictures of a hyphae were taken with a delay of $\Delta t = 2.5$ minutes. Growth speed v was estimated by measuring the distance x and dividing it by Δt . Immediately after acquisition of the second DIC image, a GFP image stack was acquired and the extension of the AgExo70-GFP signal along the hyphal axis (y) was measured as shown in the second sketch. The AgExo70-GFP extension (y) was plotted against growth speed. Images are shown for the data-points labelled in red below the localization/speed plot. (C) FM 4-64 staining of an AgEXO70-GFP expressing hypha. AgExo70-GFP (green in the overlay) displays a localization pattern that overlaps with the FM 4-64 stained apical body (red in the overlay). (D) Example of a slow and a fast AgSEC3-YFP expressing hypha, the white number on the YFP micrograph indicates the growth speed of the hypha shown on the picture in $\mu m/min$. (E) Simplified speed/localization plot, the growth speed is given in $\mu m/min$ on the y axis, the two different localization patterns are shown on the x-axis. Growth speed of hyphae that displayed AgSec3-YFP at the cortex are shown on the left half of the plot, growth speeds of hyphae that showed a spherical AgSec3-YFP localization pattern are shown on the right half of the plot. Hyphae that displayed a crescent-like AgSec3-YFP localisation were not considered for this measurement. (F) AgSec3-YFP (green in the overlay) displays a localization pattern that overlaps with the FM 4-64 stained apical body (red in the overlay). Scale bars = $5 \mu m$.

figure 2C). A correlation between the location of the apical body seen by light microscopy and the area covered with vesicles observed by electron microscopy was not possible since the resin-embedded hypha appeared uniformly black when imaged by phase-contrast microscopy. The findings from cryo-fixed hyphae were confirmed with chemically fixed samples. Cryo-fixation leads to very good conservation of structural details but requires moving of the samples and might induce stress-related artifacts as for example dispersal of the apical body. Chemical fixation on the other hand leads to poor structural preservation but the mycelia are undisturbed until they come in contact with the fixative. Apical body-like structures could be identified by phase-contrast in embedded, chemically fixed samples. As already seen for the cryo-fixed samples, those hyphae displayed tightly clustered vesicles in the tip (figure 2D).

Previous reports show that the apical body can be stained with the lipophilic styryl dye FM 4-64 that fluoresces if inserted in lipid bilayers (Fischer-Parton et al., 2000; Dijksterhuis, 2003). Strong FM 4-64 fluorescence was observed at the plasma membrane and in a spherical zone in the hyphal tip if A. gossypii was incubated for 10 to 15 minutes with 11 μM FM 4-64 (Fig 2E). We will refer to the FM 4-64 stained spherical volume as the apical body during this work because the dimensions of the FM 4-64 stained fluorescent area were with $1.2 \pm 0.1 \,\mu m$ along the hyphal axis and 1.9 ± 0.1 perpendicular to the hyphal axis (mean \pm S.E., n = 27) indistinguishable to the dimensions observed for the apical body visualized by phase-contrast microscopy (see above).

The localization pattern of the exocyst component *Ag*Exo70-GFP depends on growth speed.

It is generally believed that a substantial part of the vesicles that are clustered in the apical body are exocytic vesicles that transport membrane lipids, cell wall proteins, cell wall synthesizing enzymes and other cargo to the hyphal tip (Bartnicki-Garcia and Lippman, 1969; Gooday, 1971). In *S. cerevisiae* it was shown that a conserved protein complex, the exocyst, mediates tethering of vesicles to sites of growth (TerBush et al., 1996; Guo et al., 1999; Roumanie et al., 2005). Homologs to all eight exocyst-encoding *S. cerevisiae* genes could be identified in the *A. gossypii* genome. Deletions of the seven exocyst genes analyzed so far were lethal (table 2, Galati V. unpublished results). To investigate the site of vesicle incorporation, GFP

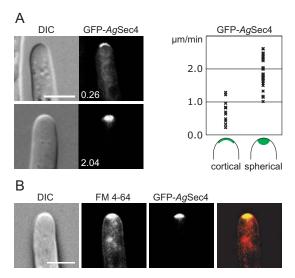


Fig. 4: Growth-speed dependent localization of GFP-AgSec4. (A) Growth speed and GFP-AgSec4 localization. The first panel shows examples of hyphae that display GFP-AgSec4 at the cortex or in a spherical localization pattern. The white numbers indicate growth speed in μ m/min. The right panel shows a speed/localization plot. The speed is given in μ m/min on the y-axis, the localization pattern on the x-axis. (B) GFP-AgSec4 (green in the overlay) displays a localization pattern that overlaps with the FM 4-64 stained apical body (red in the overlay). Scale bars = 5 μ m.

or YFP was fused to two exocyst components, AgExo70 and AgSec3 respectively. As expected, AgExo70-GFP and AgSec3-YFP localized to hyphal tips (figure 3A and 3D). Interestingly, we observed that AgExo70-GFP and AgSec3-YFP localized cortically in some hyphae while they displayed a spherical localization pattern in others. Time-lapse movies indicated that the extension rate was lower for hyphae with AgExo70-GFP at the cortex than for hyphae with AgExo70-GFP in a spherical conformation (figure 3A, movie S2). This observation suggested that AgExo70-GFP localization is dependent on growth speed. We tested this hypothesis by quantifying growth speed and AgExo70-GFP localization as shown in the first panel of figure 3B. Hyphal elongation rate was determined by taking two DIC pictures at a time interval of 2.5 minutes. AgExo70-GFP dimensions were measured in direction parallel to the hyphal axis and compared to the hyphal growth speed. Indeed, a correlation between growth speed and AgExo70-GFP localization was observed in such that the dimension of AgExo70-GFP along the hyphal axis increased gradually with increasing hyphal elongation rate (figure 3B). At growth speeds less than 1.0 μm/min, the layer of AgExo70-GFP was not thicker than 0.4 μm, which corresponds to the cortical AgExo70-GFP

localization (figure 3Ba). In contrary, hyphae elongating with more than 1.5 µm/min displayed AgExo70-GFP in spherical localization patterns with AgExo70-GFP extending about 1.2 μm along the hyphal axis (figure 3Bc). The shape of the AgExo70-GFP localization in fast growing hyphae resembled the shape of an apical body. Staining of AgExo70-GFP expressing hyphae with FM 4-64 indeed revealed overlapping AgExo70-GFP and FM 4-64 fluorescence (figure 3C). No apical body was observed if AgExo70-GFP was cortical suggesting that formation of the apical body and the AgExo70-GFP stained sphere depends on growth speed. Hyphae that displayed an apical body had an average growth speed of $1.6 \pm 0.4 \,\mu\text{m/min}$ (mean \pm S.D., n = 28) while no apical body was observed in 97 % of elongating with less than $1.0 \,\mu\text{m/min}$ (n = 33) confirming this hypothesis. These results agree with prior findings that the presence of an apical body strongly depends on hyphal growth (Girbardt, 1957; Lopez-Franco,

The growth-speed dependent localization change of AgExo70-GFP is likely to represent the behaviour of the entire exocyst since the YFP-fusion to the second investigated exocyst component, AgSec3, displayed the same, speed-dependent localization: slow hyphae displayed AgSec3-YFP at the cortex, fast hyphae had AgSec3 in a spherical configuration, which conferred to the apical body (figure 3D, E and F).

In budding yeast, the small Rab-family GTPase ScSec4 was shown to be active on post-Golgi vesicles where it recruits the exocyst. A GFP-fusion to A. gossypii Sec4 was used as a marker for exocytic vesicles in a earlier study (Schmitz et

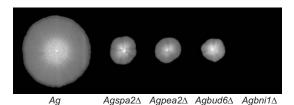


Fig. 6: Radial growth of $Agspa2\Delta$, $Agpea2\Delta$, $Agbud6\Delta$ and $AgbniI\Delta$. Mycelium of the reference strain (Ag), $Agspa2\Delta$, $Agpea2\Delta$ and $Agbud6\Delta$ was inoculated in the middle of an AFM agar plate, spores of a heterokaryonic $AgbniI\Delta$ strain were spotted in the middle of a selective AFM agar plate and incubated for 6 days at 30 °C.

al., 2006). Here I show that GFP-AgSec4 localized to the apical body in a growth speed-dependent manner. In a pattern that was very similar to the exocyst, slow growing hyphae displayed GFP-AgSec4 at cortex while fast extending tips displayed it in a spherical localization pattern (figure 4).

The polarisome components AgSpa2 and AgPea2 and the formin AgBni1 localize in a spherical localization pattern dependent on growth-speed while AgBud6 is restricted to the cortex.

Vesicles are transported to the elongating hyphal tip of *A. gossypii* on actin cables, which are nucleated by the tip-located formin *Ag*Bni1 (Schmitz et al., 2006). However, the C-terminal GFP-fusion to *Ag*Bni1 published by Schmitz et al. (2006) showed a very weak GFP signal and this strain displayed a reduced radial growth speed. Apical bodies were not observed in this strain, either due to a direct effect of the GFP-tag on apical body assembly or as consequence of the decreased hyphal growth

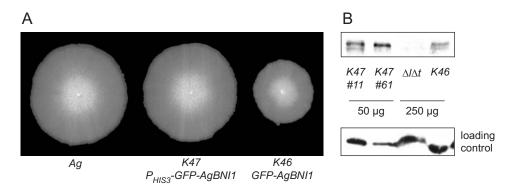


Fig. 5: Amino-terminal GFP-fusions to *Ag***Bni1.** (A) Radial growth assay. The reference strain (*Ag*), *K47* (*P*_{ScHISS}⁻ *GFP-Ag*BNII) and *K46* (*GFP-Ag*BNII) were inoculated in the middle of an AFM agar plate and incubated for 6 days at 30 °C. Note that the diameter of the reference strain and *K47* are identical. (B) Estimations of GFP-*Ag*Bni1-levels. The two *K47* isolates express *GFP-Ag*BNII under the control of the *ScHIS3* promoter, *K46* carries exactly the same construct but under the control of the native *Ag*BNII promoter. 50 μg *K47* protein and 250 μg of reference strain and *K46* protein were separated by SDS-PAGE and probed with antiGFP on a nitrocellulose membrane. GFP-*Ag*Bni1 ran at about 250 kDa (predicted molecular weight: 240 kDa). A crossreacting band of an approximate size of 105 kDa was used as a loading control.

speed. Strains that expressed an amino-terminal GFP-fusion to AgBni1 displayed apical bodies. The signal intensity of GFP-AgBni1 could be enhanced by expression of the GFP-fusion under the control of the ScHIS3 promoter. Overexpression led to a five- to tenfold increase in protein levels compared to expression of the same construct from the endogenous promoter and to reconstitution of wild-type radial growth speed (figure 5). In budding yeast, ScBni1 was reported to interact with three proteins, ScSpa2, ScPea2, and ScBud6, which were co-purified as a 12S protein complex termed the polarisome (Sheu et al., 1998). Deletions of the genes encoding the putative polarisome components AgSpa2, AgPea2, and AgBud6 all

showed a decrease in radial growth speed while deletion of AgBni1 was lethal (figure 6, Knechtle et al., 2003; Schmitz et al., 2006). In slow growing hyphae, GFP- and YFP fusions to the polarisome components and to AgBni1 localized to the tip cortex. In fast hyphae, GFP-AgBni1, AgSpa2-GFP and AgPea2-YFP were observed in a spherical localization similar to the pattern observed for AgExo70-GFP. Strikingly, GFP-AgBud6 was restricted to the cortex independent of growth speed (figure 7A and 7B). FM 4-64 staining revealed that the spherical localization patterns of AgSpa2-GFP, AgPea2-YFP and GFP-AgBni1 overlapped with the apical body while GFP-AgBud6 was at the cortex also if an apical body was present (figure 7C).

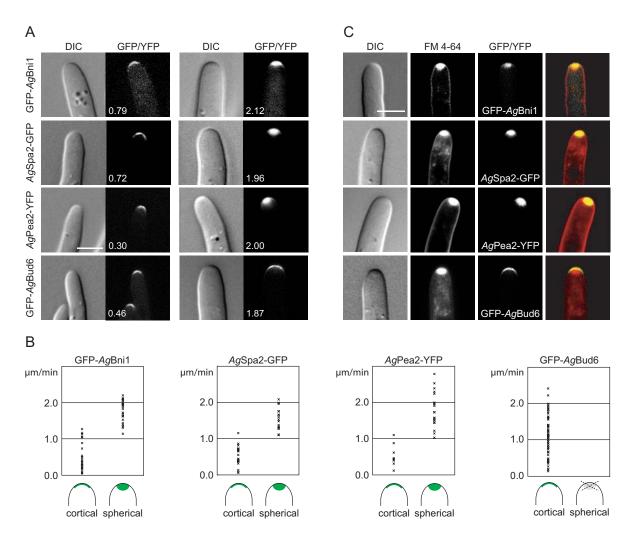


Figure 7: The putative polarisome components AgSpa2 and AgPea2 and to the formin AgBni1 localize in an apical body-like localization pattern dependent on growth speed while another putative polarisome-component, AgBud6, is restricted to the cortex. (A) Examples of GFP-AgBni1, AgSpa2-GFP and AgPea2-YFP localizing cortically or spherically. The white numbers indicate the growth speeds of the given hyphae in μ m/min. (B) Correlation between localization and growth speed of the formin AgBni1 and the putative polarisome components. Growth speed is plotted on the y-axis in μ m/min, the localization of the GFP- or YFP tagged protein is marked on the x-axis. Note that a spherical GFP-AgBud6 localization pattern was not observed. (C) GFP-AgBni1 AgSpa2-GFP, AgPea2-YFP and GFP-AgBud6 are shown in green in the overlay, the FM 4-64 staining in red. Scale bars = 5 μ m.

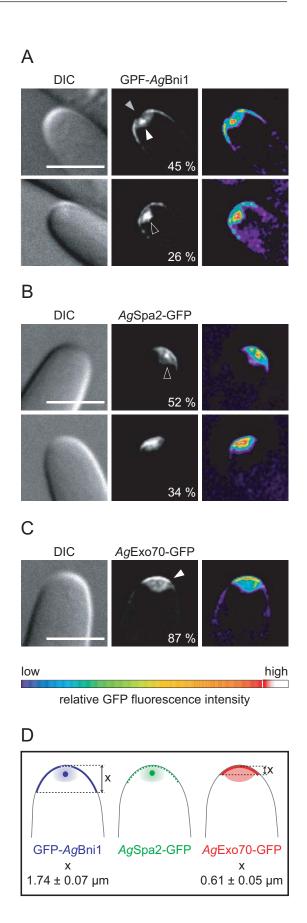


Fig. 8: GFP-AgBni1 and AgSpa2-GFP are enriched in a core-like structure in the apical body while AgExo70-GFP is enriched at the cortex. (A) Stacks of GFP-AgBni1 expressing hypha that grew faster than 1.50 µm/min were submitted to blind deconvolution, maximum projections of central planes are shown. White or red color in the false color image indicates high GFP-fluorescence, blue and purple low GFP fluorescence. 45 % of all hyphae displayed a localization pattern similar to the one shown in the first image row displaying a discrete GFP-AgBni1 core (white arrowhead). 26 % of the fast hypha displayed a less condensed core region (second image row, black arrowhead, n = 31). A reduced GFP-AgBni1 fluorescence at the most apical part of the hyphal cortex was observed in 58 % of all cases (grey arrowhead). (B) 52 % of fast ($v > 1.50 \mu m/min$) AgSpa2-GFP hyphae displayed an enrichment of AgSpa2-GFP in a core region in the apical body (first image row, black arrowhead). 34 % of the hyphae displayed an amorphous apical body localization of AgSpa2-GFP without a distinct enrichment (second image row, n = 29). (C) AgExo70-GFP was diffusely localized in the region of the apical body but enriched at the cortex in 87 % of fast growing hyphae (n = 31). For all three strains, mycelium from the border of a 2-3 days old colony was inoculated on time-lapse slides (glass slides with an AFM agarfilled cavity) and incubated over night at room temperature. Only prior to microscopy the samples were covered with a cover slide, growth speed of the hyphae was assessed before an image stack of the GFP fluorescence was acquired. (D) Model of the localization pattern of GFP-AgBni1, AgSpa2-GFP and AgExo70-GFP. GFP-AgBni1 covered the apical $1.74 \pm 0.07 \mu m$ of the cortex, AgExo70-GFP the $0.61 \pm 0.05 \mu m$. Scale bars = $5 \mu m$.

GFP-AgBud6 did not localize to the apical body upon fast growth. However, one could not exclude a subtle localization difference between slow and fast growing GFP-AgBUD6 hyphae. In order to systematically define growth speeds that are characteristic for slow and fast hyphae, the data sets obtained by the speed/localization measurements of AgExo70-GFP, AgSec3-YFP, GFP-AgSec4, AgSpa2-GFP, AgPea2-YFP and GFP-AgBni1 were compared. Two growth speeds were defined based on the localization pattern of the tagged polarity factor. If hyphal elongation rates were slower than 0.83 µm/min, 85 % of all hyphae displayed the given, tagged polarity factor at the cortex (n = 85). If growth speed exceeded 1.50 µm/min, 88 % of all hyphae showed a spherical localization of the given polarity factor (n = 120). Based on these findings, hyphae were defined as slow if they extended with less than 0.83 µm/min and as fast if they grew quicker than 1.50 µm/min. However, no GFP-AgBud6 localization difference could be seen if fast and slow hyphae were compared.

In conclusion, GFP- or YFP fusions to the two polarisome components $Ag\mathrm{Spa2}$ and $Ag\mathrm{Pea2}$ and the formin $Ag\mathrm{Bni1}$ localize in a spherical manner depending on hyphal extension rate while GFP- $Ag\mathrm{Bud6}$ stayed at the cortex of the hyphal tip regardless of growth speed.

AgBni1 and AgSpa2 form a core-like structure in the apical body while AgExo70 is enriched at the cortex.

In figure 7C, GFP-AgBni1 does not seems to occupy the entire FM 4-64 stained apical body like AgExo70-GFP or AgSpa2-GFP does. This observation suggested that the formin AgBni1, the exocyst and the polarisome component AgSpa2 might display different localizations in the apical body. To test this speculation, we analyzed 30 hyphae by taking image stacks of 32 planes that were submitted to blind deconvolution. Only measurements of hyphae that elongated faster than 1.50 µm/min were taken into account in view of the fact that slower growth speeds had a profound effect on the localization pattern of different polarity factors. We found that the localization patterns of GFP-AgBni1, AgSpa2-GFP and AgExo70-GFP differed from each other slightly. In 45 % of all cases, GFP-AgBni1 was enriched in an amorphous core structure in the apical dome. In 26 % of the hyphae, a less defined, central region of GFP-AgBni1 could be distinguished that was separated from a cortical pool of GFP-AgBni1 (figure 8 A). The remaining 29 % of hyphae either displayed a homogenous GFP-AgBni1 distribution in the apical body or a large, fuzzy core region of

GFP-AgBni1 that appeared connected to the cortex (notshown, n = 31). Cortex-associated GFP-AgBni1 reached 1.74 ± 0.07 (mean \pm S.E., n = 31) towards distal parts of the hypha measured parallel to the hyphal axis. Furthermore, the cortical GFP-AgBni1 pool did not cover the cortex evenly: a zone of reduced fluorescence at the very tip proximal to the core-region was observed in 58 % of all cases. Interestingly, AgSpa2-GFP was enriched in a corelike region similar to GFP-AgBni1 in 52 % of all tips though the fluorescence intensity difference between the core-structure and the surrounding AgSpa2-GFP cloud was less pronounced than for GFP-AgBni1. In 34 % of the hyphae, AgSpa2 displayed an amorphous, apical body-like localization without a discernible core region (n = 29) (figure 8B). Strikingly, AgExo70-GFP was not observed in a core-like structure but was distributed almost evenly in the apical body with an enrichment of AgExo70-GFP at the cortex (87 %, n = 31, figure 8C). The cortical region where AgExo70-GFP was strongly enriched was limited to the very apical part of the hyphae and reached only $0.61 \pm 0.05 \,\mu m$ measured parallel to the hyphal axis, which is barley larger than the region where the AgExo70-GFP marked apical body touches the cortex (mean \pm S.E., n = 31). To summarize, we show that GFP-AgBni1 and AgSpa2-GFP are enriched towards the center of the apical body while AgExo70-GFP is not (figure 8D).

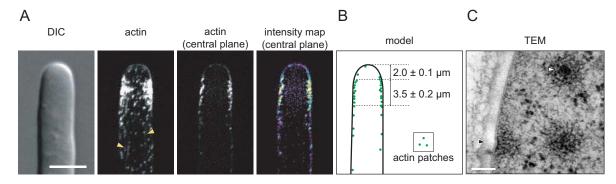


Fig. 9: Actin patches are enriched at the hyphal cortex directly adjacent to the tip. (A) Alexa488-phalloidin staining of fast-growing hyphal tips. The second image displays a maximal projection of an image stack that spans through the entire hyphal tip. Actin cables are depicted by arrowheads. The more prominent, dot-like actin structures are actin patches. The third panel displays a single plane of the entire image stack and the fourth panel a false color representation thereof. Blue and purple colors indicate low, white and red color high relative fluorescence intensity. The reference strain was grown from spores on AFM agar plates for 20 hours at 30 °C, fixed and processed for staining as described in material and methods. Scale bar = 5 μ m. (B) Distribution of cortical actin patches. A hyphal outline is indicated in black, the orange dots represent actin patches. Patches were sparse in the first 2 μ m of the hyphal tip and enriched at the cortex behind this region. (C) Transmission electron micrograph from a cortical region. The cell wall is situated on the left side of the image. The picture shows three electron-dense, filamentous structures. A vesicle is visible in the center of one of these structures (white arrowhead). Filamentous matter is associated with an invagination of the plasma membrane (black arrowhead). Scale bar = 0.1 μ m.

The actin cytoskeleton in fast growing hyphal tips.

Since AgBni1 is a nucleator of actin cables, it is reasonable to assume that the pool of AgBni1 in the core region nucleates actin filaments that emanate into the cytoplasm. Contrary to most filamentous fungi, the actin cytoskeleton of A. gossypii can be conveniently stained with phalloidin-coupled fluorescent dyes. As described in detail by Knechtle et al., 2003, the A. gossypii actin cytoskeleton consists of three main components: long actin cables, cortical actin patches and contractile actin rings at sites of septation. However, actin staining in this and other publications was done with young mycelia that had not reached high growth speeds. Thus, actin-organizations specific to fast growing hyphae are not well described up to now. Spores were spread on AFM agar plates and incubated at 30 °C for 20 hours to obtain fast growing hyphae. The mycelia were fixed by directly pouring the fixative onto the agar plates and processed for actin staining. Unfortunately, no actin cables were visible in the apex, eventually because the background fluorescence is too high in this region (figure 9A). Interestingly, the actin patches were not clustered at the hyphal tip like it was described for young hyphae (Ayad-Durieux et al., 2000; Knechtle et al., 2003). Instead, they were accumulated cortically adjecant to the hyphal tip. The apical zone where

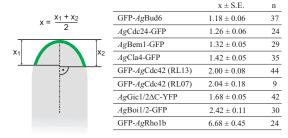
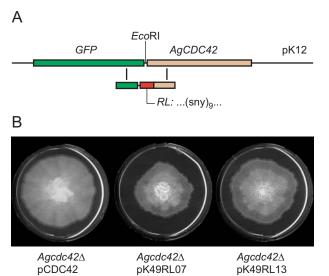


Table 3: Localization of cortex-associated polarity factors. The dimensions of the cortex region occupied by GFP-fusion proteins were estimated by measuring the distances \mathbf{x}_1 and \mathbf{x}_2 as indicated on the sketch. A schematic hyphal tip is shown, the dotted line represents the hyphal axis and the part of the cortex labelled in green symbolizes the localization of a GFP-fusion protein. For every cortical factor, the parameters \mathbf{x}_1 and \mathbf{x}_2 were determined for 25 to 50 hyphae that displayed an apical body. One value x was determined per hypha with x being $(\mathbf{x}_1 + \mathbf{x}_2)/2$ the average of x over all measurements is given in the table.

patches were sparse measured $2.0\pm0.1~\mu m$, the zone where cortical patches were strongly enriched $3.5\pm0.2~\mu m$ (mean \pm S.E., n = 16, figure 9B). Actin patches are generally regarded as sites of endocytosis (Huckaba et al., 2004; Jonsdottir and Li, 2004). Indeed, by electron microscopy we were able to detect small vesicles or plasma membrane invaginations that were surrounded by a filamentous, electron-dense matter (figure 9C). It is likely that these structures confer to actin patches that are observed by staining with phalloidin-



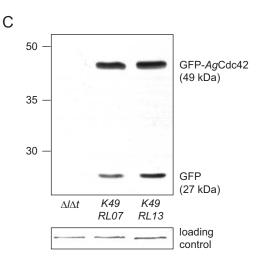


Figure 10: Construction of GFP-AgCdc42. (A) Scheme of random-linker insertion between GFP and AgCDC42. The random linker contains nine (SNY) repeats where S stands for the nucleotides C or G, N for any nucleotide and Y for T or C (IUB Code). (B) Growth of a homokaryonic Agcdc42Δ strain that was complemented with either pCDC42 containing AgCDC42, pK49RL07 or pK49RL13, which contain GFP-AgCDC42 fusions with the random linkers RL07 and RL13. Mycelium was inoculated on AFM agar plates and incubated for 8 days at 30 °C. (C) GFP-RL07 and GFP-RL13 on a western blot. 100 μg protein were separated by SDS-PAGE and probed with antiGFP on a nitrocellulose membrane. A GFP-AgCDC42 band and a band whose size corresponds to GFP are observed. Single GFP-bands were never observed for other GFP- or YFP fusion proteins analyzed by western blotting. A crossreacting 105 kDa band that was always present on western blots probed with antiGFP from Roche was used as a loading control.

coupled dyes in *A. gossypii* since similar "coated vesicles" in budding yeast were shown to contain actin (Mulholland et al., 1994).

AgCdc42 and its effectors are enriched at the hyphal cortex and show a speed-dependent localization.

It is known that both the exocyst and the formin ScBni1 can be activated by the small GTPase ScCdc42 (Zhang et al., 2001, Evangelista et al., 1997). GTP-bound ScCdc42, its GEF ScCdc24 and the adaptor-protein ScBem1 supposedly work together in a positive feedback loop to establish a site of polarity. The PAK kinase ScCla4 is recruited by activated AgCdc42 and is thought

to be responsible for disruption of the positive feedback loop after bud emergence by inducing an inhibitory phosphorylation of ScCdc24. Cdc42 was identified as a key regulator of cell polarity in A. gossypii as well. Deletion of AgCDC42 leads to uniformly round cells (Wendland and Philippsen, 2001). Furthermore, AgCdc42 binds to and most probably activates AgBni1 when it is in its GTP bound, active state (Wendland and Philippsen, 2001; Schmitz et al., 2006). Localization of AgCdc42 proved to be difficult. In order to create a functional GFP-AgCDC42 construct, random linker sequences were inserted between GFP and AgCDC42 (figure 10A). The resulting constructs were transformed into yeast strain DLY3067 that

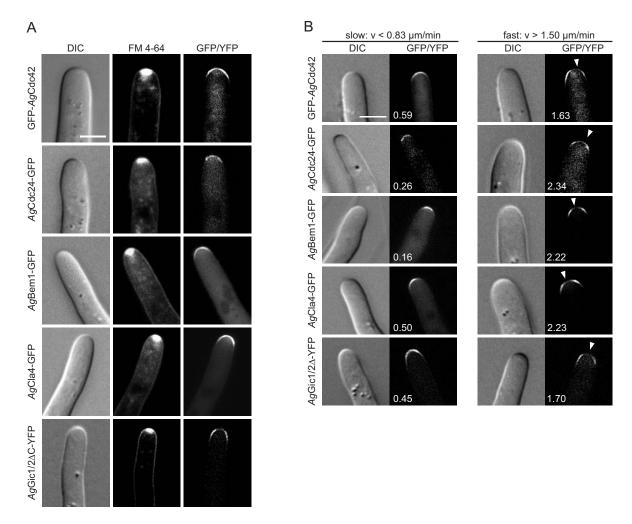


Fig. 11: Putative AgCdc42 effectors and the AgCdc42 GEF AgCdc24 localize to the cortex and show growth speed-dependent reduction of fluorescence at the most apical part of the hyphal tip. (A) GFP-AgCdc42, AgCdc24-GFP, AgBem1-GFP, AgCla4-GFP and AgGic1/2 Δ C-YFP in FM 4-64 stained hyphae. The GFP-labelled polarity factors localize to the cortex also in the presence of a FM 4-64 stained apical body. (B) Growth speed dependent localization of the strains shown under A. Slow (left column, $v < 0.83 \mu m/min$) and fast hyphae (right column, $v > 1.5 \mu m/min$) were compared. The white number indicates the growth speed of the example hyphae. Slow growing hyphae of AgCdc24-GFP, AgBem1-GFP and AgCla4-GFP and GFP-AgCdc42 never showed a zone of reduced fluorescence at the very apical part of the hyphal tip while such a zone was observed in 20 – 60 % of fast growing hyphae (arrowheads). Scale bars = 5 μ m.

expresses ScCDC42 under control of the ScGAL1 promoter. The transformants were selected for the ability to grow on glucose, a condition that represses expression of the endogenous ScCDC42. Plasmids that were isolated from these strains were able to complemented a homokaryotic A. gossypii $cdc42\Delta$ strain (figure 10B). However, proteolytic cleavage of the linker sequence between GFP and AgCdc42 was detected in a western blot (figure 10C). It is thus possible that actually only the cleaved AgCdc42 molecules are active while GFP-AgCdc42 might not be entirely functional and its localization pattern might not reflect the distribution of untagged AgCdc42.

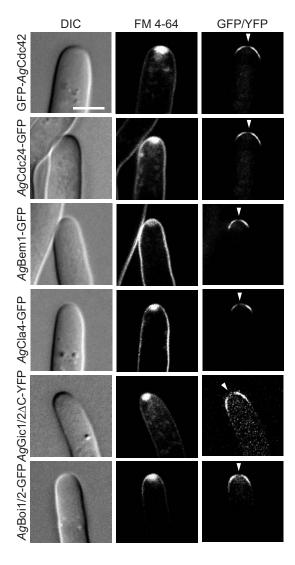


Fig. 12: Reduction of fluorescence intensity at the most apical part of the hyphal tip in FM 4-64 stained hyphae. GFP-AgCdc42, AgCdc24-GFP, AgBem1-GFP, AgCla4-GFP, AgGic1/2 Δ C-YFP and AgBoi1/2-GFP in FM 4-64 stained hyphae. The labelled polarity factors display a zone of reduced fluorescence at the hyphal tip (arrowhead). Scale bar = 5 μ m.

GFP-AgCdc42 localized to the cortex of hyphal tips in all hyphae, also if an apical body was present (figure 11A). AgCdc24, the presumably only AgCdc42 GEF, and the adaptor protein AgBem1 were investigated because their localization pattern supposedly reflect the zones where the GDP/GTP exchange of AgCdc42 takes place in analogy to results from yeast. Both AgCdc24-GFP and AgBem1-GFP were found to localize at the most apical part of the cortex. An apical bodylike, spherical localization was not observed (figure 11A). The zones of AgCdc24 and AgBem1 localization were quantified by measuring the dimensions of the cortical GFP-signals parallel to the hyphal axis (table 3). Since we showed for the exocyst and the polarisome that protein localization depends on growth speed, we only assessed hyphae that displayed an apical body and thus grew efficiently. The extensions were almost identical for AgCdc24-GFP (1.26 \pm 0.06 μ m) and AgBem1-GFP $(1.32 \pm 0.05 \, \mu \text{m}, \text{mean} \pm \text{S.E.},$ n = 24 and n = 29 respectively). Also the PAK protein kinase AgCla4 localized to the cortex of the hyphal tip. The AgCla4-GFP signal reached $1.42 \pm 0.05 \,\mu m$ along the cortex (mean \pm S.E., n = 35) thus occupying the same part of the cortex as AgCdc24-GFP and AgBem1-GFP. Interestingly, the GFP-AgCdc42 signal reached with $2.04 \pm 0.08 \mu m$ (mean \pm S.E., n = 44) further along the hyphal cortex than both AgCdc24-GFP and AgBem1-GFP. Thus, a zone that is enriched in GFP-AgCdc42 but that lacks the GEF AgCdc24, the scaffold protein AgBem1 and AgCla4 is observed. CRIB domains, like the one present in AgCla4, bind to GTP-bound Cdc42 or Rac (Burbelo et al., 1995), thus it might be possible that GTP-bound AgCdc42 is restricted to the site where AgCla4 is observed. To test this hypothesis, we made a construct analogous to

Table 4: Zone of reduced fluorescence in the hyphal tip of fast-growing hyphae.

Strain	% reduced apical GFP fluorescence*	n
GFP-AgCdc42	31%	16
AgCdc24-GFP	47%	19
AgBem1-GFP	40%	25
AgCla4-GFP	25%	20
AgGic1ΔC-YFP	63%	19
AgBoi1-GFP	23%	22
GFP-AgBud6	0%	17

^{* %} fast growing hyphae ($v > 1.50 \mu m/min$) that display a reduced GFP-intensity at the very apical part of the hyphal tip (See figures 11B and 13B)

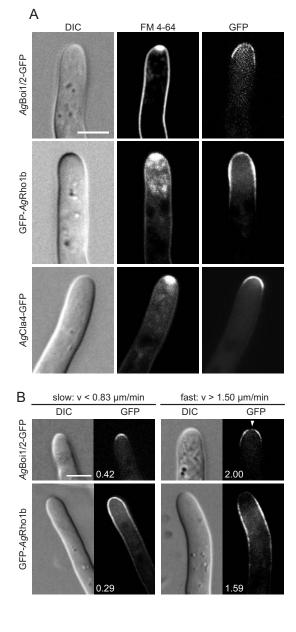


Figure 13: GFP-fusions to AgBoi1/2 and AgRho1b localize to different parts of the hyphal cortex dependent on growth speed. (A) AgBoil-GFP and GFP-AgRholb in hyphae that display a FM 4-64 stained apical body. AgBoi1-GFP and GFP-AgRho1b cover a larger potion of the apical cortex than AgCla4 that is shown as a reference. (B) Growth speed dependent localization of AgBoi1/2-GFP and GFP-AgRho1b. Differences in localization were observed between slow (left column, v < 0.83 μm/min) and fast hyphae (right column, $v > 1.5 \mu m/min$). AgBoi1/2-GFP localized to the entire apical cortex in 15 % of slow growing hyphae (n = 13) and in 82 % of fast growing hyphae (n = 22). A reduction of AgBoi1/2-GFP fluorescence was observed at the very apical part of fast growing tips (arrowhead) in 23 % of all cases (n = 22). AgGFP-Rho1b covered the tip of slow growing hyphae evenly (93 %, n = 15). Fast GFP-AgRHO1b expressing hyphae displayed reduced GFP-AgRho1b at the very tip (100 %, n = 24). Scale

the one described by Ozbudak et al. (2005), who used a carboxy-terminally truncated version of the CRIB domain protein ScGic2 fused to GFP to detect activated ScCdc42 in budding yeast. AgGic1/2ΔC-YFP, the C-terminally truncated, YFP-tagged version of AgGic1/2 we used as a probe, was fully functional as shown in part III of this thesis. Interestingly, AgGic1/2-YFP covered a region that was larger than the one occupied by AgCla4-GFP. The AgGic1/2ΔC-YFP signal reached $1.68 \pm 0.06 \,\mu m$ (mean \pm S.E., n = 42) towards distal parts of the hyphae along the cortex. In summary, AgCdc24-GFP, AgBem1-GFP and AgCla4-GFP localize to the same part of hyphae, which we termed central apical cortex. Both AgGic1/2-YFP and GFP-AgCdc42 covered a slightly larger region than the other factors (table

We further tested whether the localization of these basic cell polarity factors is influenced by growth speed. All the factors described in this paragraph displayed a very similar growth speed dependence of their localization pattern: the GFP-signal covered the hyphal tip cortex evenly in 100 % of the slow growing hyphae while a reduction of GFP-intensity was observed at the very apical part 20 - 60 % of fast growing hyphae (figure 11B, table 4). A reduction in fluorescence intensity at the very apex was observed also in the hyphae that contained an FM 4-64 stained apical body, which indicates fast growth (figure 12). Importantly, not all factors that localized to the cortex of hyphal tips displayed such a speed-dependent apical reduction of GFP-fluorescence. GFP-AgBud6 covered the tip cortex evenly in 100 % of fast hyphae and also in 100 % of hyphae that possessed an apical body (n = 17 and n = 37 respectively).

AgBoi1/2 and AgRho1b define the entire and the extended apical cortex in fast growing hyphal tips.

A recent report identified AgBoi1/2 as an important cell polarity factor in A. gossypii. Hyphal tips in an $Agboi1/2\Delta$ strain frequently expand in a nonpolar way but can switch back to normal, hyphal growth (Knechtle et al., 2006). AgBoi1/2-GFP localized cortically in hyphae that contained an apical body (figure 13A). The AgBoi1/2-GFP signal was not restricted to the central apical cortex and extended $2.42 \pm 0.14 \,\mu m$ (mean \pm S. D., n = 30) towards distal regions of the hypha defining the entire apical cortex (table 3). In slow growing hyphae, AgBoi1/2-GFP localized to the entire apical cortex in only 15 % of all cases

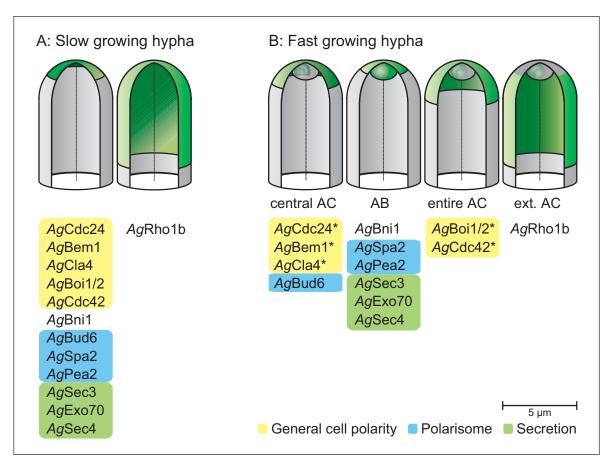


Fig. 14: Localization of factors involved in polar growth in fast and slow growing hyphae. (A) Localization patterns of polar growth factors in slow growing hypha. The two basic localization modes observed in slow hyphae are represented by two hyphal models. The dotted line denotes the hyphal axis; the regions shaded in green represent the localizations of the factors listed below the models. The polarity factors were assigned to three functional groups (adapted from Irazoqui and Lew, 2004) and shaded in the respective color (yellow for the general cell polarity group, blue for the polarisome, green for the secretion group). (B) Localization patterns of the same factor as shown under (A) in fast growing hyphae. The apical body, which is not seen in slow hyphae, is symbolized by an ellipsoid in the hyphal tip. The central apical cortex (cAC) is defined by the guanosine exhange factor AgCdc24, AgBem1, the PAK (p21-activated kinase) family member AgCla4, the putative polarisome component AgBud6 also localizes to this region. The other two putative polarisome components of A. gossypii, AgSpa2 and AgPea2, were found in the apical body along with the formin AgBni1. Proteins involved in polarized secretion like the exocyst components AgExo70 and AgSec3 and the small Rab-GTPase AgSec4 were also enriched in the apical body. AgBoi1 defines the entire apical cortex (entire AC), AgCdc42 also localizes to this region. The small Rho-GTPase AgRho1b defines the extended apical cortex (ext. AC), maximal enrichment of AgRho1b is seen at the hyphal cortex behind the tip in a "corset"-like distribution. GFP-fusions to the polarity factors denoted with a star displayed reduced fluorescence intensity in 20 to 50 % of fast growing hyphae.

(n = 13) while in fast hyphae it was found at the entire apical cortex in 82 % (n = 22). Additionally, a zone of reduced fluorescence at the very apex of the tip could be observed in 23 % of fast hyphae similar to what was found for AgCdc42 interacting proteins (figure 13B). AgRho1b is a small Rhotype GTP-binding protein with functions in cell wall synthesis and actin organization. A cortical pool of GFP-AgRho1b colocalizes with anilineblue stained $\beta(1,3)$ -glucane (part III, figure 2), and the yeast homolog ScRho1 was shown to be a catalytical subunit of the $\beta(1,3)$ glucan-synthase (Drgonova et al., 1996; Qadota et al., 1996). Therefore, GFP-AgRho1b localization is likely

to represent areas of $\beta(1,3)$ glucan synthesis. In contrast to the other polarity factors described here, GFP-AgRho1b was found to localize weakly at the cortex in the entire hyphae (not shown). Nevertheless it was strongly enriched in hyphal tips. GFP-AgRho1b did not localize in an apical body-like manner but the tip-enriched pool of GFP-AgRho1b extended with $6.68 \pm 0.45 \, \mu m$ (mean \pm S.D., n = 24) further along the cortex than any of the other factors discussed so far (table 3). GFP-AgRho1b localization in slow hyphae was different from localizations of all the factors described so far. It was not restricted to a small area in the hyphal tip but occupied a big part of

the hyphal cortex. At fast hyphal elongation rates, GFP-AgRho1b intensity was maximal at the cortex below the hyphal tip in all cases forming a "corset" around the tip region (n = 24) while such a localization pattern was only observed in 7 % of slow growing hyphae (n = 15, figure 13B).

Discussion

Growth-speed dependent localization of polarity factors into distinct zones in the *A. gossypii* hyphal tip.

A. gossypii hyphal tips are constantly polarized and, when maximally growing, produce enormous amounts of new surface in a very narrow zone of growth that is restricted to the hyphal tip. We found that factors involved in polar growth are organized into different zones in the tip of fast growing hyphae (figure 14). Such a differentiation of discrete polarity factor zones is not seen in slow hyphae. This demonstrates that localization of polarity factors changes with growth speed! The hyphal tip is a very dynamic environment, vesicles constantly fuse with the membrane leading to enlargement of the hyphal surface. Consequently, an imaginary probe that is attached to the cortex of the very tip of a fast growing hypha at time point zero is located already more than 1.5 µm behind the tip one minute later. Yet we observe zones of defined sizes where polarity factors are enriched. Therefore, the factors are either organized into a scaffold that is kept at its position or, alternatively, the zones we observe result from steady states between enrichment and dispersal of polarity factors. Importantly, the mechanism of localization may differ between the factors. Furthermore, proteins can be enriched at sites of activity but also at sites where they are stored. Keeping these points in mind, we will discuss here the polarity factors assayed during this study following a hierarchical pattern from cell polarity over polarization of the actin cytoskeleton to polarized secretion and cell wall synthesis.

The AgCdc42 module and the PAK family kinase AgCla4 localize together to the central apical cortex.

In hyphae that display an apical body, AgCdc24 localized together with AgBem1 and AgCla4 to a region we termed the central apical cortex, which covers the first 1.3 µm of the tip (figure 14). GFP-AgCdc42 was also present at the central apical cortex though covering a larger region than AgCdc24,

AgBem1 and AgCla4. However, GFP-AgCdc42 was not proven to be fully functional and thus the GFP localization eventually does not faithfully reflect the localization pattern of untagged AgCdc42. The small GTPase AgCdc42 was identified as a key regulator of cell polarity (Wendland and Philippsen, 2001). Also, deletion of *AgBEM1* is lethal though the terminal phenotype is heterogeneous: about 35 % of the $Agbem1\Delta$ cells lacked cell polarity completely and displayed a phenotype similar to Agcdc42Δ, another 35 % of the spores were able to form a first, misshaped germ tube while the rest of the germlings either formed potato-shaped cells or small, aberrant mycelia with swollen hyphae after 17 h (Daniele Cavichioli, unpublished data). In budding yeast it was found that GTP-bound ScCdc42, ScBem1 and ScCdc24 act in a positive feedback loop that ensures polarization of the cell even in the absence of cortical landmarks (Bose et al., 2001; Butty et al., 2002; Irazoqui et al., 2003; Wedlich-Soldner et al., 2004. The localization of AgCdc24 and AgBem1 to the same region of the hyphal tip together with the observation that $Agbem1\Delta$ has a severe polarity defect suggests that a positive feedback loop between AgCdc42, AgCdc24, and AgBem1 might be conserved that guarantees maintenance of cell polarity. The central apical cortex is likely to represent the site where the GDP to GTP exchange of AgCdc42 happens due to the presence of its only GEF AgCdc24. To test whether AgCdc42 activity is restricted to this region, we analyzed the localization of AgGic1/2 Δ C-YFP. Interestingly, AgGIC1/2 Δ C-YFP covered a slightly bigger area than AgCdc24, AgBem1, and AgCla4. It is thus possible that an unknown mechanism shuts off AgCdc42 activation and AgBem1, AgCdc24 and AgCla4 diffuse away while GTP-bound AgCdc42 stays at the cortex until the AgCdc42 bound GTP is hydrolyzed. Findings from yeast imply that the protein kinase AgCla4 might negatively regulate AgCdc42 by shutting of the positive feedback loop since some reports from budding yeast attribute to ScCla4 a role in negative regulation of ScCdc42 by mediating phosphorylation of ScCdc24, which triggers its dissociation from ScBem1 after bud emergence (Gulli et al., 2000; Bose et al., 2001). Other targets of ScCla4 are the septins ScCdc3 (Wu et al., 1997; Versele and Thorner, 2004). If AgCla4 would indeed negatively regulate AgCdc42 activity in A. gossypii, one would expect an overactivation of AgCdc42 in an Agcla4Δ strain. Therefore, deletion of AgCLA4 and overactivation of AgCdc42 either by abolishment of AgCdc42 GTPase activity or by

deletion of GAPs should share some phenotypes. However, both an $Agcdc42^{Q61H}$ strain that carries a GTPase deficient AgCDC42 allele (figure 15A) and a deletion of the putative AgCdc42 GAP AgBem2 resulted in swollen, misshaped hyphae indicating polarity defects (Wendland and Philippsen, 2000) while hyphal morphogenesis was close to normal in $Agcla4\Delta$ (Ayad-Durieux et al., 2000). Therefore, rather than directly interfering with cell polarity, AgCla4 might coordinate cell polarity with downstream events as for example septin assembly since septation was severely reduced in an $Agcla4\Delta$ strain (Ayad-Durieux et al., 2000).

The polarity maintenance factor AgBoi1/2 occupies the entire apical cortex.

The cortical localization of AgBoi1/2 extended with 2.4 µm further along the hyphal cortex than those of AgCdc42 associated factors. We defined this zone as the entire apical cortex. AgBoi1/2 is important for prevention of non-polar growth in A. gossypii since an $Agboi1/2\Delta$ strain displayed spherical enlargement at hyphal tips with concomitant

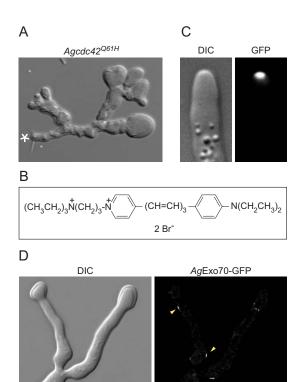


Figure 15 (A) Spores from a heterokaryonic $Agcdc42^{Q6IH}$ strain were inoculated for 24 h in AFM at 30 °C. The star denotes the position of the spore. (B) Chemical structure of the lipophilic styryl dye FM 4-64. (C) AgMyo2-GFP localizes in a spherical shape in the tip of A. gossypii hyphae (Hans-Peter Helfer, unpublished result). (D) AgEXO70-GFP was incubated with 200 μM latrunculin A. for 60 minutes. Scale bar = 5 μm.

depolarization of the actin cytoskeleton (Knechtle et al., 2006).

An area of reduced fluorescence was observed at the most apical part of fast growing hyphae in strains expressing fluorescently tagged AgBoi1/2 or AgCdc42-associated factors. We do not have evidence that the polarity factors described so far are localized to the plasma membrane through the secretory pathway since they were not observed in the apical body, which mainly consists of vesicles. Therefore, they may localize from the cytoplasm to the cortex of the hyphal tip by an unknown mechanism. Indeed, it was shown in yeast that ScCdc42, ScCdc24, ScBem1, and the CRIB-domain containing probe based on ScGic1 are highly dynamic and show very quick exchange between the plasma membrane and the cytoplasm with half times between one and seven seconds (Wedlich-Soldner et al., 2004; Ozbudak et al., 2005). As quick as polarity factor recruitment might be, a small zone were the vesicles just fused with the plasma membrane might show a reduced density of polarity factors. This region would be visible as a zone of reduced fluorescence similar as observed it in fast growing hyphae. In slow hyphae, presumably fewer vesicles fuse with the hyphal tip and localization of polarity factors is fast enough to occupy the newly formed cortical surface.

The apical body of A. gossypii.

The polarity factors described so far were associated with different parts of the hyphal cortex. Nevertheless, proteins involved in regulation of the actin cytoskeleton or polarized exocytosis were found to localize to a vesicle based, dynamic structure in fast growing hyphae called the Spitzenkörper or apical body. The apical body was described more than 50 year ago for *Polystictus versicolor* and is present in most filamentous fungi examined so far (Girbardt, 1957; Grove and Bracker, 1970; Lopez-Franco, 1996).

Transmission electron microscopy of *A. gossypii* hyphae revealed that two main vesicle populations that differ in size are accumulated in the hyphal tip, which is in agreement with findings from other filamentous fungi. The smaller vesicles, which measured between 20 and 40 nm in *A. gossypii*, were previously named microvesicles, the bigger vesicle population with diameters between 70 and 100 nm were characterized as apical vesicles or macrovesicles (Harris et al., 2005; Steinberg, 2007). At least a part of these vesicles most likely are secretory vesicles for two reasons. (i) Cell wall construction, which was shown to be

maximal in hyphal tips (Bartnicki-Garcia and Lippman, 1969; Gooday, 1971), requires large amounts of cell wall proteins and enzymes that are synthesized, processed and often glycosylated in the endoplasmatic reticulum and the Golgi apparatus. (ii) A GFP-fusion to AgSec4, a Rab-GTPase whose yeast ortholog is found on post-Golgi vesicles, accumulates in the apical body. Evidence for the presence of a second vesicle type besides secretory vesicles comes from the finding that FM 4-64 accumulates in the apical body. Due to its positively charged head group (figure 15B, FM 4-64 does not cross the membrane and can only be taken up into the cell via endocytosis. The observation that FM 4-64 fluorescence can be detected in the apical body before it is observed on extended intracellular membrane structures argues for a very quick resorting of endocytosed membranes back to the tip. For this reason, a certain part of the vesicles observed in the apical body may originate from recycling events (Fischer-Parton et al., 2000). It is tempting to speculate that the two types of vesicles that are distinguished by size represent vesicles of different origin.

An excellent study recently identified the myosin light chain CaMlc1 as a component of the apical body in Candida albicans hyphae. Intriguingly, the same protein works at the cortex if C. albicans grows in the yeast form. These findings let the authors conclude that the apical body is a hypha-specific structure (Crampin et al., 2005). Our findings show that an apical body is not mandatory for hyphal morphogenesis per se but rather is required for an efficient organization of transport and secretion since we did not observe apical bodies or polarity factors localizing in an apical body-like shape in hyphae that grew slower than 0.83 µm/min. Importantly, this observation allows an alternative interpretation of findings that identified factors involved in apical body formation by mutagenesis. It is possible that mutations lead to a reduction of the maximal hyphal growth speed. Consequently, these mutations would impair formation of apical bodies indirectly by limiting hyphal extension rates rather than by disturbing apical body formation.

The polarisome components AgSpa2 and AgPea2 and the formin AgBni1 localize to the apical body while a third polarisome component, AgBud6, is restricted to the cortex in fast growing hyphal tips.

In yeast, ScSpa2, ScPea2, and ScBud6 were copurified in a 12S protein complex called the

polarisome (Sheu et al., 1998). It was found that all polarisome components interact with the formin ScBni1 that nucleates actin filaments and serves as a processive capping protein for actin cables. In A. gossypii, the deletion strains $Agspa2\Delta$, $Agpea2\Delta$, and $Agbud6\Delta$ all showed a similar reduction of radial growth speed while deletion of the formin $Agbnil\Delta$ is lethal. These findings support the idea that AgSpa2, AgPea2, and AgBud6 work together. In slow hyphae, all the polarisome components and AgBni1 localized to the apical cortex. Strikingly, AgBni1, AgSpa2, and AgPea2 localization expanded to the apical body in fast hyphae while AgBud6 stayed in association with the hyphal cortex. This observation questions the idea of the polarisome being a tight protein complex. Alternatively, it is possible that AgSpa2, AgPea2, and AgBud6 interact together and are active at the cortex while the differing localization patterns might reflect different modes of transport. Localization of AgSpa2, AgPea2, and AgBni1 to the apical body could arise by transport of these factors on vesicles to the hyphal tip. To our knowledge, no association between secretory vesicles and a formin or a Pea2 homolog is known. However, in yeast, ScSpa2 interacts with the type V myosin ScMyo2 and cosediments with secretory vesicles in a subcellular fractionation assay while ScPea2 did not sediment during the same experiment (Shih et al., 2005). The hypothesis that AgSpa2 localizes to the apical body in A. gossypii via vesicular, AgMyo2mediated transport is supported by the finding that an AgMyo2-GFP fusion shows an apical body-like, spheroid distribution in the hyphal tip (figure 15C, Hans-Peter Helfer, unpublished data). Importantly, AgBni1 was not uniformly distributed in the apical body. It was enriched in a central region of this structure and at the hyphal cortex. We were unable to detect actin cables with phalloidin-coupled dyes in the hyphal tip thus we do not know whether actin cables emanate from the cortical or the apical-body based pool of AgBni1. However, AgBni1 is likely to nucleate actin cables at its cortical localization for two reasons. First, AgCdc42, which interacts with AgBni1 (Schmitz et al., 2006), is active at the cortex. Small Rho-GTPases in their GTP-bound form stimulate actin assembly by disrupting an inhibitory, intramolecular interaction of formins (Alberts, 2001), a mechanism that is likely to be conserved in A. gossypii and yeast. Second, cortical AgBud6 might stimulate AgBni1-mediated actin assembly since the S. cerevisiae Bud6 binds to the carboxy-terminus of ScBni1and stimulates ScBni1 activity in vitro (Moseley et al., 2004). AgCdc42

and AgBud6 are unlikely to activate AgBni1 in the central region of the apical body since they are only enriched at the cortex. However, AgSpa2 might interact with AgBni1 in the apical body because both proteins display a similar localization pattern with an enrichment in the centre of the apical body and because the Spa2-binding domain, which was identified in budding yeast Bni1, is conserved in AgBni1 (Fujiwara et al., 1998; Schmitz et al., 2006). Nevertheless, activation of formins by Spa2 was not reported so far.

In yeast, the translation elongation factor EF1alpha was shown to interact with the proline-rich FH1-domain of ScBni1 and to possess actin bundling capacity (Demma et al., 1990; Yang et al., 1990; Umikawa et al., 1998). EF1alpha, which is encoded by ScTEF1 and ScTEF2, is associated with ribosomes during translation. Intriguingly, ribosomes are clustered in a central region in the apical body as can be seen on electron micrographs of the A. gossypii hyphal tip (see appendix, figure 5). It is currently not known whether the ribosomes and AgBni1 colocalize in the apical body but it is tempting to speculate that translation in the apical body is linked to the actin cytoskeleton via AgBni1.

The localization of formins to the apical body is seen in other filamentous fungi as well. The formins SepA from *A. nidulans* and *Ca*Bni1 from *C. albicans* were found at this location (Sharpless and Harris, 2002; Crampin et al., 2005). Interestingly, the concept of a polarized, vesicle-based structure that is involved in actin organization seems to be conserved even beyond fungi. Fragile stonewort (*Chara globularis*), a green algae, forms tubular, gravity-sensing cells called rhizoids. Actin microfilaments emanate from a vesicle-based structure in the rhizoid tip that strongly resembles the apical body from filamentous fungi (Braun et al., 2004).

Interestingly, AgBud6 was the only polarity factor described in this study that localized to the apical cortex evenly, also in fast growing hyphae. Contratry to AgBoi1/2 and AgCdc42-associated factors, it did not exclude a zone at the very tip like. This observation suggests a different mechanism for AgBud6 localization than for the other factors. It is possible that the speed of AgBud6 localization from the cytoplasm to the cortex is very high thus AgBud6 occupies newly formed plasma membrane virtually immediately. Alternatively, AgBud6 forms a fixed, polarized protein scaffold that is kept at the tip during hyphal growth.

The exocyst localizes to the apical body in fast elongating hyphae.

The exocyst is an octameric complex that is conserved from yeast to mammals (Hazuka et al., 1997). It mediates polarized secretion in yeast but its exact mechanism of action is unknown. Presumably, it is assembled by the master regulator of post-Golgi trafficking, ScSec4, and activated by interaction with Rho type GTPases such as ScCdc42, ScRho1 or ScRho3. All exocyst components, which are soluble cytoplasmatic proteins, are associated with secretory vesicles - with the exception of ScSec3 (Guo et al., 1999; Boyd et al., 2004). It is thus believed that ScSec3 serves as a cortical landmark that localizes to the site of exocytosis independently of the actin cytoskeleton, probably by recruitment through ScCdc42, which interacts with ScSec3. A partially assembled exocyst lacking ScSec3 is thus thought to arrive on vesicles. Formation of the exocyst would be completed at the plasma membrane (Finger et al., 1998; Boyd et al., 2004). A new report challenges this view. Roumanie et al., 2005) found that ScSec3 localization depends on actin-based transport and that interaction of the exocyst with ScCdc42 (and ScRho3) functions in allosterically activating the exocyst but not in recruitment of these proteins. In A. gossypii, deletions of seven exocyst components analyzed so far were lethal. Interestingly, AgExo70 and AgSec3 localize to the apical body, which suggests localization of these exocyst components to vesicles that are abundant at this site. This observation is in disagreement with AgSec3 being solely a cortical landmark and rather argues for the possibility that the entire exocyst complex can be assembled on vesicles in A. gossypii. One could imagine a recycling mechanism of exocyst proteins at the hyphal tip: the vesicles fuse with the plasma membrane and the exocyst components disassemble and diffuse away. The components then are re-recruited by AgSec4 on vesicles in the apical body thus preparing these vesicles for fusion with the plasma membrane.

Nevertheless, a non-actin based mechanism of exocyst localization is likely to exist. *A. gossypii* hyphae treated with latrunculin A displayed *Ag*Exo70-GFP enrichment at distinct sites on the cortex where *Ag*Exo70-GFP was not observed prior to destruction of the actin cytoskeleton (figure 15D). Therefore, recruitment of *Ag*Exo70-GFP to distinct sites can happen in the absence of filamentous actin. Whether these sites represent sites of polarity establishment is currently unknown.

AgRho1b localization and cell wall synthesis.

ScRho1 has a dual function in regulation of the actin cytoskeleton and cell wall integrity signalling in yeast. ScRho1 can be activated upon cell wall stress: Transmembrane cell wall sensors as ScWsc2 or ScMid2 recruit and activate the GEFs ScRom1 and ScRom2, which localize in a polarized manner (Ozaki et al., 1996; Manning et al., 1997; Philip and Levin, 2001). They activated ScRho1, which can regulate cell wall synthesis indirectly, via ScPkc1 mediated signaling, or directly, by associating with the glucan synthase ScFks1. Two homologs of ScRho1 were identified in A. gossypii and named AgRHO1a and AgRHO1b. During evolution, only AgRho1b maintained the function in control of the cell wall and can complement for loss of ScRho1 in yeast (see part III, figure 3). Deletion of AgRHO1b is lethal, few $Agrho1b\Delta$ spores are able to establish tiny mycelia that display extensive lysis (Wendland and Philippsen, 2001). Localization of a GFP-AgRho1b fusion overlapped with aniline-blue stained cell wall material that presumably represents newly synthesized $\beta(1,3)$ -

glucan (part III, figure 2). It is thus likely that cell wall synthesis takes place at sites where GFP-AgRho1b is enriched in the zone defined as the extended apical cortex. We observed a "corset"like GFP-AgRho1b localization in fast growing hyphae instead of the tip-based cortical distribution seen for slow hyphae. This might indicate that cell wall synthesis is evenly distributed over the tip surface in slower hyphae while in fast hyphae, it is maximal behind the tip where hyphae reached their final diameter. The mechanism of growthspeed dependent localization of AgRho1b could be as follows: A transmembrane cell wall sensor is transported through vesicular traffic to the hyphal tip where it comes into contact with the cell wall. It immediately starts signalling and recruits potential GEFs, such as AgRom1, that activate AgRho1b. This process may take a constant amount of time. In slow growing hyphae, this time interval might be short enough to enable localization of AgRho1b to the hyphal tip. However, if hyphae grow fast, they might synthesize a considerable surface area during the time that elapses between signalling and GFP-AgRho1b activation and thus AgRho1b

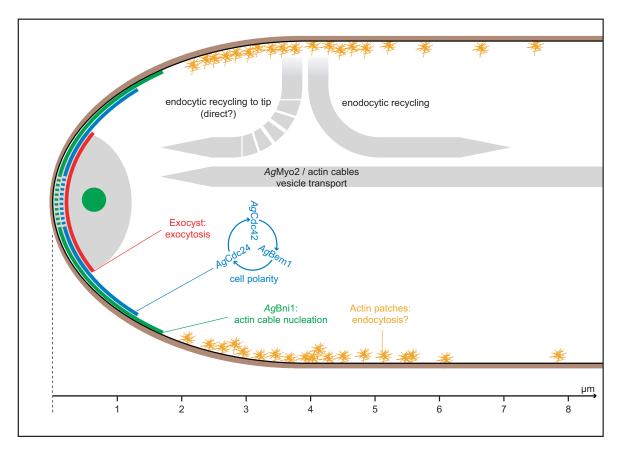


Fig. 16: Model of a fast-growing hyphal tip. The scheme shows a cross-section through a fast growing hyphal tip. For explanations see text.

enrichment happens behind the tip leading to the "corset" like distribution.

Model of a fast-growing hypha

A model of fast hyphal growth can be postulated based on the data presented in this study (figure 16). The AgCdc42 module (figure 16, blue) is located at the central apical cortex regulating cell polarity where it activates the formin AgBni1 (figure 16, green) at the cortex. The formin nucleates actin cables that serve as tracks for myosin-dependent transport of secretory vesicles. An additional pool of AgBnil in the apical body might be important for organization of the latter or for generation of sufficient actin cables to supply fast hyphal growth. Vesicles that are accumulated in the apical body (figure 16, light grey) fuse with the plasma membrane at the very tip where AgExo70 is enriched (figure 16, red). Endocytosis is thought to take place mainly in a region behind the tip where actin patches (figure 16, orange) are very dense. A fraction of the endocytosed material is transported back to the tip. This is supported by the observations that FM 4-64 quickly accumulates in the apical body and that about 15 % of the actin patches display anterograde movement (Philippe Laissue, unpublished results). This cycle of polarized secretion and endocytosis may function in localization of polarity factors. It is possible that polarity factors are endocytosed and transported back to the tips. Indeed, it was shown that polarized secretion coupled with endocytosis is sufficient to generate a polarized localization pattern (Valdez-Taubas and Pelham, 2003) thus an exocytosis/endocytosis cycle may be involved in generation of the observed polarity factor localization patterns.

Materials and methods

DNA manipulations, plasmids and oligonucleotides

All DNA manipulations were performed according to Sambrook, 2001. The *E. coli* strain DH5alphaF' (Hanahan, 1983) was used as host for plasmid propagation. PCR was performed using Taq DNA polymerase, the Expand High Fidelity PCR system or the Expand Long Template PCR system following the manufacturer's instructions (Roche, Germany). Oligonucleotides were synthesized by MWG (Germany) or Microsynth (Switzerland).

Oligonucleotides that were longer than 30 bases were PAGE purified. DNA sequencing was performed in-house on an ABI377 automated sequencer using the BigDye Terminator Sequencing Kit or by Microsynth (Switzerland). All restriction enzymes came from New England BioLabs or Roche, restriction reactions were performed according to the enzyme's manufacturer. DNA was ligated using T4 DNA ligase (New England BioLabs, USA); DNA fragments that contained an origin of replication and that were not wished religate were treated with alkaline phosphatase (Roche). Homologous recombination performed in the yeast strain DHD5 (Arvanitidis and Heinisch, 1994) using the protocol of Gietz et al., 1995. Plasmids were isolated from yeast as described in Schmitz et al., 2006 using the "High Pure Plasmid Purification Kit" (Roche, Germany). Oligonucleotides and plasmids used in this study are listed table in 5 and table 6, construction of plasmids that gave rise to A. gossypii strains is further explained under "A. gossypii strain construction".

A. gossypii growth conditions

A. gossypii was cultivated in AFM (Ashbya full medium) that contained 10 g/l yeast extract (Formedium, United Kingdom), 10 g/l peptone (Formedium, United Kingdom), 20 g/l glucose and 1 g/l myo-inositol (Merck). 5x concentrated AFM was filtered sterile and diluted prior to use with sterile, deionized water or with an autoclaved, 50 °C warm agar solution, final agar concentration was 15 g/l. G418 (Calbiochem) or ClonNat (Werner BioAgents, Germany) was added to a final concentration of 200 µg/ml and 50 µg/ml respectively from 50 mg/ml stock solutions. For auxotrophic selection using the LEU2 marker, AMM-Leucine (Ashbya minimal medium without leucine) was used. AMM-Leucine contains 1.7 g/l YNB without amino acids and without (NH₂)₂SO₂ (Becton, Dickinson and Co., USA), 0.69 g/l CSM-Leucine (Bio101 Systems, USA), 2 g/l Glycine, 1 g/l myo-inositol, 0.01 g/l adenine HCl and 20 g/l glucose. A two fold solution was prepared, the [pH] was adapted to 6.3 with 5 M KOH and the medium was filtered sterile and stored in the dark at room temperature. Standard incubation temperature was 30 °C. Spores were either prepared from liquid cultures in AMM supplied with 0.2 g/l leucine if necessary or from mycelium that was stripped from AFM plates 5-8 days after inoculation. The mycelium/spore mixture was washed once with sterile $\rm H_2O$, then the mycelium was digested with either 2 mg/ml zymolyase (Seikagaku, 20T) or 3 mg/ml lysing enzyme from *Trichoderma harzianum* (Sigma) at 37 °C for 2 h under soft shaking. The spores were centrifuged at 2000 x g, the supernatant was removed and the spores were washed three times with 2 ml 0.03 % Triton X-100. Spores were stored at -70 °C in a 33 % glycerol solution and thawed prior to use at 4 °C. Mycelium was stored in a 40% glycerol solution in AFM at -70 °C.

A. gossypii transformation

Agleu2Δthr4Δ (Altmann-Johl and Philippsen, 1996) was used as a parental strain for all transformations if not mentioned otherwise and is referred to as "reference strain" or "Ag" in figures. A. gossypii transformation was performed as described in Wendland et al., 2000. Plasmidic transformation of heterokaryonic mycelium was achieved with an identical protocol. To obtain a homogenous culture of the desired heterokaryonic strain, 0.2 g of mycelium were stripped from an AFM plate and suspended in 0.5 ml AFM with a mortar. One volume of this suspension was inoculated with 1000 volumes of AFM containing the proper antibiotics for 12 h at 30 °C.

A. gossypii strain construction

The strains used in this study are listed in table 7, details to strain constructions are given below.

Gene deletions

Genes were deleted using the PCR-based, one-step gene targeting approach with heterologous markers described by Baudin et al., 1993; Wach et al., 1994; Wendland et al., 2000. The oligonucleotides were designed to have 40 to 50 bases of homology to the upstream- and downstream region of the sequence to be replaced and 20 bp homology to the PCR template. The name of the respective oligonucleotides and PCR templates can be found in the A. gossypii strain table. Primary transformants were heterokaryonic meaning that the mycelia contained both nuclei where a marker gene replaced the target sequence and wild-type nuclei. More than 99.8 % of A. gossypii spores are uninucleated (Claudia Birrer, unpublished), thus clonal purification of the mutation is performed by separating spores on selective medium. The spores give rise to homokaryonic mycelia where the target sequence is replaced by a marker gene

in each nucleus. Both hetero- and homokaryonic strains were verified by analytical PCR. It is possible to observe phenotypes of lethal, recessive mutations since spores carrying such mutations are readily obtained from heterokaryonic strains, development of these spores can be followed on selective medium.

GFP-fusion strains

GFP-fusion constructs were integrated at the site of the wilt-type gene in the A. gossypii genome under the control of the native promoter if not mentioned otherwise. Radial growth speeds of the constructed strains, the parental strain and of strains that carried deletions of the respective genes were compared to assess functionality of the GFP-fusion constructs. The growth speed measurements are mentioned only if differences between the parental strains and the GFP-fusion construct could be detected. The parts of the plasmids that were originally created in a PCR reaction were verified by sequencing prior to transforming them into A. gossypii. Genomic integration of the constructs was verified by analytical PCR. Furthermore, the homokaryonic fusion strains could be cultivated for more than one week on non-selective medium without loosing the GFP-signal and the GFP-signal was present in every hypha at comparable intensities. In plasmidic transformants, the GFP-signal is lost when the strain is grown on non-selective medium and GFP- intensity can vary greatly between different hyphae; hyphae without any GFP are frequently observed.

GFP-AgBNI1 (K46 and K47)

Amino-terminal fusions to AgBni1 constructed because a strain with a carboxyterminal AgBni1-GFP fusion (Schmitz et al., 2006) showed a reduced radial growth speed and was incapable to form apical bodies. In a first step, a cassette for amino-terminal GFP-tagging via PCRbased gene targeting was constructed since no such construct was available at the time. The plasmid pG3i was created by cloning the GEN3 cassette cut with PstI into pUC19 to create plasmid that was identical to pAGT140 (pG3) with an inverted GEN3 marker. After removal of the PacI restriction site, pG3i was digested with XbaI and religated with a SpeI cut GFP-containing 0.744 kbp fragment that was amplified from pAGT141 (pG3 GFP) with the primers 05.216 and 05.217 giving rise to pG3-NT-GFP. The AgBN11 promoter was amplified from pAMK1 with the primers 05.220 and 05.221. The resulting 0.604 kbp product was digested with PacI and ligated into PacI-cut pG3-NT-GFP resulting in pK16. This plasmid was then used as a template to create a 3.223 kbp long amino-terminal GFP-fusion cassette using the primers 05.215 and 05.222. This cassette was cotransformed into yeast together with pAMK1, the resulting pK15 encoded an amino-terminal GFP-AgBni1-fusion under the control of the AgBni1 promoter. pK15 was digested with KpnI, the 3.864 kbp fragment was subcloned into KpnI cut pUC19. The resulting pK46 was propagated, about 15 µg DNA were cut with KpnI and transformed into A. gossypii resulting in the strain K46 that expresses GFP-AgBNI1 under the native AgBNI1 promoter. A GFP-AgBNI1 fusion whose expression was driven by the S. cerevisiae HIS3 promoter was constructed to increase signal strength. The ScHIS3 promoter (0.220 kbp) was amplified from pAGrPXC (Helfer and Gladfelter, 2006) with the primers 06.039 and 06.040 and cloned into pG3-NT-GFP cut with PacI giving rise to pK50. The 1.992 kbp fragment of StyI digested pK50 was ligated into Styl cut pK46 resulting in pK47. The plasmid pK47 was digested with KpnI and transformed into A. gossypii. Western blot analysis showed that the ScHIS3 driven expression of GFP-AgBNI1 resulted in roughly five to ten times increased proteins levels compared to expression driven from the native promoter (figure 5B). The presented results were obtained with K47, the localization patterns and speed dependences observed for K46 were similar though, in slower hyphae, the GFP-AgBni1 signal was often so weak that no explicit localization pattern could be assigned. K47 showed increased radial growth speed compared to the carboxyterminal AgBNI1-GFP fusion strain, however K46 still displayed a decrease in radial growth speed compared to the parental strain (figure 5A).

GFP-AgBUD6 (K52)

GFP was fused amino-terminally to *AgBud6* because the 5' end of the predicted *AgBUD6* open reading frame overlapped with the open reading frame of *AFR494W*. The amino-terminal 2.851 kbp fusion cassette was amplified from pK50 with the primers 06.041 and 06.042 and recombined with pAG16044 (Dietrich et al., 2004) that contains *AgBUD6* by cotransformation into yeast. pK51 that contained a GFP-*AgBUD6* fusion was isolated and digested with *Xho*I. The 5.563 kbp fragment was cloned into *Xho*I cut pBluescript giving rise to pK52. About 15 μg of pK52 were cut with *Xho*I and used to transform *A. gossypii* resulting in *K52*.

AgPEA2-CFP and AgPEA2-YFP (K25 and K26)

CFP and YFP fusion cassettes were obtained with the primer pair 05.206/05.207 using pAGT142 (pG3 CFP, 2.570 kbp) and pAGT143 (pG3 YFP, 2.447 kbp) as templates. The cassettes were cotransformed together with pAG18591 that contains AgPEA2. The resulting pK21 (AgPEA2-CFP) and pK23 (AgPEA2-YFP) were isolated from yeast and digested with SpeI. The 9.434 kbp fragment of pK21 and the 9.341 kbp fragment of pK23 were recircularized giving rise to pK25 and pK26. Both pK25 and pK26 were cut with SpeI and XhoI for A. gossypii transformation giving rise to K25 and K26. AgPea2-CFP was barley visible under the standard growth conditions used during this study; all results shown were obtained with AgPea2-YFP. Nevertheless, the localization patterns of AgPea2-CFP and AgPea2-YFP were identical in fast growing hyphae where both signals were easily detectable.

AgEXO70-GFP (K28)

AgEXO70 was amplified from genomic DNA with the primers 05.249 and 05.250. The 4.838 kbp fragment was digested with HinDIII and NheI, the resulting 4.684 kbp fragment that contained AgEXO70 was cloned into SpeI and NheI digested pRS415 giving rise to pK27. The primers 05.201 and 05.202 were used to create a 2.892 kbp GFP fusion cassette with pAGT141 (pG3 GFP) as a template. This cassette was cotransformed together with pK27 into yeast giving rise to pK28. After isolation from yeast, pK28 was cut with BsrBI for transformation of A. gossypii.

AgSEC3-YFP (K33)

AgSEC3 was amplified from genomic DNA with the primers 05.229 and 05.230. The 4.874 kbp product was digested with SpeI, the resulting 4.830 kbp fragment was inserted into SpeI cut pRS415 giving rise to pK22. A YFP-fusion cassette (2.420 kbp) obtained with the primers 05.268 and 05.198 using pAGT103 as a template was cotransformed with pK22 into yeast resulting in pK33. This plasmid was isolated from yeast, digested with NheI and SpeI and used for transformation of A. gossypii.

AgGIC1/2-YFP (K39)

Please see part II.

Agcdc42∆ GFP-CDC42 (pK49): a selection-based process for generation of functional GFP-fusions constructs.

Plasmids containing an ARS sequence from yeast can replicate in A. gossypii freely and are not integrated into the genome (Wright and Philippsen, 1991). A heterokaryonic Agcdc42∆ strain was transformed with pK49 containing GFP-AgCdc42 with different random linkers as described under "A. gossypii transformation". The pK49 construct is based on pHPS248 (Hans-Peter Schmitz, unpublished), which contains an N-terminal GFPfusion to the AgRHO1a open reading frame. First, the AgCDC42 open reading frame and terminator were amplified by PCR (Primers: 04.162/04.163, template pCDC42), the 0.755 kbp was cloned into pHPS248 with EcoRI and SpeI replacing AgRHO1a resulting in pK5. The AgCDC42 promoter was amplified with the primers 05.097 and 05.098 from pCDC42, the 0.508 kbp product was cloned into pK5 with HinDIII and BamHI giving rise to pK10. A GEN3-containing cassette was amplified from pCDC42kanr (Schmitz et al., 2006) with the oligonucleotides 05.099 and 05.100, the 1.900 kbp product was cloned behind the GFP-AgCDC42 with SpeI giving rise to pK12. A system based on the yeast strain DLY3067 (Moskow et al., 2000) was used to assess the functionality of different GFP-AgCdc42 fusions. In this strain, ScCDC42 is expressed under the control of the ScGAL1 promoter. The plasmid pCDC42K containing AgCDC42 was able to complement DLY3067 on YPD while GFP-AgCDC42 expressed from pK12 was not. In order to obtain functional GFP-AgCdc42 fusions, EcoRI cut, dephosphorylated pK12 was cotransformed with a library of random linkers, the transformation was spread on YPD to select for functional GFP-AgCDC42 fusions. The random linker library consisted of a linker sequence that coded for nine different random amino acids, flanked by sequences that were homologous to GFP and AgCDC42 (fig. 8A). The nine random amino acids could either be leucine, proline, histidine, arginine, glycine, aspartate, alanine or valine. The linker library was obtained by annealing the two oligonucleotides 05.301 and 05.302 followed by a PCR-based fill-in reaction (denaturation at 95 °C for 5 min, addition of Expand High Fidelity PCR system polymerase mix at 55 °C, second denaturation step at 93 °C for 60s followed by repeated annealing and amplification rounds at 55 °C and 68 °C, temperatures were chosen in way that the double-stranded fragments where the fill-in reaction already has taken place were

not denatured any more). Transformants were repicked on YPD+G418 after three days. Plasmids were rescued from transformants that were able to grow at 37 °C and that showed a GFP-AgCdc42 localization to the bud or the bud neck. The plasmids were sequenced, the GEN3 marker was cut out with SpeI and the plasmids were religated to give rise to pK49RL04, pK49RL06 and pK49RL07. An alternative process was used to select for GFP-AgCdc42 fusions that work best for A. gossypii. DLY3067 strains that displayed GFP-AgCdc42 at but tips and bud necks were pooled; plasmids were rescued from the pooled culture. The GEN3 cassette was cut out of the rescued plasmids giving rise to pK49 versions that differed in the sequence of the random linker. A heterokaryonic Agcdc42::GEN3 strain was transformed with this plasmid collection and with the three pK49 plasmids rescued from yeast. The primary transformants were sporulated, spores were spread on AMM-Leucine containing G418 to select for spores with an AgCDC42 deletion. The resulting homokaryonic Agcdc42Δ strains were verified by analytical PCR, radial growth speed was estimated to select for fusion constructs that displayed maximal radial growth speeds. The random linker of the pK49 version with the fastest growth speed was coding for the peptide APPRRLVHP. No difference in GFP-AgCdc42 localization could be observed for the four different GFP-AgCdc42 strains. Two bands were visible on western blots probed with antiGFP, one with the characteristic size of GFP-AgCdc42, one with the size of GFP alone. The single GFP-band was estimated to be about half as intense than the GFP-AgCdc42 band. It is thus possible that about 1/3 of the GFP-AgCdc42 molecules are proteolytically cleaved and that a considerable amount of untagged AgCdc42 is present in the cells (figure 10C). K49RL13 and K49RL07 reached about 85 % respectively 75 % of the radial growth speed of an Agcdc42\Delta strain that was complemented with pCDC42 on solid AFM at 30 °C (figure 10B).

Protein extraction and western blotting

A. gossypii was grown in liquid AFM for 15-18 h at 30 °C and collected by vacuum filtration. The wet weight of the harvested mycelium was between 80 and 300 mg. Protein extraction was performed as described by Helfer and Gladfelter, 2006, protein concentrations of the lysates were between 10 and $20 \mu g/\mu l$. 30 to 150 μg proteins were separated by SDS-PAGE, the percentage of the poly-acrylamid

gel was between 5 and 10 % depending on the predicted molecular weight of the proteins to be observed. The gel was run at 4 °C and the proteins were transferred to nitrocellulose membranes (Amersham Biosciences) using standard conditions (Sambrook, 2001). The nitrocellulose membrane was blocked 3 times for 40 min with 60 ml 5 % MPBST (5 % non-fat milk powder (COOP, Switzerland), PBS according to Sambrook, 2001, 0.1 % Tween-20). The membrane was probed with monoclonal mouse anti-GFP (Roche, 10 ml of a 1: 1000 dilution in 2.5 % MPBST) at 4 °C over night, washed four times ten minutes with 60 ml 5 % MPBST and two times ten minutes with PBST (PBS with 0.1 % Tween-20) at room temperature and was reprobed with HRP-conjugated goat antimouse antibodies (Jackson Immunoresearch, 10 ml of a 1:5000 dilution in 2.5% MPBST) at roomtemperature for two hours. Washing was repeated as above. ECL chemiluminescence (Amersham Biosciences) was used to develop the western blot according to the manufacturer's instructions; the chemiluminescence was detected with Kodak BioMax XAR films (Kodak).

Light microscopy, sample preparation and image processing.

The microscope set-up is described in Knechtle et al., 2003, the camera was a CoolSNAP HQ camera (Photometrics, USA), a 75 W XPO short arc lamp (Osram, Germany) or a Polychrome V monochromator (Till Photonics, Germany) was used as an illumination source. Mycelium from the borders of 2-3 days old, adult A. gossypii colonies were inoculated on "time-lapse slides", glass slides with a cavity (Roth, Switzerland) that was filled with half concentrated AFM solidified with 1 % agarose. Strains harboring a plasmid (GFP-AgRHO1b, GFP-AgSEC4) were cultivated on ASC-Leucine (1.7 g/l YNB without amino acids and ammonium sulfate, 1.8 g/l SC-Leucine (Bio101 Systems, USA), 7g/l glutamic acid monopotassium salt monohydrate, 7 g/l aspartic acid potassium salt hemihydrate, 1 g/l myo-inositol, 20 g/l glucose) which allowed fast hyphal extension also under microscopy conditions (Andreas Kaufmann, personal communication). An air-bubble was included in the center of the time-lapse slide, fast growing hyphae were often observed in areas close to the bubble, either due to reduced pressure from the cover-slide in this region or due to increased oxygenation. FM 4-64 was kept in a 16 μM aqueous stock solution at -80 °C. It was diluted with AFM to an FM 4-64 concentration of 11 μM and was applied directly to the sample prior to microscopy. FM 4-64 stained Spitzenkörper were observed after about 10 minutes of incubation with FM 4-64, image acquisition was stopped after 1 hour. DIC images were processed using the "Scale-image" and the "Unsharp Mask" feature from MetaMorph 6.2r6 (Molecular Devices Corp. USA). Z-stacks with a distance between 0.3 and 0.8 µm were acquired and processed either with the "Remove Haze" function, with the "No Neighbours" or the "Nearest Neighbour" tool of MetaMorph. Fluorescent images shown are maximum projections or sum projections of two to four central planes of a processed Z-stack. Overlay images were performed with the "Overlay Images" function of MetaMorph. Stacks that were submitted to blind deconvolution with AutoDeblur 7 (MediaCybernetics, USA) contained at least 32 image planes with a z-distance of maximally 0.3 µm. The presented images retrieved from the deconvoluted image stacks are maximum projections of 2 to 5 central planes.

Phase contrast microscopy was performed at the Arizona State University, Tempe AZ, USA in laboratory of Robert Roberson. *A. gossypii* was grown microscopy slides that were coated with AFM containing 19 % gelatin (gelatin powder, "baker analyzed", J. T. Baker, USA). Microscopy was performed on a Axioskop microscope (Carl Zeiss, USA). Images were captured with a Roper Cool SNAP ES digital camera (Roper Scientific, USA).

Actin cytoskeleton staining

The actin cytoskeleton was stained as described in Knechtle et al., 2003. To ensure fast hyphal extension speeds, spores were plated on an AFM agar plate and incubated for 20 hours at 30 °C. The cells were fixed by pouring 5 ml fixative (4 % formaldehyde in PBS) directly on the plates. The mycelia were detached gently from the agar surface with a glass rod after 10 minutes of fixation, centrifuged down and postfixed for 30 minutes in fresh fixative. After the staining procedure, mycelia could be stored for several days at 4 °C in the dark without apparent loss of staining quality; the mycelia were suspended in PBS for microscopy.

Measurements and statistics

All measurements were performed on unprocessed images on the plane of the Z-stack that was the closest to the hyphal center. The measurements were evaluated with Microsoft Excel. Growth

speed was measured by acquisition of a DIC image followed by a time interval of 150 seconds and a DIC Z-stack. The first DIC image and the best plane of the DIC image stack were overlayed and the (X/Y) coordinates of the hyphal tip for t = 0 and t = 150 s were transferred to Microsoft Excel. Distances d were calculated as $((X_{t=150}-X_{t=0})^2 + (Y_{t=150}-Y_{t=0})^2)^{1/2}$. Growth speeds are given in µm/min and were obtained by dividing d by Δt. Similar strategies were used to measure hyphal diameters and dimensions of GFP-signals. The standard deviations (S.D.) were calculated with Microsoft Excel, standard errors (S.E.) are given as the S.D. divided by the square root of the number of measurements. Depending on the context, the mean \pm the S. D. or the S. E. are given. The S.D. is used to give an impression of the range of normally distributed data; the S.E. is the estimated standard deviation of the error in the process of measuring.

Transmission electron microscopy

Electron microscopy was performed at the Arizona State University, Tempe AZ, USA in the laboratory of Robert Roberson. Sample preparation was performed according to McDaniel and Roberson, 2000. Mycelium was taken from the border of a 2-3 days old A. gossypii colony and inoculated on 4x4 mm big pieces of thin dialysis membrane on AFM agar plates over night at room temperature. Radial growth speed on the dialysis membrane was between 1.3 and 1.6 µm/min. The dialysis membranes with the small A. gossypii colonies were plunged into a liquid propane-ethene mixture with a temperature of approximately -185 °C. The frozen samples were transferred into substitution solution (1 % glutaraldehyde and 1 % tannic acid (w/v) in HPLC grade anhydrous acetone) that was kept on dry ice. After an inoculation of 72 hours, the samples were rinsed three times in acetone on dry ice before placing them into a 1 % OsO, solution in acetone. The specimens were incubated one hour on dry ice, then they were allowed to warm up by placing them for two hours at -20 C° followed by a two hours incubation at 4 °C and a 30 to 60 minutes incubation at room temperature until the OsO4 solution turned dark brown. The OsO4 was washed out with acetone and the samples were embedded in Spurr's resin (Spurr 1969) by stepwise increasing of the Spurr's resin concentration. Samples were flat-embedded and the Spurr's resin was polymerized at 60 °C. Selected hyphae were sectioned and post-stained for ten minutes in 2 % uranyl-acetate in 50 % ethanol and for five minutes in Reynolds' lead citrate (Reynolds, 1963), sections were examined using a Philips CM12S TEM (Philips Electronic Instruments CO). Chemical fixation was performed directly on AFM plates. Mycelia were inoculated like for cryo-fixation. Four hours prior to fixation, the plates were shifted to 30 °C to accelerate hyphal growth. Fixative (2 % glutaraldehyde in 0.05 M sodium phosphate buffer [pH 6.8]) was poured directly on the plates. After 60 minutes of fixation, samples were washed tree times in cold 0.05 M sodium phosphate buffer [pH 7] and soaked in cold 0.5 % uranyl acetate over night. The mycelia were washed tree times with water and dehydrated in ethanol. The ethanol was exchanged by acetone and the samples were embedded and processed for microscopy as described above.

Table 5: Oligonucleotides

	Name	Sequence*	Use*
-	AgCDC24-F1	GTTAAAGGAGAGCAAAGAACGGATACTAAACGTTTGGGCATTTGTT	rec
-	AgCDC24-F2	ggtgcaggcgctggagctg CGTACAGTCGCTCCTACATAGTCTGCACATTTGTTAATACCTCT agggacctggcacggagc	rec
-	AgPEA2-S1	GTAGTTCATGTATCAGAGCGATGGAGGACGATACAGTGCTTACGG gctagggataacaggggtaat	gt
-	AgPEA2-S2	GGGAGTTCCTTAGACCACAATTGCGCCATATAGTTACCAATGCGG aggeatgeaagettagatet	gt
01.060	AgBNI1-I1	CAGATCGGGCCTGTGTTACC	aPCR
01.084	V2*NAT1	GTGGTGAAGGACCCATCCAG	aPCR
02.036	AgCDC42	CGTTGTCGTACCCGTCGACGGACG	aPCR
02.103	V3PDC1T	GACCAGACAAGAAGTTGCCGACAGTCTGTTGAATTGGCCTG	aPCR
03.496	AgCDC42-S1	GGCAGGAGAAACTAGAGTGCAAAGCAGGCAGCTGCACACAGGAAGTAGCA gctagggataacaggggtaat	gt
3.497	AgCDC42-S2	CATGAATCATTGACCTATGTGTCTTTAGTACTTAAGTATCCAAAAGCCA aggcatgcaagcttagatct	gt
3.498	AgCDC42-G4	GCCACGTGATCGCACTATTG	aPCR
3.517	AgCDC42-I1	TGTTCGACACTGCCGGGCAG	aPCF
04.011	green2.2	TGTAGTTCCCGTCATCTTTG	aPCF
4.017	G2.3	GGAGGTAGTTTGCTGATTGG	aPCF
4.018	G3.3	ATGTTGGACGAGTCGGAATC	aPCF
5.028	SEQ-GCYFO	CAAGAGTGCCATGCCCGAAG	aPCF
5.082	AgBEM1-F1	CGGGGTAATCCAGGAGAAGCAGAAGATCATGGTTCTCGATGTCCAA ggtgcaggcgctggagctg	rec
5.083	AgBEM1-F2	TCTTATGTACGACACAAGCAATGGTATACCACCTTGCATGGGCGAT agggacetggcacggage	rec
5.097	AgCDC42prom-5'	AGTaagettetgeagCCGCTGTATACTACATAGCC	pl, aPCI
5.098	AgCDC42prom-3'	actggatccCATTGCTACTTCCTGTGTGC	pl
5.099	AgCDC42term-5'	tgactagtTAACAGGTAATACAGATATC	pl
5.100	AgCDC42term3'	tgactagtctgcagCCCATCCAACCGTATATACG	pl
5.160	AgSEC4-I1	GAACATCCGCCAGTGGTTC	aPCF
)5.198	AgSEC3-F2	GGCAGAATTAAAAGGCAGAACCCTGATTTGTAGAATACTAGAGACATT accatgattacgccaagcttgc	rec
05.201	AgEXO70-F1	AAGTATACACCGAATGAGTTAATGAACATTTTGAATTCCTTAGGGAGA aaaacgacggccagtgaattcg	rec
)5.202	AgEXO70-F2	ATCACCATTGTAATATAGCGAGCGCTTTATTAAAGCAATAATCCTGAT accatgattacgccaagcttgc	rec
)5.206	AgPEA2-F1	GAGCGGGAATTACGGAAAAAGCTCGAGTCGCAGTTAGCGAAAAAGTTG aaaacgacggccagtgaattcg	rec
05.207	AgPEA2-F2	AAAACACTCGGTGTTAATCTGCCTGGGAGTTCCTTAGACCACAATTGC accatgattacgccaagcttge	rec
05.208	AgPEA2-I1	GCGATATGTTCCCGAAGTCC	aPCF
05.215	AgBNI1-NTF	GCCCCGCGTGCTGTTTTTGGAGTGTTTGTTCGAGTGCGTGGACTTCTT ggatcctctagtgtttaaacc	rec
)5.216	GFP-Nterm	AGactagttaattaatgAGTAAAGGAGAAGAACTTTTCAC	pl
)5.217	GFP-Cterm!	AGactagtgtttaaaccTTTGTATAGTTCATCCATGC	pl
5.220	AgBNI1prom-5'	GCttaattaaCTAATACCTCGTGGCCATAG	pl
5.221	AgBNI1prom-3'	TCttaattaaATGTGCCCAGCCGCCGACG	pl
)5.222	Ag-BNI1-NF2	TCTACGCACCGTTGCCGCCACGTCGCTCGCGCGCAGCCGCCCACCAC accatgattacgccaagcttgc	rec
)5.229	AgSEC3-SpeI	taactAGTTGGCTGCGGTCGGTGTC	pl
05.230	AgSEC3-5'	GTAACGCAGTTGGTGGTGTG	pl, aPCR
05.246	AgPEA2-G4	TGGCAAATGGGACCACTTTC	aPCR
05.247	AgEXO70-G1.2	TCCAAACTTAGAGCCCGAAGTC	aPCR

05.248	AgEXO70-G4.2	CCGACCCAATTCTCAGTCAAG	aPCR
05.249	AgEXO70-us	GCGCGAAACCTCTTGAGGAACC	pl
05.250	AgEXO70-ds	AGTTATGAGGAGGCGCTAGAGG	pl
05.267	AgSEC3-G1.2	AGAAGATGAGCTGGCCCATGCG	aPCR
05.268	AgSEC3-F1.2	CTAAAAACGATATAATTAGTGCATTCGAGGGCCATAAAAATTGG aaaacgacggccagtgaattcgag	rec
05.301	RandomLinker	GGGATTACACATGGCATGGATGAACTATACAAAGAATTC snysnysnysnysnysnysnysnysnysnysnysnysnys	rec
05.302	RL-complement	CAGCTCCGTCCCCAACGACCACGCACTTCAATGTCTGCAT	rec
05.349	G2.3	GGAGGTAGTTTGCTGATTGG	aPCR
06.006	AgPEA2-G1	AGTCGCCCAGAAAGATGAAG	aPCR
06.041	AgBUD6-NTF	AAGAAGTCCGCGACGTTCTTTGAGAGACGGGAACTGACAT ggatcctctagtgtttaaacc	rec
06.042	AgBUD6-NF2	ATATAAAAACCAGAGGGTTGCTCTTTTGGATTTGCAAGCTTA accatgattacgccaagcttge	rec
06.043	AgBUD6-G4	GCGTGCCGTCCTTGATATAGTG	aPCR
06.044	AgBUD6-G1	TTCTGTCGAACCGCACTAGC	aPCR
06.045	AgBUD6-I1	ACGATGATCTCCCGGATGTG	aPCR
06.097	V2_NAT1	GTGTCGTCAAGAGTGGTACC	aPCR
06.098	V3_NAT1	ACATGAGCATGCCCTGCCCC	aPCR
06.122	AgBNI1-G1	GCCGCTGGTTCCATACTGTC	aPCR
06.139	AgBUD6-S1	CGCGTGATATAAAAACCAGAGGGTTGCTCTTTTGGATTTGCAAGCTTAA atgggtaccactcttgacgac	gt
06.140	AgBUD6-F2	ATTGCTTGAACCCTGCTTTCATGGTCTGGGTTTAAGTTCTGGACTTCCA atgcttccggctcgtatgttg	gt
06.262	AgBUD6-G4.3	GCGCGTTCGATTGCTTGAACC	aPCR
06.263	AgBUD6-I2	TACATGGAGCAGTCGCATTCG	aPCR

^{*} Bold lower case characters indicate the template-binding sequences of gene targeting- and recombination primers. All other lower case characters indicate nucleotides that are not homologous to the PCR template.
*** aPCR = analytical PCR, gt = gene targeting, pl = plasmid construction, rec = recombination
*** s = g or c; n = g, a, b or b o

Table 6: Plasmids

Name	Backbone	Insert	Source
pBluescript	-	-	Short et al. 1988
pRS415	-	-	Sikorski and Hieter 1989
pRS416	-	-	Sikorski and Hieter 1989
pUC19	_	-	Vieira and Messing 1991
pYCPlac111	_	-	Bartel et al. 1993
pAG16044	pRS416	AgBUD6	Dietrich et al, 2004
pAG18591	pRS416	AgPEA2	Dietrich et al, 2004
pAGT103	pUC19	YFP-NAT1 cassette	Kaufmann A., unpublished
pAGT140	pUC19	GEN3 cassette	Kaufmann A., unpublished
pAGT141	pUC19	GFP-GEN3 cassette	Kaufmann A., unpublished
pAGT142	pUC19	CFP-GEN3 cassette	Kaufmann A., unpublished
pAGT143	pUC19	YFP-GEN3 cassette	Kaufmann A., unpublished
pAMK1	pRS415	AgBNI1 with promoter and terminator	Schmitz et al. 2005
pCDC42	pRS415	AgCDC42 with promoter and terminator	Schmitz et al. 2005
pCDC42K	pRS415	AgCDC42 with GEN3 cassette behind ORF	This study
pCDC42kanr	pRS415	pCDC42(Q61H) GEN3 behind AgCDC42 ORF	Schmitz et al.2005
pG3i	pUC19	pAGT140 with inverted GEN3 cassette	This study
pG3-NT-GFP	pUC19	promoterless GEN-GFP cassette	This study
pGUG	pUC19	GFP-GEN3 cassette	Knechtle et al. 2003

pHPS235	pYCPlac111	GFP-AgSEC4	Schmitz et al. 2005
pHPS248	pYCPlac111	P_{RHO1a} -GFP- $AgRHO1a$	Schmitz HP., unpublished
pHPS250	pYCPlac111	$P_{AgRHOIb}$ -GFP- $AgRho1b$	Schmitz HP., unpublished
pK10	pYCPlac111	$P_{AgCDC42}$ -GFP- $AgCDC42$	This study
pK15	pRS415	$GEN3-P_{AgBNII}-GFP-AgBNII$	This study
pK16	pUC19	$GEN3-P_{AgBNII}-GFP$ cassette	This study
pK21	pRS416	AgPEA2-CFP-GEN3	This study
pK22	pRS415	AgSEC3 with promoter and terminator	This study
pK23	pRS416	AgPEA2-YFP-GEN3	This study
pK25	pRS416	AgPEA2-CFP-GEN3	This study
pK26	pRS416	AgPEA2-YFP-GEN3	This study
pK27	pRS415	AgEXO70 with promoter and terminator	This study
pK28	pRS415	AgEXO70-GFP-GEN3	This study
pK33	pRS415	AgSEC3-YFP-NAT1	This study
pK46	pUC19	GEN3-P _{AgBNII} -GFP-AgBNII (nucleotides 1-1277)	This study
pK47	pUC19	GEN3-P _{ScHIS3} -GFP-AgBNI1 (nucleotides 1-1277)	This study
pK49	pYCPlac111	GFP-RL-AgCDC42 (RL = random linker)	This study
pK49RL04	pYCPlac111	GFP-RL-AgCDC42 (RL codes for DHPRHHGPP)	This study
pK49RL06	pYCPlac111	GFP-RL-AgCDC42 (RL codes for PRPALPRVA)	This study
pK49RL07	pYCPlac111	GFP-RL-AgCDC42 (RL codes for PRPVRRVAP)	This study
pK49RL13	pYCPlac111	GFP-RL-AgCDC42 (RL codes for APPRRLVHP)	This study
pK5	pYCPlac111	P_{RHOIa} -GFP-AgCDC42	This study
pK50	pRS416	GEN3-P _{ScHIS3} -GFP cassette	This study
pK51	pRS416	GEN3-P _{ScHIS3} -GFP-AgBUD6	This study
pK52	pBluescript	GEN3-P _{ScHIS3} -GFP-AgBUD6	This study
pVG006	pBluescript	Agsec3Δ::GEN3	Galati V., unpublished

Table 7: A. gossypii strains

Strain	Genotype	Construction	Source
ATCC10895	wild type	-	Ashby and Nowell, 1926
$\Delta l \Delta t$	$Agleu2\Delta$ $Agthr4\Delta$	-	Altmann-Johl and Phlippsen (1996)
AgBem1-GFP	AgBEM1-GFP-GEN3 Agleu2∆ Agthr4∆	pGUG PCR 05.082/05.083	Cavicchiol D., unpublished
AgBni1-GFP	AgBNI1-GFP-GEN3 Agleu2∆ Agthr4∆	-	Schmitz et al. 2005
AgBoil-GFP	AgBOI1-GFP-GEN3 Agleu 2Δ Agthr 4Δ	-	Knechtle 2006
AgCdc24-GFP	AgCDC24- GFP - $GEN3Agleu2\Delta Agthr4\Delta$	pGUG PCR AgCDC24-F1/AgCDC24-F2	Boudier K., unpublished
AgCla4-GFP	AgCLA4- GFP - $GEN3Agleu2\Delta Agthr4\Delta$	-	Ayad-Durieux 2000
AgPXL1-GFP	AgPXL1-GFP		
AgSpa2-GFP	AgSPA2-GFP-GEN3 Agleu2∆ Agthr4∆	-	Knechtle 2003
GFP-AgRho1b	GFP- $AgRho1b$ (pHPS250) $Agleu2\Delta$ $Agthr4\Delta$	pHPS250	Schmitz HP., unpublished
GFP-AgSec4	GFP- $AgSEC4$ (pHPS235) $Agleu2\Delta$ $Agthr4\Delta$	-	Schmitz et al. 2005
K25	AgPEA2- CFP - $GEN3Agleu2\Delta Agthr4\Delta$	pK25; SpeI, XmnI	This study
K26	AgPEA2-YFP-GEN3 Agleu2 Δ Agthr4 Δ	pK26; SpeI, XmnI	This study

K28	AgEXO70-GFP-GEN3 Agleu2Δ Agthr4Δ	pK28; BsrBI	This study
K33	AgSEC3-YFP-NAT1 Agleu2Δ Agthr4Δ	pK33; NheI, SpeI	This study
K39	AgGIC1/2(aa1-173)-YFP-GEN3 Agleu2Δ Agthr4Δ	pK39; AatII, SacII	This study, chapter III
K46	GEN3-P _{AgBNII} -GFP-AgBNII Agleu2Δ Agthr4Δ	pK46; <i>Kpn</i> I	This study
K47	$GEN3-P_{ScHIS3}-GFP-AgBNI1$ $Agleu2\Delta$ $Agthr4\Delta$	pK47; StyI	This study
K49-RL07	GFP-RL07- $AgCDC42$ (pK49RL07) $Agcdc42\Delta$ $Agleu2\Delta$ $Agthr4\Delta$	pK49RL07	This study
K49-RL13	GFP-RL13-AgCDC42 (pK49RL13) Agcdc42Δ Agleu2Δ Agthr4Δ	pK49RL13	This study
K52	GEN3-P _{ScHIS3} -GFP-AgBUD6 Agleu2Δ Agthr4Δ	pK52; XhoI	This study
Agbud6∆	Agbud6Δ::NAT1 Agleu2Δ Agthr4Δ	pAGT140, PCR 06.139/06.140	This study
Agcdc42∆	Agcdc42Δ::GEN3 Agleu2Δ Agthr4Δ	pGEN3, PCR 03.496/03.497	This study
Agexo70∆	Agexo70Δ::GEN3 Agleu2Δ Agthr4Δ	pGEN3, PCR 05.341/05.342	Galati V., unpublished
Agpea2Δ	Agpea2Δ::GEN3 Agleu2Δ Agthr4Δ	pGEN3 PCR AgPEA2-S1/AgPEA2-S2	Brachat S., unpublished
Agsec3∆	Agsec3Δ::GEN3 Agleu2Δ Agthr4Δ	pVG006; MunI, StuI	Galati V., unpublished

Part II

AgGic1/2 is important for cell polarity establishment but not for maintenance of fast hyphal growth in Ashbya gossypii.

Establishment of a fungal mycelium depends on constant hyphal elongation and formation of new hyphae, which arise by branching. Emergence of a lateral branch requires establishment of a novel axis of cell polarity at the hyphal cortex, an event which might a priori not involve an identical set of polarity factors needed for sustained polar growth. Therefore, I looked for Ashbya gossypii candidate genes the deletion of which could generate mycelia with severely reduced or even absent lateral branching while tip expansion was unchanged. I found that loss of AgGic1/2 resulted in such a phenotype. AgGic1/2 also plays a role in the first polarity establishment during germination since spores lacking AgGic1/2 display delayed germ tube emergence. The data reported in this PhD-thesis clearly indicate that AgGic1/2 is important for cell polarity establishment but dispensable for polarity maintenance in A. gossypii. In Saccharomyces cerevisiae the homologous proteins ScGic1 and ScGic2 act as effectors of the key polarity factor ScCdc42. This molecular function is probably conserved in A. gossypii since AgGic 1/2 interacts with AgCdc42 in a two-hybrid assay. Degradation of AgGic 1/2 is likely to be mediated by its carboxy-terminal PEST domains, which are not predicted in the homologous yeast proteins ScGic1 and ScGic2. AgGic1/2 may have a regulatory function in branch initiation based on the finding that an AgGIC1/2 allele lacking the part that encodes the PEST domains induces an increase in branching if expressed from a strong promoter. It is possible that controlled degradation of AgGic1/2 constitutes a simple mechanism that is involved in regulating emergence of new lateral branches.

Introduction

The formation of a fungal mycelium depends on two essential mechanisms: polarity establishment to generate hyphae, either during spore germination or at the cortex of growing hyphae for initiation of lateral branches, and sustained polar growth that leads to elongation of hyphal tips. A plethora of factors was identified that are involved in hyphal tip extension in the filamentous fungi Ashbya gossypii, Neurospora crassa, Aspergillus nidulans, Ustilago maydis and many other species (for a review see Steinberg, 2007). Factors influencing the frequency of lateral branches are known from hyperbranching mutants and are frequently observed. Contrary, mutants with reduced branching, which indicates reduced polarity establishment, are very rare (Watters and Griffiths, 2001). A well-described example is a temperature-sensitive mutation of the nimX gene of A. nidulans that encodes a cyclindependent kinases (Lin and Momany, 2004). Also, deletions of AgSPA2 and AgBEM4 in A. gossypii led to reduced lateral branching (Knechtle et al., 2003; Winkler, 2007). Strains carrying these mutations do not reach wild-type hyphal growth speeds. Therefore, these factors are important for polarity establishment as indicated by the reduced lateral branching and for hyphal elongation as well. To our knowledge no mutation was described so far that reduces lateral branching while leaving hyphal tip extension unchanged.

We found in this work that disruption of AgGIC1/2 in A. gossypii does not alter hyphal elongation but, under certain conditions, almost entirely abolishes emergence of lateral branches. The Saccharomyces cerevisiae genes GIC1 and GIC2 (GTPase interactive component) are syntenic homologs of AgGIC1/2. They emerged from a single ancestor gene during the whole-genome duplication that took place in the S. cerevisiae lineage (Dietrich et al., 2004). They both encode proteins that contain a CRIB (Cdcc interactive binding) domain and interact specifically with GTP-bound ScCdc42. While single deletions of either ScGIC gene has no effect, double deletion leads to a temperature-sensitive phenotype. At 37 °C, cells are spherical and display delocalized chitin depositions and a depolarized actin cytoskeleton. Spindle mispositioning, multiple spindles, and multinucleated cells were observed at elevated temperatures. The mitotic defects are likely to be a consequence of the severely disturbed cellular morphology since they are mostly observed in cells with aberrant shapes (Brown et al., 1997; Chen et al., 1997). Consistent with their role in morphogenesis, both ScGic1 and ScGic2 localize to sites of bud emergence. ScGic1 forms a cap in small-budded cells and localizes to the bud neck in medium and large budded cells. ScGic2 behaves differently, it localizes to the entire cortex of tiny buds as well as to the neck. The portion of ScGic2

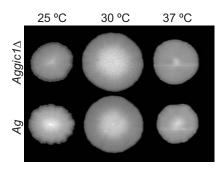


Fig. 1: Deletion of AgGIC1/2 does not influence radial growth speed. Samples from the borders of $Aggic1/2\Delta$ and reference strain (Ag) mycelia were inoculated in the centers of AFM agar plates and incubated for 6 days at the indicated temperatures.

that is associated with the bud cortex disappears as the bud grows. (Brown et al., 1997; Chen et al., 1997; Iwase et al., 2006). Different studies found that the two Gic proteins link activated ScCdc42 to downstream events like actin cytoskeleton control or septin recruitment (Jaquenoud and Peter, 2000; Iwase et al., 2006). It was reported that ScGic2 localizes polarisome components to sites of cell polarity. The CRIB domain as well as the tryptophan 23 of ScGic2 are necessary for interactions with ScBud6 and ScPea2, and localization of ScBud6 and ScBni1 largely depends on the presence of at least one GIC homolog (Jaquenoud and Peter, 2000). Furthermore, both, ScGic1 and ScGic2, interact

with the septin ScCdc12 and are essential for septin recruitment at elevated temperatures in haploid cells (Iwase et al., 2006). ScGic2 but not ScGic1 protein levels depend on the cell cycle stage (Brown et al., 1997; Jaquenoud et al., 1998; Hofken and Schiebel, 2004). Upon interaction with ScCdc42, ScGic2 is phosphorylated at its carboxy-terminus, ubiquitinated and degraded in the proteasome. The yeast Skp1-culling-F-box complex in association with ScGrr1 (SCFGrr1) acts as an ubiquitin ligase in this process with the F-box protein ScGrr1 mediating substrate specificity. Consistently, truncation of the carboxy-terminus or the CRIB domain of ScGic2 leads to protein stabilization. However, the significance of ScGic2 degradation is not clear. Overexpression of a stabilized ScGic2 variant led to multiple buds on one cell thus ScGic2 degradation may ensure that only one bud per cell cycle is formed (Jaquenoud et al., 1998).

In this study, we show that lack of the AgCdc42 effector AgGic1/2 results in delayed germ tube outgrowth and strongly reduced lateral branching in A. gossypii while hyphal extension is not altered. This finding suggests that AgGic1/2 is important for polarity establishment but dispensable for sustained polar growth and maximal hyphal extension. AgGic1/2 is probably degraded in A. gossypii since truncation of the carboxy-terminal domains that

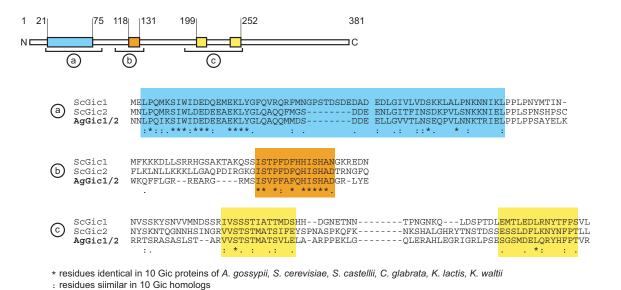


Fig. 2: Sequence analysis of AgGic1/2. The protein sequences of 10 GIC homologs of A. gossypii, S. cerevisiae, Saccharomyces castelli, Candida glabrata, Kluyveromyces lactis, Kluyveromyces waltii, and Saccharomyces kluyveri (http://wolfe.gen.tcd.ie/ygob/) were aligned using ClustalW. Only parts of the A. gossypii and corresponding S. cerevisiae sequences are shown that contain conserved amino acids (*) or amino acids that are similar for the ten Gic proteins (:). A conserved region shown in light blue was detected at the amino-terminus stretching the amino acids 21-75 of AgGic1/2. A second, shorter conserved sequence, which confers to the CRIB domain of ScGic1 and ScGic2, reaches from amino acid 118 to 131 of AgGic1/2 (orange box). Two short, conserved regions in the carboxy-terminal half of AgGic1/2 are highlighted in yellow.

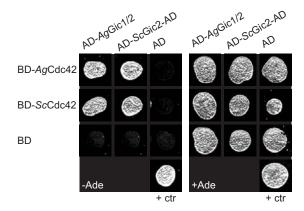


Fig. 3: AgGic1/2 interacts with AgCdc42 in a two-hybrid assay. ScCdc42^{Q61L} and AgCdc42^{Q61H} were fused to the DNA binding domain of GAL4 (BD), AgGic1/2 and ScGic2 to the activator domain of GAL4 (AD). 5 μ l liquid culture (OD₆₀₀ = 1) of the yeast strain $PJ69-4a/\alpha$ harboring different combinations of binding- and activator domain fusions were spotted on minimal medium without adenine, which selects for interaction between bait and prey (left panel), or on plates with adenine as a growth control (right panel).

contain three PEST sequences led to an increase in AgGic1/2 protein levels. We suggest a key role for AgGic1/2 in regulation of lateral branching based on the finding that an AgGIC1/2 allele lacking the part that encodes the PEST domains induces an increase in branching if expressed from a non-endogenous promoter.

Results

Deletion of $Aggic1/2\Delta$ does not influence radial growth speed.

The open reading frame encoding the putative AgCdc42 effector AgGic1/2 was deleted in A. gossypii. The radial growth of the mycelia was unaffected (figure 1). This was surprising since deletions of putative polarity factors in A. gossypii so far resulted without exception in decreased hyphal elongation rates or even lethality (Ayad-Durieux et al., 2000; Wendland and Philippsen, 2001; Knechtle et al., 2003; Bauer et al., 2004; Knechtle et al., 2006; Schmitz et al., 2006). A double deletion of the two syntenic GIC homologs in yeast, ScGIC1 and ScGIC2, cannot grow at 37 °C (Brown et al., 1997; Chen et al., 1997). However, neither high nor low temperatures seemed to reduce the capacity of $Aggic 1/2\Delta$ for radial growth compared to the reference strain (figure 1).

Three conserved regions can be identified in the protein sequence of *GIC* homologs.

The Gic proteins from budding yeast were initially identified in the yeast genomic sequence due to the presence of a CRIB domain that is typical for Cdc42 effectors. Strangely, no CRIB domain was predicted for AgGic1/2 by InterProScan, a bioinformatics tool that integrates different protein signature recognition methods (Zdobnov and Apweiler, 2001) while CRIB domains were faithfully identified in ScGic1 and ScGic2 (data not shown). Ten syntenic GIC homologs were found in seven different yeast species (Dietrich et al., 2004; Byrne and Wolfe, 2006). Multiple alignment of the predicted protein

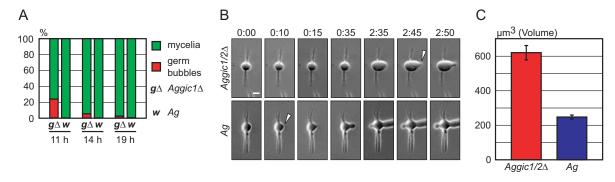


Fig. 4: Deletion of AgGICI/2 delays germ tube outgrowth. (A) Spores of $AggicI/2\Delta$ ($g\Delta$) and the reference strain (w) were spread on agar plates and inoculated for the given times at 30 °C. 150 spores that germinated were counted per time point and strain, the ratio between cells that still were in the germ-bubble phase (red) and cells that formed at least a germ tube (green) are shown. (B) Spores of $AggicI\Delta$ and the reference strain (Ag) were spread on AFM agar, covered with a glass slide and incubated at 25 °C. The first pictures were acquired 10 hours after spore inoculation. Pictures were acquired every 5 minutes, time is given in hours. The arrowheads depict the emerging germ tubes in both strains. Scale bar = 5 μ m. (C) The volume of $AggicI/2\Delta$ and reference strain spores (Ag) in the last frame prior to germ tube emergence was estimated. The bars represent the average volume, the bars the standard error (n = 9 and n = 10 respectively). The shape of the germ bubble was approximated as a prolate ellipsoid. The volume was calculated as $4/3\pi ab^2$ with a being the long and b the short axis of the ellipsoid.

sequences with ClustalW (Thompson et al., 1994) revealed the presence of three conserved regions. In figure 2, sequences of AgGic1/2 and S. cerevisiae Gic1 and Gic2 are shown that contain conserved amino acids (marked with asterisks). The aminoterminal conserved region, which we will call GCN (Gic conserved amino-terminus) during this study, comprises amino acid 21 to 75 in AgGic1/2 (figure 2a). Another conserved region from amino acid 118 to 131 corresponds to the CRIB domains of ScGic1 and ScGic2 (figure 2b, Brown et al., 1997; Chen et al., 1997). Therefore, AgGic1/2 might contain a CRIB domain despite the fact that protein sequence analysis tools did not predict one. The carboxy-terminal halves of the Gic proteins are more diverged showing only two short, conserved sequence segments between amino acids 199 and 252 of AgGic1/2 (figure 2c). This observation will be discussed later together with the phenotype of the carboxy-terminal deletion.

AgGic1/2 interacts with AgCdc42.

The fact that some amino acids that are characteristic for CRIB domains are conserved in AgGic1 does not necessarily imply that AgGic1/2 does bind to AgCdc42. In a two-hybrid assay it was tested whether AgGic1/2 physically interacts with AgCdc42 using the yeast proteins ScGic2 and ScCdc42 as positive controls. Both CDC42 genes carried a mutation that abolished GTP hydrolase activity of the encoded proteins thus locking them in the GTPbound state that binds to effectors. Furthermore, the four last amino acids were truncated to prevent geranylgeranylation and thus membrane localization. AgCdc42 interacted with both AgGic1/2 and with ScGic2. Similarly, ScCdc42 interacted with both Gic proteins (figure 3). This finding confirms that AgGic1/2 is an effector of the key polarity factor AgCdc42 suggesting that AgGIC1/2 is involved in cell polarity signaling pathways.

$Aggic 1/2\Delta$ displays a defect in polarity establishment.

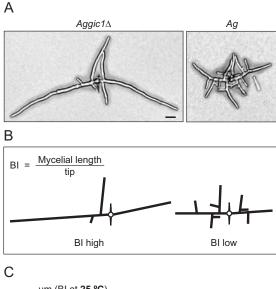
As we could not see an effect of $Aggic1/2\Delta$ on radial growth on AFM agar plates, we wondered whether $Aggic1/2\Delta$ has an effect on germination or development of young A. gossypii mycelia rather than affecting adult, fast growing mycelium. Germination of the needle-shaped A. gossypii spores is initiated by formation of a spherical germ bubble, two germ tubes sequentially emerge at opposite sites perpendicular to the spore needle. While the germ tubes continue to elongate, new sites of cell polarity are established resulting in the emergence

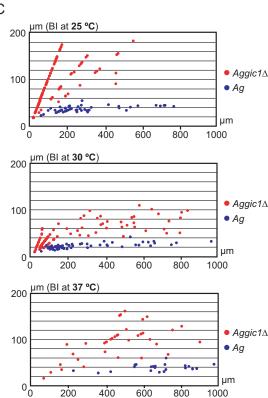
of lateral branches and thus formation of a mycelium (Knechtle et al., 2003; Wendland and Walther, 2005). $Aggic 1/2\Delta$ strains were compared to the reference strain by following the development of spores that had been spread on AFM agar plates. After eleven hours of incubation at 30 °C, all germinating spores from the reference strain have formed at least one germ tube (n = 150). In contrast, germ bubbles of the $Aggic1\Delta$ strain still lacked a germ tube in many cases. This effect was quantified by assessing more than 150 spores that germinated per time-point and per strain (figure 4A). The amount of cells that displayed at least one germ tube in the $Aggic 1/2\Delta$ strain increased over time (figure 4A) from 76 % after 11 hours to 98 % after 19 hours of incubation. Therefore, most cells did not die during the germ bubble stage. Rather, establishment of germ tubes seems delayed in $Aggic 1/2\Delta$. Time-lapse movies of germinating spores were acquired to find out whether isotropic growth that leads to germ bubble expansion or germ tube emergence was disturbed (figure 4 B). While germ tubes emerged from spores of the reference strain, germ bubbles of Aggic 1/2Δ continued isotropic growth. As a consequence, the volume of $Aggic 1/2\Delta$ germ bubbles just prior to germ tube emergence was $620 \pm 42 \mu m^3$ while germ bubbles of the reference strain had a volume of $248 \pm 11 \,\mu\text{m}^3$ (mean \pm S.E., n = 9 and n = 10respectively, figure 4C). This observation suggests that the isotropic growth phase in $Aggic 1/2\Delta$ is prolonged due to delayed germ tube emergence leading to larger germ bubbles. Evidently, outgrowth of a germ tube requires establishment of cell polarity at the corresponding site of the cortex. If polarity establishment was disturbed in $Aggic 1/2\Delta$ mutants, formation of lateral branches should be affected as well since lateral branch emergence requires the establishment of new sites of cell polarity at the cortex of existing hyphae. Indeed, young reference strain and Aggic1/2\Delta mycelia of the same age appeared differently, Aggic1/2\Delta established much less branches than the reference strain (figure 5A).

Table 1: PEST domains in AgGic1/2

aa of AgGic1/2	PEST score*	Sequence
259 – 270	6.57	REEPPAAFETPR
324 - 336	10.23	KETFTESQTPNER
347 - 362	7.66	HQGSETDSTLTGPSNR

^{*} PEST score ranges from -50 to +50, values > 5 are considered as good hits(https://emb1.bcc.univie.ac.at/toolbox/pestfind.htm)





We quantified this effect by assaying the branching index (BI; Trinci, 1970), which is defined as the total length of the mycelium divided by the number of hyphal tips. The branching index is a reciprocal value. If a mycelium displays few tips for a given total mycelial length, the branching index is high. If many tips are observed for the same total mycelial length, the branching index is low (figure 5B). Hyphal elongation increases the branching index while establishment of new branches leads to a decrease of this ratio. After germination, the branching index increases until it reaches a plateau

Fig. 5: Deletion of AgGICI/2 reduces lateral branching. (A) Mycelia that grew for 14 hours at 30 °C from an $AggicI\Delta$ and from a reference strain (Ag) spore. Scale bar = 20 μm. (B) The branching index is defined as total hyphal length divided by the number of tips. Two mycelia of equal total hyphal length are outlined. The mycelium on the left has fewer tips and thus a higher branching index than the mycelium on the right. (C) The branching index of $AggicI\Delta$ mycelia (red dots) and reference strain mycelia (Ag, blue dots) was determined at 25 °C, 30 °C and 37 °C (represented by three graphs). Total hyphal lengths and associated tip numbers were assayed for individual mycelia between 11 and 21 hours after spreading of the spores depending on the incubation temperature. The branching index (BI) was calculated and plotted against mycelial length. All numbers are given in μm.

where tip growth and lateral branch establishment counterbalance each other. The branching index is plotted as a function of total mycelial length in figure 5C, one dot represents one measurement of one mycelium. Obviously, the branching indices of an Aggic1/2 strain (figure 5C, red dots) were higher than the branching indices of the reference strain (figure 5C, blue dots) for a given mycelial length. The effect was most pronounced at 25 °C where virtually no lateral branches were observed for $Aggic 1/2\Delta$. Interestingly, the branching index of the reference strain depended on temperature and was higher at 25 °C than at 30 °C or 37 °C. To summarize, deletion of AgGIC1/2 interferes with polarity establishment leading to delayed outgrowth of germ tubes and reduced numbers of lateral branches. However, constant polar growth was not affected by the lack of AgGic1/2. These observations raise the question how an $Aggic 1/2\Delta$ strain can form a normal mycelium despite a defect in generation of new hyphal tips?

Tip splitting is not disturbed by deletion of AgGIC1/2.

A. gossypii not only generates new hyphal tips by polarity establishment along the hyphal cortex as described above but also by symmetrical splitting of growing tips forming Y-shaped bifurcations. This so-called tip splitting does not take place in young mycelia but is the main mode for generation of new tips in older mycelium, for example at the border of growing colonies (Knechtle et al., 2003; Philippsen et al., 2005; Schmitz et al., 2006). Surprisingly, tip splitting was observed in Aggic1/2Δ strains earlier than in the reference strain (movie S3, figure 6A). After incubation on AFM agar for 13 hours, 22.8 % of all Aggic1/2Δ mycelia have undergone tip splitting at least once while no tip splitting event was observed in mycelia of the reference strain (n > 250, data not shown). For the wild type, growth speed of hyphae that performed tip splitting

Strain	BI*	Length**	n
K38 (AgGIC1/2ΔC)	42.8 ± 2.0 μm	462 μm	40
K39 (AgGIC1/2ΔC-YFP)	42.5 ± 1.5 μm	419 μm	45
K40 (AgGIC1/2-YFP)	58.0 ± 4.2 μm	429 μm	38
reference strain	41.1 ± 2.2 μm	480 μm	27

 $90.0 \pm 12.4 \, \mu m$

Table 2: Branching index of K38, K39 and K40

 $Aggic1\Delta$

was above 1.4 µm/min (Schmitz et al., 2006). Thus it is either possible that an $Aggic 1/2\Delta$ strain reaches the elongation speeds that are associated with tip splitting earlier or, alternatively, aberrant tip splitting occurs in this strain at lower hyphal growth speeds. To distinguish these two options, we measured the growth speed of hyphae during a time interval of ten minutes prior to splitting in time-lapse movies. The speed of $Aggic 1/2\Delta$ hyphae prior to tip splitting was $1.80 \pm 0.06 \,\mu\text{m/min}$ (mean \pm S.E., n = 17 from 4 movies), which is very similar to the $1.85 \pm 0.04 \, \mu \text{m/min}$ (mean $\pm \text{ S.E.}$, n = 6 from 2 movies) measured for the reference strain as shown in figure 6B. Hence, tip splitting occurs at normal growth speeds in $Aggic 1/2\Delta$ but hyphal elongation rates that are characteristic for this event are reached much earlier during mycelial development.

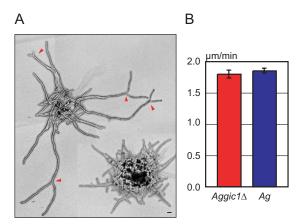


Fig. 6: Tip splitting in *Aggic1/2*Δ. (A) An *Aggic1/2*Δ (upper left) and a reference strain mycelium (lower right) 19 hours after spore inoculation at 30 °C. Tip splitting events were observed in most of the *Aggic1/2*Δ mycelia while they were rare in reference strain mycelia of that age. Tip splitting can be recognized by the characteristic Y-shaped bifurcation (arrowheads) and by the similar length of the two branches that originate from a tip splitting. (B) Comparison of hyphal growth speeds prior to tip branching. Time-lapse movies from four *Aggic1/2*Δ mycelia and two reference strain mycelia that grew from a single spore were analyzed. The bars represent the average growth speed in a ten minutes time period prior to tip branching for *Aggic1/2*Δ and the reference strain (*Ag*) respectively. Error bars represent the S.E.

Truncation of the carboxy-terminal PEST domains of AgGic1/2 leads to increased protein levels.

20

190 µm

As mentioned before, the amino-terminal halves of proteins encoded by GIC homologs are conserved while the carboxy-termini show more variation between species. We were able to identify three PEST domains in the AgGic1/2 carboxy-terminus (table 1) using the PESTfind bioinformatic tool (Rogers et al., 1986). PEST domains contain proline, aspartate or glutamate and serine or threonine and are not interrupted by positively charged amino acids. They are found in proteins that are polyubiquitinated and subsequently degraded by the 26S proteasome and were shown to mediate a decreased protein half-life period (reviewed by Rechsteiner and Rogers, 1996). Interestingly, the carboxy-terminus of ScGic2 was reported to mediate proteasomemediated degradation upon phosphorylation and subsequent ubiquitination (Jaquenoud et al., 1998) though the PESTfind software did not find a PEST domain for ScGic2 or ScGic1. In a first step, we deleted the region of AgGIC1/2 that encodes the three predicted PEST domains and the two small, conserved regions in the AgGic1/2 carboxy terminus. The resulting construct will be referred to as $AgGIC1/2\Delta C$ (figure 7A). Replacement of AgGIC1/2 with $AgGIC1/2\Delta C$ did not influence radial growth speed or morphogenesis (figure 7B and 7C). Furthermore, the branching index of mycelia expressing $AgGIC1/2\Delta C$ was identical to the reference strain, even at 25 °C where the Aggic 1/2Δ phenotype is most pronounced. The average branching indices are given in table 2 together with the average total length of the assessed mycelia. This finding shows that the carboxy-terminally truncated $AgGic 1/2\Delta C$ is functional. We further wanted to test whether deletion of the PEST domains influences protein abundance. YFP was fused to the carboxyterminus of both AgGic1/2 and $AgGic1/2\Delta C$. Both strains displayed wild-type radial growth (figure 8A). Branching was frequently observed at 25 °C

^{*} BI was measured on mycelia that grew at 25 °C for 17 h and for 21 h. Mean ± S.E.

^{**} Average length of the assessed mycelia

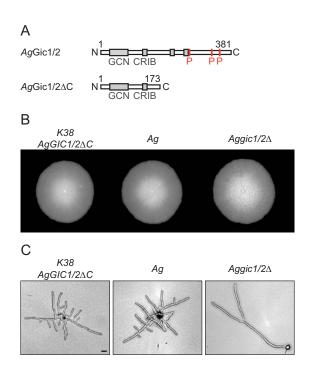


Fig. 7: The AgGic1/2 carboxy terminus contains three PEST domains and is not necessary for AgGic1/2 function. (A) Schematic representation of AgGic1/2 and $AgGic1/2\Delta C$ lacking the amino acids 174-381 of AgGic1/2. The grey boxes represent the conserved GCN, the CRIB domain and the conserved carboxy-terminal residues. The letter P indicates the location of PEST domains (see also table 1). (B) Radial growth after 6 days at 30 °C of K38 ($AgGIC1/2\Delta C$), the reference strain (Ag) and $Aggic1/2\Delta$. (C) Spores from K38, the reference strain (Ag) and $Aggic1/2\Delta$ were inoculated for 21 hours at 25 °C. The corresponding branching indices are shown in table 2.

for both AgGIC1/2-YFP and AgGIC1/2ΔC-YFP (figure 8B) thus both YFP fusions were functional. Nevertheless, a slightly elevated branching index was seen for AgGIC1/2-YFP (table 2) thus indicating that a carboxy-terminal YFP fusion to full length AgGic1/2 resulted in a mild polarity establishment defect. Protein levels were estimated by western blotting. The AgGic1/2-YFP band was weak while the band corresponding to AgGic1/2ΔC-YFP was intense thus truncation of the PEST domains led to elevated levels of AgGic1/2ΔC-YFP (figure 8C). This finding was confirmed microscopically, AgGic1/2-YFP was barely detectable while the AgGic1/2ΔC-YFP intensity was rather high (not shown). Since deletion of AgGIC1/2 displays fewer branches, one would expect AgGic1/2-YFP at sites of branch outgrowth. Time-lapse movies were acquired of AgGIC1/2\Delta C-YFP due to the weak AgGic1/2-YFP signal (movie S4). As shown in figure 8D, $AgGic1/2\Delta C$ -YFP accumulated at the cortex prior to outgrowth of a lateral branch as expected. Surprisingly, $AgGic1/2\Delta C$ -YFP was seen also at hyphal tips but not at sites of septation (figure 8E). The tip localization cannot be a consequence of the carboxy-terminal truncation of $AgGic1/2\Delta C$ -YFP since a YFP-fusion to the full length AgGic1/2 also localized to hyphal tips (figure 8E).

Expression of AgGIC1/2 alleles from the AgCDC42 promoter.

The deletion phenotype of $Aggic 1/2\Delta$ could be explained by two different mechanisms. First, AgGic1/2 may work as a simple adapter between AgCdc42 and effectors. In this case, overexpression of AgGic1/2 would have no effect on the branching index. However, AgGic1/2 may function in the decision making process whether a branch is established at a certain site or not. In this case, overexpression of AgGic1/2 might lead to an increase in lateral branching and thus to a decrease of the branching index. In order to elevate AgGic1/2 levels, the AgCDC42 promoter was inserted in front of GFP-AgGIC1/2 and GFP-AgGIC1/2ΔC (figure 9A). About nine times more AgCDC42 than AgGIC1/2 mRNA is present in nine hours old mycelia (Riccarda Rischatsch, unpublished results), thus the AgCDC42 promoter is likely to be stronger than the AgGIC1/2 promoter while minimizing the risk that overexpression of AgGIC1/2 leads to titration of AgCdc42 as it was observed for yeast where expression of a carboxy-terminally truncated ScGIC2 allele from the ScGAL1 promoter is lethal (Jaquenoud et al., 1998). Replacement of AgGIC1/2 with both GFP-AgGIC1/2 and GFP-AgGIC1/2ΔC under the control of the AgCDC42 promoter did not disturb radial expansion of the mycelium on AFM agar plates (figure 9B), both GFP-AgGic1/2 and GFP-AgGic1/2ΔC localized to hyphal tips (figure 9C). However, the GFP-intensities of both fusion proteins were similar to the fluorescence intensities of the corresponding carboxy-terminally tagged fusion constructs that are expressed from the native promoter (not shown). Western blot analysis of strains expressing GFP alleles confirmed the observation that expression of the amino-terminally tagged AgGIC1/2 alleles under the control of the AgCDC42 promoter did not result in an increase of protein levels (figure 9D). Interestingly, we observed a double-band for AgGic1/2-GFP and AgGic1/2ΔC-GFP (figure 9D, marked by asterisk) that could represent a phosphorylated state. Since protein levels of GFP-AgGic1/2 and GFP-AgGic1/2ΔC respectively were not drastically increased, we did not expect tremendous changes of the branching indices in these strains. Indeed, young mycelia of both GFP-AgGIC1/2

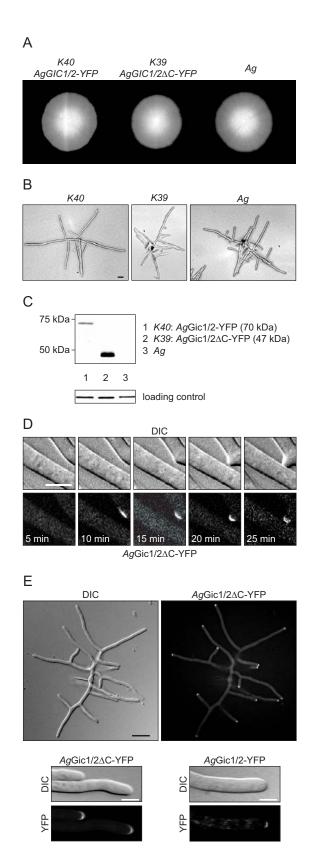


Fig. 8: YFP-fusions to AgGic1/2 and AgGic1/2∆C localize to hyphal tips. (A) Radial growth of K40 (AgGIC1/2-YFP), K39 (AgGIC1/2ΔC-YFP) is normal. Mycelium was inoculated for 6 days at 30 °C. (B) Spores from K40, K39 and the reference strain (Ag) were inoculated for 21 hours at 25 °C. The corresponding branching indices can be found in table K38-K40. (C) Western blot probed with antiGFP. 100 µg protein from K40, K39 and the reference strain (Ag) grown for 16 hours in liquid medium at 30 °C were separated and transferred to a nitrocellulose membrane. AgGic1/2-YFP has a predicted molecular weight of 70 kDa, $AgGic1/2\Delta C$ -YFP of 47 kDa. A 105 kDa band that crossreacts with antiGFP from Roche was used as a loading control. (D) Frames from a time-lapse movie (movie S4) showing establishment of a lateral branch in a strain expressing $AgGic1/2\Delta C$ -YFP. Scale bar = 5 µm. (E) Young K39 mycelium that grew from a spore. $AgGic1/2\Delta C$ -YFP can be seen at hyphal tips but not at sites of septation. Scale bar = $20 \mu m$. (D) AgGic1/2-YFP and AgGic1/2-YFP localize to hyphal tips.

and GFP- $AgGIC1/2\Delta C$ strains appeared normal (figure 9E). Nevertheless, we measured a reduced branching index for GFP- $AgGIC1/2\Delta C$ compared to both the reference strain and GFP-AgGIC1/2 (table 3). A similar effect was observed if the branching index was assessed for mycelia that grew at 23 °C (figure 9F). A two sample t-test confirmed this differences to be significant with p-values smaller than 0.001 for the 30 °C measurements and smaller than 0.01 for the 23 °C measurements. In summary, GFP- $AgGIC1/2\Delta C$ that is expressed under the control of the AgCDC42 promoter decreases the branching index thus suggesting that AgGic1/2 may have a regulatory function in morphogenesis.

Discussion

We show that the AgCdc42 effector AgGic1/2 is important for cell polarity establishment but dispensable for fast hyphal elongation and thus polarity maintenance. To our knowledge, $Aggic 1/2\Delta$ is the first mutation that displays a severe reduction in establishment of cell polarity without affecting polarity maintenance. Furthermore, AgGic1/2 degradation is likely to be mediated by its carboxyterminal PEST domains, which are not predicted in the homologous yeast proteins ScGic1 and ScGic2. We speculate that AgGic1/2 might have a regulatory function in branch initiation based on the finding that an AgGIC1/2 allele lacking the part that encodes the PEST domains induces a slight increase in branching if expressed from a non-endogenous promoter.

AgGic1/2 is an AgCdc42 effector.

Sequence alignments indicate two conserved regions in the amino-terminal half of AgGic1/2, the

GCN (Gic1/2 conserved amino-terminus) and the CRIB domain. We showed in a two-hybrid assay that AgGIC1/2 was able to bind to AgCdc42 thus the CRIB domain is likely to be functional despite the failure of protein sequence analysis tools to predict it. Therefore, it is likely that AgGic1/2 is a Cdc42 effector like the yeast Gic proteins. The GCN lies between the CRIB domain and the amino-terminus of Gic proteins. It is possible that the GCN mediates interaction of AgGic1/2 with the polarisome since mutation of a conserved tryptophan in yeast abolishes interaction of ScGic2 with the polarisome components ScBud6 and ScPea2 but not with ScCdc42 (Jaquenoud and Peter, 2000).

AgGic1/2 is involved in cell polarity establishment but is not needed for maximal polar growth.

Deletion of AgGIC1/2 had two effects: Germ bubbles grew isotropically to more than twice the volume of the reference strain prior to establishment of a germ tube (figure 10, 8 h), and the generation of lateral branches that emerge from the cortex of an already existing hypha was severely reduced (figure 10, 12 h). Both observations indicate that absence of AgGic1/2 reduces but does not abolish establishment of new sites of polar growth. Formation of lateral branches is disturbed at a very early stage of branch formation since localization of the two cell polarity markers AgBem1-GFP or

Fig. 9: Expression of GFP-AgGIC1/2 and GFP-AgGIC1/2∆C under the control of the AgCDC42 promoter. (A) Schematic representation of the AgGIC1/2 locus in the strains K77 ($P_{AgCDC42}^{-}$ GFP-AgGIC1/2) and K79 ($P_{AgCDC42}$ -GFP-AgGIC1/2 ΔC). The amino-terminal GFP fusions are expressed under the control of the AgCDC42 promoter. (B) Radial growth of K77 and K79 is normal. Mycelium was inoculated for 6 days at 30 °C. (C) Both GFP-AgGic1/2 and GFP-AgGic1/2ΔC localize to hyphal tips. Scale bar = $5 \mu m$. (D) Western blot probed with antiGFP comparing protein levels of strains expressing AgGIC1/2-GFP and AgGIC1/2\Delta C-GFP from the endogenous promoter with strains that express amino-terminal fusions from the AgCDC42 promoter. The arrowheads denote the bands that confer to GFPfusions to full length AgGic1/2, the open arrowheads GFP fusions to $AgGic1/2\Delta C$. The asterisks mark double-bands that are specifically observed in carboxy-terminal GFP-fusions. 100 µg protein isolated from 15 hours old liquid cultures grown at 30 °C were separated and transferred to a nitrocellulose membrane. A 105 kDa band that crossreacts with the antiGFP antibody from Roche was used as a loading control. (E) Mycelia that grew from spores of K77, K79, the reference strain (Ag) and Aggic1/2Δ inoculated for 15 hours at 30 °C. The corresponding branching indices are shown in table 3. (F) Branching index comparison of K79 that expresses GFP-AgGIC1/ $2\Delta C$ under the control of the AgCDC42 promoter with K77 and the reference strain (Ag). The bars represent the branching indices of the strains denoted below, the error bars represent the S.E. The branching index of K79 was lower than K77 or the reference strain respectively (p < 0.0007 and p < 0.0002, Welch two-sample t-test) at 30 °C and at 23 °C (p < 0.003, Welch two-sample t-test).

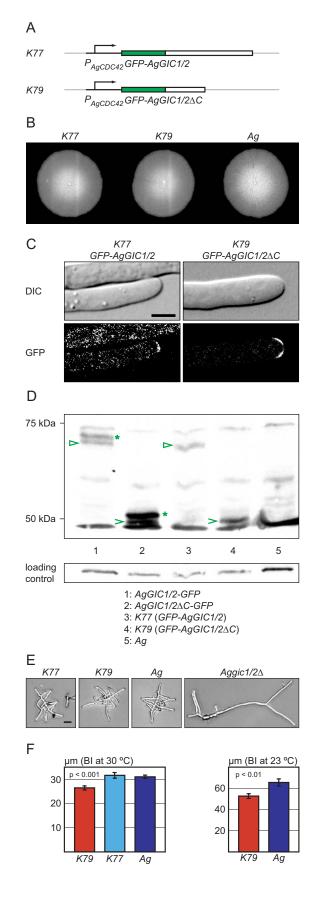


Table 3: Branching index of K77 and K79

Strain	BI*	Length**	n
K77 (GFP-AgGIC1/2)	31.6 ± 1.2 μm	395 μm	31
K79 (GFP-AgGIC1/2ΔC)	26.5 ± 0.8 μm	415 μm	22
reference strain	31.1 ± 0.7 μm	453 μm	24
	89.2 ± 8.1 μm	874 μm	20

^{*} BI was measured on mycelia that grew at 30 °C for 15 h. Mean ± S.E.

AgSpa2-GFP to sites at the hyphal cortex was not observed in an $Aggic 1/2\Delta$ strain (Winkler, 2007). In yeast, ScGic1 and ScGic2 interact with the septin ScCdc12 and are involved in septin recruitment. We were not able to detect an effect of the Aggic 1/2 deletion on localization of the septin AgShs1-GFP during preliminary experiments (data not shown). Septa, which are chitinous partition walls that are preceded by septin rings, are spaced with the same distance as they are in the reference strains and appear undisturbed (Winkler, 2007). These findings however do not exclude that AgGic1/2 is involved in septin recruitment or organization in A. gossypii. This is supported by the fact that also in yeast, septins can be recruited by a Gic-independent pathway (Iwase et al., 2006).

As in wild type, hyphae that form a mature $Aggic 1/2\Delta$ mycelium arise by tip splitting. Tip splitting is not observed in young mycelia but is the main mode of branching if hyphal growth speeds reach values of about 1.4 µm/min (Schmitz et al., 2006). To our surprise, tip splitting happened earlier in $Aggic 1/2\Delta$ than in the reference strain after inoculation of spores (figure 10, 12 h). The time span between the first polarity establishment and the first tip splitting event was thus massively shortened in Aggic 1/2 as indicated by the square bracket in figure 10. However, the hyphal growth speeds prior to tip splitting were identical for $Aggic 1/2\Delta$ and the reference strain. Thus, Aggic 1/2∆ reached growth speeds necessary for tip splitting sooner after germination rather than displaying aberrant tip splitting at lower hyphal extension rates. It was reported by Knechtle et al., 2003) that emergence of a lateral branch is accompanied by a reduction in growth speed of the main hypha, presumably because resources are redirected to newly emerging branches. The reduction in lateral branches observed in $Aggic 1/2\Delta$ may thus allow the hyphae to accelerate faster and subsequently to reach speeds associated with tip splitting earlier than the wild type.

The carboxy-terminal PEST domains of AgGic 1/2 mediate protein degradation.

The carboxy-terminal half of Gic-proteins is less conserved than the amino-terminal part. Sequence analysis of the AgGic1/2 carboxy-terminus revealed three PEST motives that were not conserved in S. cerevisiae. AgGic $1/2\Delta C$, which lacks the PEST domains, had no effect on the branching index and thus is functional. As expected, protein levels of $AgGic1/2\Delta C$ were higher than AgGic1/2indicating that the PEST motives indeed mediate protein instability. In yeast, despite the absence of a predictable PEST domain, ScGic2 is at least partially degraded after bud emergence. Upon phosphorylation, ScGic2 is polyubiquinated and targeted to the proteasome. ScGic1 is stable but displays cell-cycle dependent modifications. (Jaquenoud et al., 1998; Hofken and Schiebel, 2004). It is unlikely that AgGic1/2 levels are coupled to the nuclear cycle in A. gossypii since nuclei that share a common cytoplasm are in different stages (Gladfelter et al., 2006). However, it might be possible that AgGic1/2 is degraded upon a yet to be defined signal as will be discussed later. Furthermore, the conserved amino-termini of Gic proteins may link Cdc42 to the polarisome and septins while the carboxy-termini are more variable, which might reflect the need to regulated Gic proteins differently.

Carboxy-terminally truncated AgGic1/2 that is expressed from the AgCDC42 promoter leads to a decreased branching index.

AgGic1/2 could be an adaptor between AgCdc42 and other factors. However, AgGic1/2 protein levels might have a regulatory function in branch initiation and germ tube emergence. This hypothesis was tested with the attempt to overexpress AgGIC1/2 from the AgCDC42 promoter. In 9 hours old mycelia, AgCDC42 mRNA is 9 times more abundant than AgGic1/2 mRNA. However, protein levels of the AgGIC1/2 alleles that were expressed from the AgCDC42 promoter were not increased.

^{**} Average length of the assessed mycelia

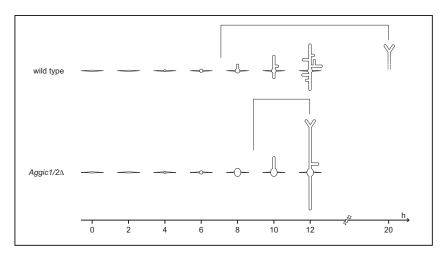


Fig. 10: Overview: development of wild type and $Aggic1/2\Delta$. Early development of wild type and $Aggic1/2\Delta$ are compared. The timeline indicates time in hours after inoculation of spores on AFM agar at 30 °C. Note that the timing of the developmental steps strongly depends on environmental factors and differs between experiments. The square brackets indicate the time span between germ tube emergence and the first apical branching in both strains.

This might have several reasons: mRNA abundance is not only regulated by the rate of transcription but also by mRNA stability, which might account for the difference in mRNA abundance between AgGIC1/2 and AgCDC42 rather than a difference in promoter strength. Furthermore, the carboxyterminally labeled AgGic1/2 proteins might be artificially stabilized by the GFP tag or else, AgGic1/2 levels might be tightly regulated in the cell and the AgGic1/2 surplus is very efficiently degraded. The observation that, independent of the promoter, the ratio between stabilized $AgGic1/2\Delta C$ that lacks the PEST domains and full length AgGic1/2 is similar argues against the latter two possibilities unless a second, PEST independent degradation pathway exists. Though we could not see an increase in AgGic1/2 levels, we were able to see a small decrease of the branching index if $AgGic1/2\Delta C$ was expressed from the AgCDC42promoter. This means that more sites of polarity were established in this strain, which supports the hypothesis that AgGic1/2 might have a regulatory function in branch establishment. However, the effect was rather small, future experiment will show whether higher concentrations of AgGic1/2 will be able to induce hyperbranching. Recently, a regulable promoter was described for A. gossypii (Dunkler and Wendland, 2007) that may be helpful to further specify the role of AgGic1/2 in polarity establishment.

Suggested roles of AgGic1/2 in A. gossypii morphogenesis.

AgGic1/2 Δ C was observed at sites where new lateral branches emerged, which is consistent with the observation that AgGic1/2 is involved in polarity establishment. However, GFP-fusions to full length and truncated AgGic1/2 also localized to hyphal tips, which could mean that AgGic1/2 has

a redundant function at this cellular location. It is likely that AgGic1/2 binds to activated AgCdc42 at growing tips since AgCdc42 and its GEF, AgCdc24, are found at this location (part I, figure 11). Furthermore, it is known from yeast that ScGic2 is only phosphorylated and degraded upon interaction with activated ScCdc42. Hence, one can speculate that growing A. gossypii tips represent sites that degrade AgGic1/2. Consequently, the AgGic1/2 concentration would be lower in the proximity of growing hyphal tips, which is represented by low AgGic1/2 activity (white color) in figure 11. Lack of AgGic1/2 would make outgrowth of lateral branches at this site unlikely. However, AgGic1/2 concentration would be higher at sites that are further away from the hyphal tips (purple color, figure 11). There, potential branching sites (arrowheads, figure 11) could be activated. As soon as a branch is established, AgGic1/2 is degraded in this region leading to a drop in AgGic1/2-activity, and branching in the proximity of the new tip becomes very unlikely (figure 11A2). As soon as the newly established hypha reached a certain length, AgGic1/2 levels would rise again enabling establishment of more lateral branches (figure 11A3 and 11A4). This model would explain the observation that genetically identical spores that are spread on a homogenous AFM agar surface give rise to mycelia that are easily distinguishable from one another though general parameters like the branching index are similar between individuals. There are always small fluctuations in the system that allow outgrowth of a lateral branch from a potential branching site. As soon as the branch is established, AgGic1/2 might be degraded in this region in an AgCdc42-dependent manner making it very unlikely for a second branch to emerge. Such a rather simple mechanism would be sufficient to generate a balance between hyphal elongation and polarity establishment without the need of a fixed body plan like it is present in higher eukaryotes. Additional to the local regulation of branching, AgGic1/2 might serve as global regulator that allows A. gossypii to adjust cell morphology to its environment. Indeed, it is frequently observed that A. gossypii shows few lateral branches under certain conditions. Reduced branching is observed for dense A. gossypii cultures or for mycelia that are grown on glass-covered microscopy slides where oxygen and nutrients presumably are low. Thus, it might be possible that A. gossypii adapts its morphology to harsh or competitive conditions by reducing lateral branches and thereby focusing growth on fewer tips that might reach regions with more benign conditions. Starvation, low oxygen, quorum or other signals might be associated with low levels of AgGic1/2 (figure 11B, left branch) and consequently with a reduction in lateral branches. Alternatively, it is possible that favorable conditions might stabilize AgGic1/2 (figure 11B, right branch). It was shown that A. gossypii reacts to starvation with a decrease of the nuclear density that is mediated by AgSwe1dependent inhibition of the A. gossypii cyclin dependent kinase (Helfer and Gladfelter, 2006), maybe controlled AgGic1/2 degradation constitutes a pathway to adapt morphogenesis to environmental conditions?

Materials and methods

Please consult the "Materials and methods" section of part I for general information and techniques. Here, only methods are described that were not mentioned otherwise, oligonucleotides and plasmids are listed in table 4 and 5. PCR-generated parts of plasmids that were used to transform *A. gossypii* were sequenced prior to transformation.

Nomenclature

Both *ScGIC1* and *ScGIC2* are syntenic homologs of the gene *AAL047C*. The sequence identities between *AAL047C* and *ScGIC1* and *AAL047* and *ScGIC2* are similar (38 % and 40 % respectively). For this reason, *AAL047C* was named *AgGIC1/2*.

A. gossypii strains

The various AgGIC1/2 based constructs replace AgGIC1/2 at its chromosomal locus under the control of the AgGIC1/2 promoter if not mentioned otherwise. The functionality of the different

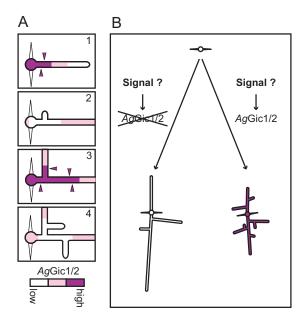


Figure 11: Possible roles of AgGic1/2 in regulation of lateral **branching.** (A) Model: Establishment of new lateral branches is suppressed by growing hyphal tips. The four images illustrate the development of single A. gossypii mycelium. AgGic1/2 activity is represented by three different colors: purple for high AgGic1/2 activity, pink for medium and white for low AgGic1/2 activity. AgGic1/2 is constantly synthesized in the entire mycelium and targeted for degradation at hyphal tips leading to low AgGic1/2 activity in apical regions. Potential sites of polarity establishment where AgGic1/2 activity is high are marked with arrowheads. (B) Model: AgGic1/2 is used to adapt cellular morphology to external signals. AgGic1/2 can be stabilized or degraded upon external signal. Degradation of AgGic 1/2 results in a morphology that resembles the Aggic 1/2\Delta strain, stabilization of AgGic 1/2 leads to a highly branched mycelium like it is observed for the wild type grown on AFM agar.

constructs is discussed in the "Results" section, the strains are listed in table 6. The reference strain, $Agleu2\Delta thr 4\Delta$, is referred to as "Ag" in the figure legends.

$K38 (AgGIC1/2\Delta C)$

A 2.154 kbp PCR product containing a stop-codon followed by the ScURA3 terminator and the GEN3 resistance cassette was obtained with the primers 05.304 and 05.307 using pAGT141 as a template. This DNA fragment was cotransformed into the yeast strain DH5D (Arvanitidis and Heinisch, 1994) together with pK37, which contains the AgGIC1/2 gene. The resulting pK38 contained $AgGIC1/2\Delta C$, which codes for the first 173 amino acids of AgGic1/2. The plasmid pK38 was isolated from yeast, about 15 μ g of DNA were cut with PvuII and StuI and used for transformation of A.gossypii.

K39 and K65 (AgGIC1/2 Δ C-YFP and AgGIC1/2 Δ C-GFP).

The plasmid pK39 was created by recombination of a 2.819 kbp YFP-GEN3 cassette (primers 05.305/05.307, template pAGT143) with pK37 in yeast. About 15 μg of pK39 was digested with *Aat*II and SacII for A. gossypii transformation resulting in a strain that expressed the first 173 amino acids of AgGIC1/2 fused to YFP. The strain K65 carries an $AgGIC1/2\Delta C$ -GFP fusion but is otherwise identical to K39. The plasmid pK65, which was used to create K65, was constructed based on pK39. In a first step, the 4.366 kbp fragment of AatII digested pK39 was cloned into AatII cut pUC19 resulting in pK63. Second, the GFP containing 1.571 kbp fragment of NcoI and NruI digested pAGT141 was used to replace the YFP in pK63 cut with NcoI and NruI giving rise to pK65.

K40 and K66 (AgGIC1/2-YFP and AgGIC1/2-GFP).

The plasmid pK40 was obtained by cotransformation of pK37 with a 2.819 kbp carboxy-terminal fusion cassette (primers 05.306/05.307, template pAGT143). Transformation of *Aat*II digested pK40 into *A. gossypii* resulted in an *AgGIC1/2-YFP* fusion. *K66* is identical to *K40* with the only difference that *GFP* instead of YFP is fused to *AgGIC1/2-YFP* containing 3.488 kbp fragment of *Aat*II digested pK40 was cloned into pUC19 resulting in pK64. *YFP* was replaced by *GFP* by ligating the 1.571 kbp fragment of *Nco*I and *Nru*I cut pAGT141 into pK64 that was digested with *Nco*I and *Nru*I.

$K77 (P_{AgCDC42}$ -GFP-AgGIC1/2)

In a first step, a promoterless *GFP-AgGIC1/2* fusion was created via yeast cotransformation. The plasmid pAG6266 containing *AgGIC1/2* was recombined with a 3.150 kbp fusion cassette (primers 06.362/06.363, template pG3iNyEGFP) resulting in pK76 that encoded yEGFP-*Ag*Gic1/2. The plasmid pK77 was created by digesting pK76 with *Pac*I and inserting the 0.497 kbp *AgCDC42* promoter that was amplified from genomic DNA with the primers 06.365 and 06.366 and digested with *Pac*I. *A. gossypii* was transformed with *Sac*II digested pK77 to give rise to *K77*, which expressed *yEGFP-AgGIC1/2* under the control of the *AgCDC42* promoter.

K79 ($P_{AgCDC42}$ -GFP-AgGIC1/2 ΔC)

The plasmid pAG6266 was cut open with *BipI* and recombined with a 3.150 kbp *GEN3-yEGFP*

cassette (primers 06.362/06.363, template pG3iNyEGFP) and with a 0.342 kbp PCR fragment that contained the ScURA3 terminator (primers 05.304/06.364, template pAGT141) in a single yeast cotransformation. The resulting plasmid, pK78, contained a promoterless GFP-fusion to $AgGIC1/2\Delta C$ that encoded amino acids 1-173 of AgGIC1/2. The AgCDC42 promoter was inserted as mentioned for pK77 in the paragraph above resulting in pK79. Transformation of ApaLI and XhoI cut pK79 into A. gossypii resulted in a strain expressing vEGFP- $AgGIC1/2\Delta C$ under the control of the AgCDC42 promoter. For simplicity, yEGFP will be referred to as GFP during this work.

Light microscopy, sample preparation and image processing.

Samples were prepared as described in part I for fluorescence microscopy. Alternatively, mycelia that were growing in liquid culture were pipetted on glass slides and observed immediately. For high magnification germination time-lapse movies, spores were spread on glass slides that were coated with 1 ml AFM agar, immediately covered with a cover slide and incubated for 9 hours prior to microscopy at 25 °C. Mycelia growing on AFM agar plates were observed with an Axioplane2 microscope (Carl Zeiss, Switzerland) using the Plan Neofluar 10x Ph1 numerical aperture (N.A.) 0.3 objective and the Plan Neofluar 20x Ph2 N.A. 0.5 objective. Images were acquired with a MicroMAX TE-CCD-800 PE digital camera (Princeton Instruments, USA) that was controlled by MetaMorph 6.2r6 (Molecular Devices Corp. USA).

Branching index measurements

The branching index was determined for mycelia that grew from single spores on AFM agar plates. Images were acquired between 11 and 21 hours after spore inoculation, depending on the incubation temperature. The total mycelial length was measured using the "Measure regions" tool of MetaMorph and transferred to Microsoft Excel. The branching index was determined as mycelial length divided by the number of tips (Trinci, 1970).

Two hybrid analysis

The plasmids pK32 and pK35 were transformed into the yeast strain PJ69-4a (James et al., 1996), pK31 and pK36 into $PJ69-4\alpha$ (Uetz et al., 2000). The above mentioned plasmids were constructed by ligating EcoRI and BamHI digested PCR

products into EcoRI and BamHI cut pGBKT7 (for pK32 and pK35) or pGADT7 (for pK31 and pK36). The plasmid pK32 contained AgCDC42Q61H lacking the bases that code for the carboxyterminal prenylation signal (primers 02.005/04.156, template pCdc42cons). The plasmid pK35 was constructed likewise containing ScCDC42^{Q61L} (primers 05.271/05.272, template pMOSB66). The plasmid pK31 contained AgGIC1/2 (primers 05.269/05.270 template pAG6266) and the plasmid pK36 contained ScGIC1/2 (primers 05.273/05.274, template pMOSB230). The PCR-generated inserts were sequenced before transformation. Yeast strains were allowed to mate, diploids were selected on plates lacking tryptophan and leucine but containing a four-fold concentration of adenine (80 mg/ml). The activity of the reporter gene was monitored by spotting 5 μ l of liquid culture with and OD₆₀₀ of 1 on medium lacking adenine. The empty vectors, pGADT7 and pGBKT7 were used as negative and pTD1 and pVA3 as positive controls.

Statistics

The Welch two-sample t-test was applied using the open source R statistical computing and graphics environment (http://www.r-project.org/).

Table 4: Oligonucleotides

	Name	Sequence*	Use**
02.005	AgCDC42-ATG	gategaattcATGCAGACATTGAAGTGCGTGGTC	pl
04.011	green2.2	TGTAGTTCCCGTCATCTTTG	aPCR
04.156	AgCDC42-TAG.2	cgacggatcctACTTCTTGCTCTTCTTGATGACC	pl
04.314	G3.2	CTCCAACTCGGCACTATTTTAC	aPCR
04.473	URA3T_XmaI	gccgcccgggattATAAGTAAATGCATGTATAC	aPCR
05.161	AgGIC1/2-NS1	GCAGAATTCCCCTGTTTGAGGCAATTCGGGCGGGGCCATATATAACAGA Gccagtgaattcgagctcgg	gt
05.162	AgGIC1/2-F2	ATAAGCGGTTTTGTAAGTGTTAACTGAGTGTCTATGTAACAAGCGGCAac catgattacgccaagcttgc	gt
05.163	AgGIC1/2-G1	GAGGCGGTAGACAGTATAAC	aPCR
05.164	AgGIC1/2-G4	ATTGTCCGTTCCTTCCAGTC	aPCR
05.165	AgGIC1/2-I	CGCCCATTCTCTGCATGAAG	aPCR
05.269	AgGIC1/2-ATG	gategaattcATGTGTAGCAGGCGAGCCACGGGC	pl
05.270	AgGIC1/2-TAG	cgacggatcctTCACATGTATGCATCTCCCTCC	pl
05.271	ScCDC42-ATG	gategaattcATGCAAACGCTAAAGTGTG	pl
05.272	ScCDC42-TAG	cgacggatcctaTTTTTTACTTTTCTTGATAACAGG	pl
05.273	ScGIC2-ATG	gategaattcATGACTAGTGCAAGTATTACC	pl
05.274	ScGIC2-TAG	cgacagatctaTTAAGTTTGCAGGGGCTCG	pl
05.303	AgGIC1/2-ds	CCGCTGTTCGCATGGTAACCTG	aPCF
05.304	AgGIC1/2ΔC-FX	CGCCGACGGCGTCGCCGCTGGAGGACGCGCGCGCGCGCGC	rec
05.305	AgGIC1/2ΔC-Tag-F1	CGCCGACGGCGTCGCCGCTGGAGGACGCGCGCGCGCGCGC	rec
05.306	AgGIC1/2-F1	ACCCTCCAGCCGTGCACCGGGAGGGAGATGCATACATG aaaacgacggccagtgaattcg	rec
05.307	AgGIC1/2-F2	TGTAAGTGTTAACTGAGTGTCTATGTAACAAGCGGCAC accatgattacgccaagcttgc	rec
05.349	G2.3	GGAGGTAGTTTGCTGATTGG	aPCR
06.305	GFP-NTF	GGTGATGGTCCAGTCTTGTTAC	aPCR
06.362	AgGIC1/2-NR5	GTGGTTTCCGTCACGCAGAATTCCCCTGTTTGAGGCAATT acacaggaaacagctatgac	rec
06.362	AgGIC1/2-NR5	GTGGTTTCCGTCACGCAGAATTCCCCTGTTTGAGGCAATT acacaggaaacagctatgac	rec
06.363	AgGIC1/2-NR3	TGCTCCTGCACCCGCTGCCCGTGGCTCGCCTGCTACACAT caatgcaccgtcacctgc	rec
06.363	AgGIC1/2-NR3	TGCTCCTGCACCCGCTGCCCGTGGCTCGCCTGCTACACAT caatgcaccgtcacctgc	rec
06.364	AgGIC1/2-URA3t3	CGACGTCGCCATCGTCGACGTCGACACCACCCGCGCCGT accgagctctatgcgtccatc	rec
06.365	AgCDC42p-PAC3	gacttaattaaCTGTGTGCAGCTGCCTGC	pl
06.366	AgCDC42p-PAC5	gcattaattaaCCGCTGTATACTACATAGCCG	pl
06.391	AgGIC1/2-G4.2	CGTGGCTGATGTGCTGGAAC	aPCF

^{*} Bold lower case characters indicate the template-binding sequences of gene targeting- and recombination primers. All other lower case characters indicate nucleotides that are not homologous to the PCR template.

** aPCR = analytical PCR, gt = gene targeting, pl = plasmid construction, rec = recombination

Table 5: Plasmids

Name	Backbone	Insert	Source
pGEN3	-	-	Wendland et al. 2000
pUC19	-	-	Vieira and Messing 1991
pGADT7	-	two-hybrid GAL4-activation domain (AD)	Chien et al. 1991
pGBKT7	-	two-hybrid GAL4-DNA binding domain (BD)	Louvet et al. 1997
pAG6266	pRS416	AgGIC1/2 (no terminator)	Dietrich et al. 2004
pAGT141	pUC19	GFP-GEN3 cassette	Kaufmann A., unpublished
pAGT143	pUC19	YFP-GEN3 cassette	Kaufmann A., unpublished
pCDC42cons		AgCDC42(Q61H)	Schmitz et al, 2006
pG3iNyEGFP	pUC19	GEN3-yEGFP cassette	Kaufmann A., unpublished
pMOSB230		ScGIC2	Jaquenoud et al. 1998
pMOSB66		ScCDC42(Q61L, C189S)	Gladfelter et al. 2001
pTD1		two-hybrid positive control vector	Clonetech, USA
pVA3		two-hybrid positive control vector	Clonetech, USA
pK31	pGADT7	AD-AgGIC1/2	This study
pK32	pGBKT7	BD-AgCDC42(Q61H)	This study
pK35	pGBKT7	BD-ScCDC42(Q61L)	This study
pK36	pGADT7	AD-ScGIC2	This study
pK37	pRS416	AgGIC1/2	This study
pK38	pRS416	AgGIC1/2ΔC-GEN3	This study
pK39	pRS416	AgGIC1/2ΔC-YFP-GEN3	This study
pK40	pRS416	AgGIC1/2-YFP-GEN3	This study
pK63	pUC19	AgGIC1/2ΔC-YFP-GEN3	This study
pK64	pUC19	AgGIC1/2-YFP-GEN3	This study
pK65	pUC19	AgGIC1/2ΔC-GFP-GEN3	This study
pK66	pUC19	AgGIC1/2-GFP-GEN3	This study
pK76	pRS416	GEN3-yEGFP-AgGIC1/2 (promoterless)	This study
pK77	pRS416	GEN3-P _{AgCDC42} -yEGFP-AgGIC1/2	This study
pK78	pRS416	$GEN3-yEGFP-AgGIC1/2\Delta C$ (promoterless)	This study
pK79	pRS416	$GEN3$ - $P_{AgCDC42}$ - $yEGFP$ - $AgGIC1/2\Delta C$	This study

Table 6: A. gossypii strains.

Strain	Genotype	Construction	Source
$\Delta l \Delta t$	Agleu 2Δ Agthr 4Δ	-	Altmann-Johl and Philippsen 1996
Aggic1/2∆	Aggic1/2Δ::GEN3 Agleu2Δ Agthr4Δ	pGEN3 PCR 05.161/05.162	This study
K38	$AgGIC1/2\Delta C$ -GEN3 $Agleu2\Delta$ $Agthr4\Delta$	pK38; PvuII, StuI	This study
K39	$AgGIC1/2\Delta C$ -YFP-GEN3 $Agleu2\Delta$ $Agthr4\Delta$	pK39; AatII, SacII	This study
K40	$AgGIC1/2$ -YFP-GEN3 $Agleu2\Delta$ $Agthr4\Delta$	pK40; AatII	This study
K65	$AgGIC1/2\Delta C$ -GFP-GEN3 $Agleu2\Delta$ $Agthr4\Delta$	pK65; AatII	This study
K66	$AgGIC1/2$ -GFP-GEN3 $Agleu2\Delta$ $Agthr4\Delta$	pK66; AatII	This study
K77	$GEN3$ - $P_{AgCDC42}$ - GFP - $AgGIC1/2$ $Agleu2\Delta$ $Agthr4\Delta$	pK77; SacII	This study
K79	$GEN3$ - $P_{AgCDC42}$ - GFP - $AgGIC1/2\Delta C$ $Agleu2\Delta$ $Agthr4\Delta$	pK79; ApaL1, XhoI	This study

Part III

The work presented in this part of my PhD thesis resulted from a collaboration with Hans-Peter Schmitz and Sabrina Buck from the University of Osnarbrück, Germany. My personal contributions were the characterization of the $Agrho1a\Delta$ mutant (figure 1), the microscopy shown in figure 2C and construction of the strains $Aglrg1\Delta$, Agrho1aQ68H and Agrho1bQ69H shown in figure 6B.

The function of two closely related Rho proteins is determined by regulator specificity, not by effector interaction

Michael Köhli¹, Sabrina Buck² and Hans-Peter Schmitz^{2,3}

It is generally believed that the vast number of small GTP-binding proteins present in cells of higher organisms today has evolved by gene duplications of a common ancestor. Furthermore it is taken for granted that after duplication mutations alter the protein's effector interactions, thereby changing its function. In contrast to these assumptions we show here for the two duplicated *RHO1* genes from the filamentous fungus *Ashbya gossypii* that the different functions of the encoded proteins are not due to different effector interactions. Instead we found that both proteins are regulated by different GAP-proteins and that GAP specificity is determined by either a tyrosine or a histidine at a single position in the switch I region of the two Rho1 proteins. An analogous histidine residue is found in some atypical GTP-binding proteins of higher eukaryotes, suggesting that the evolutionary mechanism we describe here might be a common way for diversification of GTP-binding protein function.

Introduction

Gene duplication is the motor of genetic evolution (Ohno, 1970). Single loci, chromosomal fragments or even whole genomes duplicate, and duplicated genes undergo different fates. However, how mutations change the function of the encoded proteins often remains unclear. Here we investigate duplicated genes of small GTP-binding proteins for several reasons: Small GTP-binding proteins are a ubiquitous protein class, in eukaryotic cells. They are involved in diverse processes like cancer development, cell morphogenesis or vesicle trafficking (Takai et al., 2001). The structure and mode of action of this protein class is highly conserved and well understood, and effects of mutations mimicking active and inactive forms can be generalized. Activation of small GTPbinding proteins is characterized by a GDP-GTP exchange involving regulators called guanine nucleotide exchange factors (GEFs). The active, GTP-bound form of a GTP-binding protein binds and activates effectors. Inactivation is mediated by the binding of a GTPase activating protein (GAP) that increases the intrinsic GTPase activity of the GTP-binding protein dramatically. It is generally assumed that small GTP-binding proteins have evolved by gene duplication followed by mutation of the effector binding regions, potentially resulting in novel protein function. In this study, we used a comparative analysis of duplicated and non-duplicated Rho proteins to understand the

mechanism how Rho proteins can gain functional specificty after gene duplication.

Yeasts provide an excellent tool for studying gene duplication (Wolfe, 2006). With the well-annotated genome of Saccharomyces cerevisiae and several other complete yeast genomes, identification of duplicated genes is very reliable. Taking synteny information into account, duplicated genes can be identified with confidence. A. gossypii is especially well suited for studies on evolution of gene function in combination with the budding yeast S. cerevisiae (Philippsen et al., 2005). The gene content of the A. gossypii genome is very similar to S. cerevisiae but A. gossypii, unlike S. cerevisiae, did not go through a whole genome duplication since the two species diverged leading to a very compact genome (Dietrich et al., 2004). In comparison with S. cerevisiae, only a few (~26) genes in A. gossypii are duplicated, while many (~496 pairs) are found in S. cerevisiae, thus providing a total of more than 500 candidates for studies on functional changes by gene duplication. In contrast to other, closely related yeast species, A. gossypii shows exclusively filamentous growth and does not grow by budding. This different life style compared to yeast cells increases the possibility to observe changes in function of gene-products that are involved in such elementary processes like polar growth, cell division and cell cycle control.

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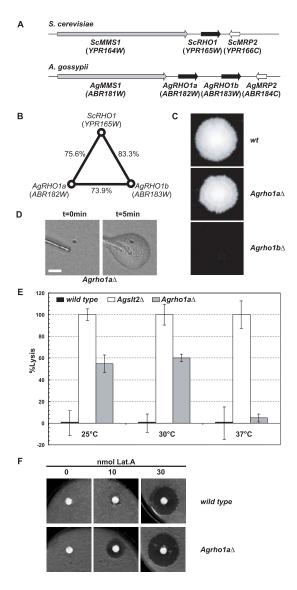


Fig. 1: Lysis phenotypes of an Agrhola deletion strain. (A) Genomic organization of RHO1 loci and neighboring genes in S. cerevisiae and A. gossypii. Homologous genes are shaded identically. (B) Percent identity of Rho1 proteins derived from comparisons with the needle program of the EMBOSS package (Rice et al., 2000). (C) Representative mycelia of wild type and deletions of AgRHO1a and AgRHO1b. For the deletion mutants, spores from a heterokaryotic mycelium were spotted on medium selective for the marker of the deletion. Wild type spores contained a plasmid carrying the same marker gene to allow for growth on the selective medium. (D) Hyphal lysis of Agrho1a\(\Delta\). Still images of individual hyphae that lysed during a time-lapse movie (movie S5). Sections of frames from time points prior to and after lysis are shown ($\Delta t = 5 \text{ min}$). The size of the bar is 25 µm. (E) Quantification of mycelial lysis (see Materials and Methods). The alkaline phosphatase release of wild-type cells was set to 0% and the release of an $Agslt2\Delta$ to 100%. Values are given for at least 3 individual experiments. (F) Latrunculin A sensitivity of Agrho1aΔ. A dense spore suspension of wild-type (upper panel) or $Agrho1a\Delta$ spores (lower panel) was mixed with AFM-Agar and overlaid on AFM plates. Filter discs were placed on the AFM agar plates and the indicated amount of latrunculin A was spotted on discs in a volume of 5µl DMSO. Plates were incubated at 25°C for 36h.

The Rho1 protein from S. cerevisiae is a typical member of the Rho GTP-binding protein family. Its function and regulation is complex but well understood (Levin, 2005). Deletion of the ScRHO1 gene is lethal (Madaule et al., 1987), which reflects the multitude of functions that have been attributed to the encoded protein. Two major functions ScRHO1 are represented by two different complementation groups of Scrho1 mutants (Saka et al., 2001). The functions assigned to these groups are the regulation of cell wall biosynthesis and the regulation of the actin cytoskeleton. Cell wall biosynthesis is controlled by interaction of ScRho1 with the glucan-synthase complex (Drgonova et al., 1996; Mazur and Baginsky, 1996; Qadota et al., 1996), which produces β-(1,3)-glucan, the major component of the yeast cell wall. Initially, ScRhol was isolated as the regulatory subunit of this complex. Actin regulation is achieved by interaction with two different effector-proteins: The formin ScBni1 (Kohno et al., 1996) and the single S. cerevisiae protein kinase C ScPkc1 (Nonaka et al., 1995). While the connection to actin regulation via formins is direct because proteins of this class catalyze polymerization of actin cables, actin regulation via ScPkc1 is not understood in detail, and the targets of ScPkc1 responsible for actin regulation are unknown. In addition to these two main roles of Rho1, there is evidence for a variety of other functions (reviewed by Levin, 2005). Even though these processes seem to be quite diverse, they might all be reduced to actin regulation because they all involve actindependent transport processes.

A first A. gossypii homolog of S. cerevisiae RHO1 was cloned before the second RHO1 copy was detected during the genome-sequencing project (Wendland and Philippsen, 2001). Deletion mutants of AgRHO1 (open reading frame ABR183W) grew slowly, suffered from significant cell-lysis and died within 4 days. This phenotype suggested AgRho1b functions that are similar to the S. cerevisiae Rho1. A second RHO1 homolog (ABR182W), directly upstream of AgRHO1, was identified after the genome sequence became available (Dietrich et al., 2004). The genomic organization of the AgRHO1 genes together with the neighboring genes in A. gossypii and S. cerevisiae is shown in figure 1A. The two AgRHO1 copies very likely originate from a tandem-duplication event. Only little is known about the function of ABR182W. Deletion mutants have been reported to display a slightly increased lysis phenotype and a weak sensitivity to

the chitin-binding-dye Calcofluor white (Walther and Wendland, 2005).

To get insight into the evolution of small GTPbinding protein genes, we investigated the functional changes that occur after duplication of such genes. We studied the differences in function of a pair of duplicated RHO-type GTPbinding proteins in A. gossypii and compared them to their single homolog in budding yeast. Furthermore, we wanted to identify the change in the duplicated sequence that might have led to an initial separation of function of the duplicated gene copies. Surprisingly, we found that a single residue, which is altered in the switch I region of AgRho1a, determines protein function and causes a different GAP-specificity without altering effector interaction. Since a similar residue is found in the switch I region of some atypical small GTP-binding proteins in higher eukaryotes, the evolution of the AgRho1 proteins we describe here might reflect a general mechanism for diversification of GTPbinding protein function.

Results

The lytic phenotype of $Agrho1a\Delta$ is temperature-dependent.

Before investigation of a possible mechanism for diversification of duplicated gene function, we first had to characterize the Rho1 proteins in Ashbva gossypii to verify that both gene copies developed different functions during evolution. Alignment of the protein sequences shows that AgRhola is 73.9% identical to AgRho1b and 75.6% identical to ScRho1 while the latter two proteins show the highest identity with 83.3% (figure 1B). As a first step towards defining functional difference between AgRHO1a and AgRHO1b, we compared the phenotypes of deletion mutants. While Agrho1aΔ strains formed a mature mycelium that grew slightly slower than the wild type, deletion of Agrho1b resulted in cells which never reached the state of a mature mycelium and died due to cell lysis (figure 1C). Agrho1a∆ cells also lysed but only few hyphae were affected. Figure 1D shows an examples of lysing hyphae taken from movie S5. We also monitored the strain deleted for AgRHO1a at different growth temperatures. Lysis of adult mycelia was quantified by an assay that visualizes the release of cytoplasmic alkaline phosphatase upon lysis by a color reaction (figure 1E, for details refer to Material and Methods). An

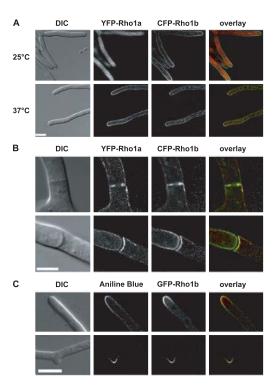


Fig. 2: Localization of *Ag*Rho1 proteins. Amino-terminal fusions of Yellow-Fluorescent-Protein (YFP) to AgRho1a and Cyan-Fluorescent-Protein (CFP) to *Ag*Rho1b localizing at the tip (A) and at the septum (B). Mycelia were placed on a slide with a small cavity containing solid time-lapse medium. The slides were incubated for 1 h at the given temperature prior to microscopy. The overlay uses green for YFP-*Ag*Rho1a and red for CFP-*Ag*Rho1b. The size bar represents 5 μm. C). Colocalization of GFP-*Ag*Rho1b with β-(1,3)-glucan biosynthesis at the tip. Mycelia that were grown on microscopy slides were incubated with 1 mg/ml Aniline blue in AFM for visualization of β-(1,3)-glucan biosynthesis for 5-10 minutes prior to microscopy. Aniline blue is shown in red and GFP-*Ag*Rho1b in green on the overlay image. The size bar is 10 μm.

 $Agslt2\Delta$ strain was used as a lysis control. AgSLT2is the homolog of the S. cerevisiae MAP-kinase responsible for maintenance of cellular integrity (Torres et al., 1991). In contrast to $Agrho 1b\Delta$, Agslt 2deletion mutants can form a mature mycelium despite frequent hyphal lysis (our own unpublished results). At 25°C and 30°C, Agrho1a∆ mutants release about half as much alkaline phosphatase as the Agslt2\Delta mutants. To our surprise, lysis of the Agrho1a∆ strain decreases to almost wildtype levels at 37°C. Cold-sensitive phenotypes are often associated with mutants of actin and its regulators. However, we did not observe significant differences between the actin cytoskeleton of wildtype and $Agrho1a\Delta$ cells stained with rhodaminephalloidin (data not shown). Since visualization of actin requires fixation of cells, differences in actin

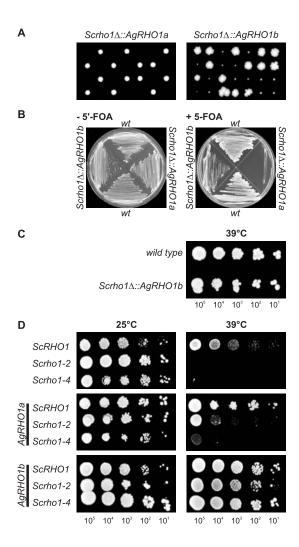


Fig. 3: Complementation of S. cerevisiae rho1 mutants by AgRHO1 genes. (A) Complementation of Scrho1 Δ . The open reading frame of ScRHO1 was replaced by either AgRHO1a or AgRHO1b in a diploid strain. After sporulation the resulting strains were subjected to tetrad analysis. Growth for seven representative tetrads is shown for AgRHO1a (left) and AgRHO1b (right). (B) Plasmid loss experiment. Strains with the indicated genotypes were transformed a plasmid containing the URA3 marker and the ScRHO1 gene with promoter and terminator and streaked on medium without or with counterselection for URA3 by 5-fluorootic acid. (C) Two segregants from a tetrad shown in A were tested for temperature sensitivity at 39°C in a drop dilution assay. Cultures were grown to an OD₆₀₀ of 1. The number of cells given below the image were spotted on agar plates and incubated for 3 days 39 °C. (D) Complementation of different Scrhol temperature-sensitive mutants from different complementation groups by the two AgRHO1 genes. Drop dilution assays of culture that was grown to OD_{600} 1 are shown. Strains that carry the wild-type ScRHO1allele or either allele from each Scrho1 complementation group were combined with a Scrho1 deletion (top row), AgRHO1a (middle row) or AgRHO1b (bottom row). The strains were incubated at the permissive (25°C, left image) or the restrictive temperature (39°C, right image).

dynamics might have been missed. Therefore, we tested wild type and $Agrho1a\Delta$ for sensitivity to the actin monomer sequestering drug latrunculin A. Figure 1F shows that mutant $Agrho1a\Delta$ cells are more sensitive to actin perturbation than wild-type cells, best visible for 10nmol latrunculin A. This result suggests an involvement of AgRho1a in actin regulation. The observed lysis of hyphae could therefore be an indirect consequence of the actin defects while the lethal lysis phenotype of the Agrho1b deletion might be the consequence of direct defects in cell wall biosynthesis.

Different localization patterns of AgRho1a and AgRho1b

The two main functions of Rho1 that are known from studies in S. cerevisiae are cell wall biosynthesis and regulation of the actin cytoskeleton. In filamentous fungi, growth, and therefore cell wall biosynthesis, is restricted to the tip area of hyphae. Actin patches in A. gossypii also localize to the tip region but they are absent at the most apical part of the tip cortex. In addition, actin-cables are found in the whole mycelium and actin rings form at sites of septation. Proteins that are involved in regulation of either cell wall biosynthesis or the regulation of the actin cytoskeleton should therefore show a distinct localization pattern. To test if this is true for the AgRho1 proteins, we localized fusions of both proteins to YFP (AgRho1a) or CFP (AgRho1b) simultaneously by fluorescence microscopy. Since we observed temperature-dependent lysis for the $Agrho1a\Delta$ mutants, we speculated that temperature is an important factor for the AgRho1a function. To test this, cells were grown either at 25°C or at 37°C. Figure 2A shows that, at 25°C, AgRho1b localizes mainly to the cortex and the cytoplasm at the tip of the growing hyphae while AgRho1a localizes to the entire cytoplasm. Interestingly, a 1h heat shock at 37°C led to a different localization pattern for both proteins. Now they were found at the cortex of the entire hyphae. In contrast to the localization pattern of AgRho1b at 25°C, membrane association is not restricted to the tip region of the hyphae. This implies that, at higher temperatures, both proteins might share more functions than at lower temperatures and might be one reason for the reduced lysis at higher temperature observed for $Agrho1a\Delta$.

While localization of the two AgRho1 proteins differs at the tip region of hyphae, we found both proteins at developing (figure 2B, first row) and mature septa (figure 2B, second row) suggesting that both feature in septum formation. To test whether

Table 1: Interaction of AgRho1 proteins with potential effector-proteins

	AgRho1a	AgRho1a Q68H	AgRho1a H39Y,Q68H	AgRho1b	AgRho1bQ69H	vector
AgBni1	-	++	++	-	++	-
AgPkc1	-	++	++	-	++	-
AgSec3	-	-	-	-	+	-
AgFks1/2	-	-	-	-	-	-
AgSkn7	-	-	-	-	-	-
AgSte4	-	-	-	-	-	-
vector	-	-	-	-	-	-

the area of AgRho1b localization at the tip at 25°C overlaps with the area of cell wall biosynthesis, we observed a GFP-fusion to AgRho1b in aniline blue stained hyphae. Aniline blue is incorporated with $\beta(1,3)$ -glucan into the forming cell wall (Kippert and Lloyd, 1995). Therefore, short incubation times with aniline blue preferentially stain the sites of cell wall biosynthesis. As shown in figure 2C, an overlap of aniline blue staining and GFP-AgRho1b is observed in growing tips and newly emerging branches. This is indicative of a direct connection between localization of AgRho1b and cell wall biosynthesis.

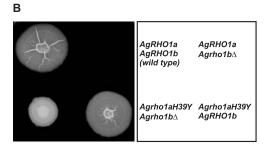
AgRHO1a does not function in glucan biosynthesis

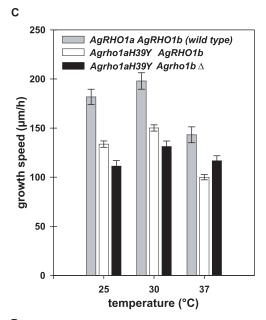
We performed complementation assays veast mutants to test the conclusion from the experiments above. S. cerevisiae is a close relative of A. gossypii but has no duplicated RHO1 gene. Therefore, complementation of S. cerevisiae rho1 mutants can be used to assay how the function of the A. gossypii RHO1 genes may have evolved. We constructed S. cerevisiae strains with an ORFreplacement of the ScRHO1 gene by each of the A. gossypii homologs resulting in a fusion of the A. gossypii genes to the ScRHO1 promoter. Figure 3A shows representative examples of a tetrad analysis of heterozygous strains carrying ScRHO1 and either AgRHO1a (left side) or AgRHO1b (right side). Out of 50 tetrads analyzed for AgRHO1a, all showed a 2:2 segregation for viability and none of the viable spores carried the marker for AgRHO1a proving that AgRHO1a is unable to complement loss of ScRHO1. In contrast, segregants of a similar strain where ScRHO1 is replaced by AgRHO1b are viable even though a 2:2 segregation with bigger and smaller colonies was observed. The small colonies carried the marker of AgRHO1b in

all cases. In addition to tetrad-analysis, we tested whether haploid cells, in which the genomic copy of ScRHO1 was replaced by either one of the AgRHO1 alleles, can be forced to loose a plasmid with an URA3 marker carrying the ScRHO1 gene on medium with 5-fluoroorotic acid. Consistent with the results from the tetrad analysis, plasmid loss was possible for Scrho1\Delta::AgRHO1b but not for Scrho1Δ::AgRHO1a. However, in contrast to the tetrad analysis where Scrho1Δ::AgRHO1b segregants were smaller, the Scrho1Δ::AgRHO1b strain grew like the wild type suggesting that the reason for the small size of the segregants is delayed germination and not a growth defect. To verify this, we tested the growth of the Scrho1Δ::AgRHO1b strain at high temperature (figure 3C). At 39°C, the Scrho1::AgRHO1b mutant behaves like the wild type suggesting that there is no growth defect associated with this ORF replacement.

The complementation assay indicates that AgRho1b and ScRho1 functions are conserved while the functions of AgRho1a and ScRho1 have diverged and that the functions of AgRho1b and ScRho1 probably reflect the functions of the common ancestor Rho1 protein. This raises the question whether AgRho1a lost the capability to act in both or only in one branch of ancestral Rho1 signalling. We performed complementation tests with temperature-sensitive alleles from both ScRHO1 complementation groups (Saka et al., 2001) to answer this question. Again, we used ORF-replacements of ScRHO1 with eihter A. gossypii RHO1, but in addition we integrated temperature sensitive ScRHO1 alleles at the LEU2 locus. We used the Scrho1-2 mutant that has a defect in the actin branch of Rho1 signalling and the Scrho1-4 mutant that has a defect in the glucan biosynthesis branch of Rho1 signalling (Saka et al., 2001). As shown in figure 3D (first row), cells with

Α conserved residues Y PTVF A.gossypii Rhola (Abr182w) A.gossypii Rholb (Abr183w) K.waltii Rhol Kwal_55.21937 K.waltii Rhol Kwal_55.21941 FPQ TVFDNYV (36-50)S.cerevisiae Rhol (Ypr165w) S.pombe Rhol (SPAC1F7.04) TVFENYV (35 - 49)TVFENYV FPD TVFENYV (30-44)C.elegans RhoA (51H4A.3) D.melanogaster Rhol (CG8416) M.musculus RhoA TVFENYV (30 - 44)H.sapiens RhoA TVFENYV





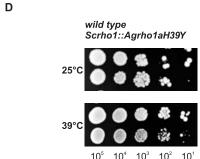


Fig. 4: An atypical histidine in the switch I region of AgRho1a. (A) Representative alignment of the switch I region of Rhotype proteins from several model organisms. Non-homologous residues are shaded grey. The residues corresponding to position 39 of AgRho1a is boxed. (B) An A. gossypii mutant with an exchange of histidine 39 for tyrosine (C115T) in AgRho1a is able to complement the lethality of an Agrho1b deletion. Spores from mycelia that are heterokaryotic for the indicated mutation were spotted on plates selective for the marker of the mutations to allow only growth of spores with indicated genotype. Plates were incubated for 4 days at 30°C. (C) Growth speed of the mutants shown in B. Identically sized inoculums of homokaryotic mycelia were placed on full medium plates and incubated at 30°C for 4 days. Growth speed was determined as the quotient of mycelial diameter and incubation time. (D) The Agrho1aH39Y mutant is able to complement the deletion of Scrho1 in S. cerevisiae. Yeast cells of the indicated strains were grown at 25°C in liquid medium to an OD₆₀₀ of 1. Dilutions with the indicated cell number were spotted on agar plates and

incubated at the indicated temperatures for 2 days.

the Scrho1 mutants from both complementation groups can grow at the permissive temperature (25°C) but die at the restrictive temperature (39°C). AgRHO1a partially complements the mutant with a defect in actin regulation (figure 3D, second row). Together with the latrunculin A sensitivity of the A. gossypii rhola Δ strain, this indicates that AgRho1a is involved in actin regulation. The major loss of function of AgRHO1a might have occurred in glucan biosynthesis as emphasized by the complete failure of AgRHO1a to complement the Scrho1-4 mutant with a defect in glucan biosynthesis. As expected from the ability of AgRHO1b to complement the loss of ScRHO1, AgRHO1b is able to fully complement the defects of mutants from both ScRHO1 complementation groups (figure 3D, third row).

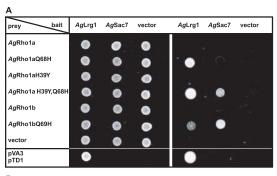
An atypical switch I region in AgRho1a

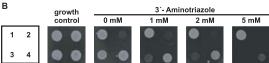
Since we were interested in the mechanism of evolution of the GTP-binding protein function after gene duplication, we wanted to know the molecular basis of the observed changes in AgRHO1a function. To identify differences between AgRho1a and AgRho1b, we compared the sequences of the homologs with each other and with more than 300 other Rho-type GTPbinding proteins from different organisms. We identified a single histidine residue at position 39 in the switch I region of AgRho1a that is a highly conserved tyrosine in all 323 Rho-type GTP-binding proteins we examined. This atypical switch I region is shown in an alignment with Rho-proteins of other model organisms in figure 4A. Resequencing of the AgRHO1a ORF verified the presence of the atypical histidine residue thus excluding a sequencing error. We speculated that

this single residue might contribute significantly to the difference in AgRho1a and AgRho1b function. If so, a mutant AgRho1a protein with a histidine to tyrosine exchange at position 39 should be able to take over the function of AgRho1b and consequently should be able to rescue the otherwise lethal deletion of AgRHO1b. To test this hypothesis, we mutated the cytosine at position 115 of AgRHO1a to a thymine resulting in a change from histidine 39 to tyrosine and integrated the mutated allele into an A. gossvpii wild-type strain at the original AgRHO1a locus. The resulting strain was viable (figure 4B) although its radial growth speed was slightly reduced compared to wild type (figure 4C). We then combined this mutation with a deletion of AgRHO1b. A strain with a heterokaryotic deletion of AgRHO1b was used as a control. Spores from the strain deleted for AgRHO1b did not give rise to a mycelium. However, the presence of Agrho1aH39Y restored growth and cells formed a mature mycelium in an Agrho1b∆ background (figure 4B). As shown in figure 4C, the growth speed of this strain was slower than wild type and the difference in growth speed was less pronounced at 37°C. We hypothesized that, unlike the wild-type AgRHO1a, the mutant Agrho1aH39Y would be capable to complement the lethality of an Scrho1 deletion. To test this, we replaced the ScRHO1 ORF with Agrho1aH39Y (figure 4D). In contrast to the wild-type AgRHO1a allele (figure 3A and 3B), Agrho1aH39Y fully restores growth in an Scrho1∆ background even under heat stress at 39°C. The complementation of the growth defects of an Agrho1b and an Scrho1 deletion is a strong indicator for the importance of the histidine 39 of AgRho1a for divergence of protein function between the two AgRho-proteins.

Histidine 39 of AgRho1a is responsible for GAP-specificity

We wondered how a single residue could influence the function of AgRho1a in such a dramatic way. The switch I region of small GTP-binding proteins, where the atypical histidine in AgRho1a is located, is one of the regions that undergo a nucleotide-dependent conformational change (Milburn et al., 1990) and thus is part of the major interaction interface with other proteins (Vetter and Wittinghofer, 2001). A survey of protein structures shows that the tyrosine residue that is homolgous to histidine 39 in AgRho1a is directly involved in interaction of RhoA, Rac1 and Cdc42 with other proteins (Dvorsky et al., 2004). Interestingly, none of the 13 different structures of protein complexes





1:pVA3/pTD1 2:vector/vector 3:Rho1aQ68H/Lrg1 4:Rho1aQ68H,H39Y/Lrg1

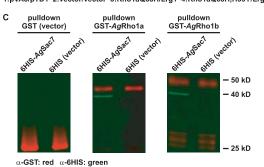


Figure 5: Rho-proteins and GAP interactions. (A) Twohybrid analysis of interactions between the AgRho1 proteins and potential GTPase activating proteins. The carboxy-terminal lipid-modification motif of the small GTP-binding proteins was truncated from their coding sequence to allow two-hybrid testing. The glutamate to histidine exchange in switch II mimics the GTP-bound state of the proteins. The histidine to tyrosine exchange is indicated by H39Y. The left panel shows a growth control on medium selective only for prey and bait plasmids. The medium in the right panel is also selective for interaction. (B) The H39Y mutation increases interaction strength of AgRho1a with AgLrg1. The indicated pray/bait combinations from A were additionally tested on medium containing different concentrations of 3-Aminotriazole to test interaction strength of the AgRho1aH39Y mutant protein with AgLrg1. The first image on the left side is the growth control. (C) Pulldown experiment in the presence of aluminium fluoride. Glutathion-S-Transferase (GST) or AgRho1a proteins fused to GST were bound to Glutathion-sepharose and washed. The eluted proteins were subjected to Western-blot analysis. The blot was probed with anti-GST (red) and anti-6HIS (green).

where the conserved tyrosine in the switch I region participated in the interaction interface involved an effector molecule. Instead, all complexes were formed with regulators of small GTP-binding proteins like GEFs, GDP-dissociation inhibitors (GDIs), and mainly GAPs. This suggests that the different functions of the two *AgRho1* proteins are not caused by different effector interactions.

Consistently, two-hybrid assays revealed that AgRho1 proteins do not differ greatly in their

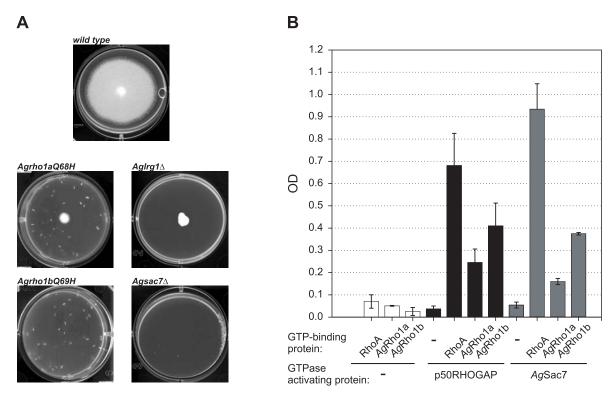


Fig. 6: GAP-activity on AgRho1 proteins. (A) Correlation of growth phenotypes of a mutant expressing GTP-locked AgRho1aQ68H with $AgIrg1\Delta$ and GTP-locked AgRho1b with $Agsac7\Delta$. Spores from mycelia that are heterokaryotic for the indicated allele were spotted on medium selecting for the mutation in 6 well plates with a diameter of 3.5 cm per well. Plates were incubated at 30°C for 2 days. The speckles are air bubbles in the agar. (B) AgSac7 GAP-activity towards AgRho1 proteins. The activities were determined as described in Material and Methods using 5 μ g of each protein (Rho and GAP) or buffer as a control. The optical density at 650 nm was determined against a control reaction with buffer only.

interaction with putative effector molecules that are known from *S. cerevisiae*. The only difference we observed was a weak interaction between AgRho1b and AgSec3 that is not found with AgRho1a (table 1). However, this difference is not responsible for the functional differences observed for the AgRho1 proteins since the interaction with AgSec3 was not influenced by a Agrho1bY40H or an Agrho1aH39Y mutation (not shown).

Instead, we speculated that the difference in function of the AgRho1 proteins might come from a different affinity of AgRho1a and AgRho1b to regulatory proteins. Since two important regulators of the different branches of ScRho1 signalling in S. cerevisiae are the two GAPs ScLrg1 and ScSac7 (Lorberg et al., 2001; Schmidt et al., 2002; Watanabe et al., 2001), we set up a two-hybrid assay to test for interaction of the homologous GAPs from A. gossypii with the AgRho1 proteins. As only the GTP-bound forms of the GTP-binding proteins interact with the GAPs, we used both, the wild-type and variants that carry a glutamine to histidine mutation in the switch I region, resulting in GTP-locked variants of the proteins. As shown in figure 5A, GTP-AgRho1a interacts with AgLrg1

but interaction with AgSac7 was barely detectable. This raises the question whether this interaction is completely absent or whether it is too weak to be detected by a two-hybrid assay. We addressed these possibilities by performing a coprecipitation of the two proteins in presence of aluminium fluoride. Aluminium fluoride forms a stable complex with GTP-binding proteins in the GDP-bound form and their GAPs mimicking a transition state of GTP hydrolysis (Ahmadian et al., 1997). If AgRho1a and AgSac7 interact, the complex between GAP, GTP-binding protein and aluminium fluoride can be pulled down even if the interaction is transient and weak. We performed this test by expression of GST-tagged AgRho1a and AgRho1b and the hexahistidine-tagged GAP-domain of AgSac7 in E. coli. The GAP-domain of AgSac7 can be pulled down with both AgRho1a and AgRho1b (figure 5C). Attempts to perform a similar experiment with AgLrg1 were unsuccessful because we were unable to express soluble AgLrg1 or AgLrg1 fragments. However, together with the two-hybrid data, the results for AgSac7 show that AgRho1a and AgSac7 do interact and can be copurified if the complex is stabilized although this interaction

is probably so weak that it is close to the detection level of the two-hybrid assay.

The situation for AgRho1b is exactly opposite to AgRho1a. GTP-AgRho1b shows only a weak two-hybrid interaction with AgLrg1 but a strong interaction with AgSac7 (figure 5A). AgLrg1 interaction with AgRho1b is stronger than the background detected with a vector control but clearly weaker than the interaction between AgSac7 and AgRho1b. We also tested AgRho1aH39Y to see if the mutation influences binding to a GAP. Indeed, the switch I-mutation resulted in a stronger interaction between AgRho1a and AgSac7. This change in interaction strength is probably the reason for the capability of an AgRho1aH39Y mutant to take over AgRho1b function. While increased interaction strength between AgRho1aH39Y and AgSac7 is obvious, we used 3-aminotriazole to estimate interaction strength for AgLrg1 (figure 5B). In this assay, yeast cells can grow on higher concentrations of 3-aminotriazole if they contain more of the HIS3 gene product. Therefore, stronger interaction between the bait and the prey of a two-hybrid assay leads to higher resistance against 3-aminotriazole. While yeast cells with wild-type AgRho1a as a bait and AgLrg1 as a prey do not grow on 2 mM 3-aminotriazole, a strain with AgRho1aH39Y can grow even on 5 mM 3-aminotriazole indicating a much stronger interaction between mutant AgRho1aH39Y and AgLrg1 compated to wild-type AgRho1a.

We constructed strains carrying a mutation that encodes dominant active forms of AgRho1a and AgRho1b and compared the phenotypes of these strains with phenotypes of strains deleted for either AgSAC7 or AgLRG1. Removal of a GAP from the regulatory circuit of a small GTP-binding protein should lead to an accumulation of a GTP-bound Rho protein and therefore to a phenotype that is similar to the GTPase-deficient form of the small GTP-binding protein. In support of our hypothesis, a deletion of AgLRG1 and introduction of a GTP asedeficient allele of AgRHO1a result in slow growth compared to wild type while deletion of AgSAC7 and a GTPase-deficient allele of AgRHO1b is lethal (figure 6A). Together with the two-hybrid data, these phenotypes support the idea that AgRho1a is the preferred target of AgLrg1 while AgRho1b might be the preferred target of AgSac7.

Our results suggest that GTP-hydrolysis of AgRho1a should be lower than GTP-hydrolysis of AgRho1b in presence of AgSac7. To test this, we expressed the GTP-binding proteins and the GAP-domains of these A. gossypii proteins in

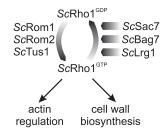
E. coli and purified them for an in vitro GAP-assay (figure 6B). The assay we used detects the release of phosphate from GTP-hydrolysis by a color reaction that can be monitored by an increase in absorbance of orange light ($\lambda = 650 \text{ nm}$). GTPhydrolysis of all control reactions, each GTPbinding protein and GAP on its own, is below OD 0.1. We used the GAP p50RhoGAP and the GTP-binding protein RhoA as a positive control. RhoA has the highest rate of GTP-hydrolysis with both human p50RhoGAP and the AgSac7 GAPdomain. With both of these GAPs, GTP-hydrolysis of AgRho1b was significantly higher than GTPhydrolysis of AgRho1a. The results obtained with AgSac7 show that the difference in interaction between the two AgRho1 proteins and AgSac7 results in different GTP hydrolysis and therefore in a different activation state of the two AgRho1 proteins in the cell.

Discussion

The initial question we addressed in this study was how the function of a Rho-type GTP-binding protein evolves after gene duplication. We found that during evolution, alteration of a single tyrosine to a histidine in one of the two encoded proteins can influence interaction with GTPase activating proteins. This simple change in the protein sequence has the dramatic effect of changing the function of the proteins thereby rewiring a whole signal transduction network without altering the specifity for effector proteins.

A condition that had to be met to study the mechanism of functional diversification of Rhotype GTP-binding proteins was that the duplicated genes have taken over different functions within the cell. We could show in the first part of our study that AgRho1a has diverged functionally from AgRho1b, while the function of the latter remained similar to the single ScRho1 of S. cerevisiae. The data from deletion analysis, localization and complementation studies indicate that AgRho1a is still involved in actin regulation but has lost the glucan biosynthesis function that is preserved in ScRho1 and AgRho1b. In addition, AgRho1a gained a novel function that prevents cell lysis at lower temperatures. The fact that both Rho1 proteins have different functions in A. gossypii raises the question why this could be an advantage for the cell. Different aspects have to be taken into account when answering this question. One

S. cerevisiae



A. gossypii

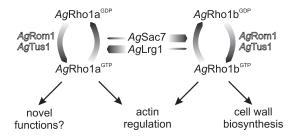


Figure 7: Model of Rho1 regulatory networks in *S. cerevisiae* and *A. gossypii*. *A. gossypii* homologs of Rho1 regulators known from *S. cerevisiae* that were not subject of our studies are printed in outline. Note that *ScROM1/ScROM2* and *ScSAC7/ScBAG7* are "Twin-ORFs" with only a single homolog of each pair in *A. gossypii*.

aspect is that there are far more Rho1 regulators present in *S. cerevisiae* than in *A. gossypii*. Figure 7 compares the core machinery of the Rho1 regulatory network of both organisms. The GEFs *Sc*Rom1 and *Sc*Rom2 (Ozaki et al., 1996), as well as the GAPs *Sc*Sac7 and *Sc*Bag7 (Schmidt et al., 2002), are so-called "Twin-ORFs", remnants of a whole genome duplication that occurred in the *S. cerevisiae* lineage (Dietrich et al., 2004).

The increased number of regulatory proteins in *S. cerevisiae* adds a level of complexity to *Sc*Rho1 regulation and thus might allow the adaptation of *Sc*Rho1 activity in response to a variety of intra-and extracellular signals. The *RHO1* duplication in *A. gossypii* might have been maintained in the genome because it simply expands the organism's capacity to fine-tune Rho1 activity to a similar level as it is possible with duplication of several GAPs or GEFs.

Furhtermore, duplication of the *AgRHO1* genes might be advantageous for the filamentous life style of *A. gossypii*. In budding yeast, cell growth, cell cycle and cell division are tightly connected (Philippsen et al., 2005). The majority of glucan biosynthesis occurs during polar growth when the new bud is formed. Thus, full Rho1 activity

in glucan biosynthesis is only required during a specific period of the cell cycle, the two different branches of ScRho1 activity might be temporally restricted. Temporal restriction of polar growth is not present in A. gossypii. Rather, polar growth is active in the filamentous fungus all the time (Philippsen et al., 2005) and requires a highly active glucan biosynthesis. Thus presence of a second, independently regulated Rho1 protein that is not involved in cell wall synthesis would allow the cell to uncouple the different branches of the Rho1 signalling pathway.

This raises the question how this uncoupling is reflected in the protein sequence or, with other words, what is the mechanism behind functional diversification after gene duplication? It is commonly assumed that, after such a duplication event, mutations alter the specificity of the Rho and its effectors. However, a large study of switchof-function mutations with the Ras-Superfamily revealed that mutations outside the effector interaction interface can induce a switch of function (Heo and Meyer, 2003). In addition it was suggested for three closely related Rac proteins that their different function is not due to different effector proteins. Instead a different nucleotide binding capability and a different activation by a GEF are responsible for functional diversification (Haeusler et al., 2003). Our data strongly supports the idea of an effector-independent functional diversification of the A. gossypii Rho1 proteins because they share most of the effectors already known from S. cerevisiae. The only difference between AgRho1a and AgRho1b we detected on the effector level using the two-hybrid system was the very weak interaction of AgSec3 with AgRho1b but not with AgRho1a. As Sec3 in S. cerevisiae is a component of the exocyst, which is responsible for the delivery of vesicles to the growing tip (Guo et al., 2001), it is possible that this also contributes to the cell wall biosynthesis pathway that is regulated by AgRholb. However this interaction is not affected by a tyrosine to histidine mutation in the switch I region, which makes it very unlikely that it contributes to the functional switch we observe in the Agrho1aH39Y mutant.

If it is not the different effectors that are responsible for the different AgRho1a and AgRho1b functions, it can only be the regulatory proteins, namely GEFs and GAPs. As stated above, a duplication of a Rho-encoding gene alone is not sufficient to gain novel functions. One or both of the encoded proteins would have to change their GAP- and GEF specificity in order to be differently regulated.

This diversification could only arise by mutation in the concerned genes. The histidine at position 39 of AgRho1a represents a mutation that occurred during evolution and alters interaction of AgRho1a with regulatory proteins. The homologous residue in the 323 other Rho-proteins (including AgRho1b and ScRho1) was, without exception, a conserved tyrosine. Consistently, it was possible to revert AgRho1a function to AgRho1b function by simply changing histidine 39 of AgRho1a to a tyrosine. The resulting AgRho1aH39Y was able to compensate for the loss of AgRHO1b while an $Agrho1b\Delta$ mutant alone was not viable. The atypical histidine 39 of AgRhola is found in the switch I region, which is known to interact with GAPs in various small GTP-binding proteins. For this reason, we investigated the interactions of AgRho1a and AgRho1b with the two Rho1 GAPs AgLrg1 and AgSac7. We found that Rho1a interacts preferentially with AgLrg1 and only weakly with AgSac7.

AgRho1b on the other hand shows strong interaction AgSac7. The difference in two-hybrid interaction strength is reflected by the ability of AgSac7 to activate GTP-hydrolysis more efficiently for AgRho1b than for AgRho1a as shown in an in-vitro GTPase activity assay. Interestingly, strong interaction with the Rho GAPs seems to be crucial for AgRho1b function, since AgRho1aH39Y can provide cell viability in absence of AgRho1b and shows GAP interaction similar to AgRho1b. This finding implies that precisely controlled GTPhydrolysis is critical for the different AgRho1 functions. First, it could be possible that not only GAP but also GEF interactions, which were not tested in this study, are altered. However, a GTPase deficient AgRHO1a allele was not able to rescue $Agrho1b\Delta$ (our own unpublished data). Thus, increasing the GTP-bound pool of AgRho1a, which would be a consequence of increased GEF affinity, did not have a similar effect as the Agrho1aH39Y mutation. Second, it is possible that AgLrg1 and AgSac7 localization and/or activity are controlled by input from other signalling pathways. An example for this is the Cdc28dependent phosphorylation of Sac7 in budding yeast (Ubersax et al., 2003). Subsequently, GAPactivity is not uniformly distributed in the cell. A difference in GAP-specificity could thus lead to a completely different temporal and spatial distribution of GTP- and GDP-bound AgRho1a and AgRho1b. Since interactions with known Rho1 effectors are virtually identical between AgRho1a and AgRho1b, the AgRho1aH39Y GAP-affinity

that resembles the GAP-affinity of AgRho1b might lead to a AgRho1b-like distribution of GTPbound AgRho1aH39Y and thus to an activation of downstream events that are otherwise regulated by AgRho1b. Third, small GTP-binding proteins often not only work as on/off switches. The cycling between the GDP- and the GTP-bound form is important for functionality as it was shown for Cdc42 in yeast (Gladfelter et al., 2002). The same study characterized an Sccdc42 mutant that had a tyrosine to histidine exchange like it is present in AgRho1a. In agreement with our results, this Sccdc42 mutant could not be activated to the same level of GTPase activity by its GAP compared to wild-type ScCdc42 with a tyrosine in switch I. Therefore, AgRho1a H39Y might be able to compensate for loss of AgRHO1b by having similar GDP/GTP cycling properties as AgRho1b and thus mimic AgRho1b action.

Even though the AgRho1a histidine residue in the switch I region is atypical for Rho-type proteins, it can be found in other GTP-binding proteins suggesting that the histidine mutation in the switch I region might be a general theme in evolution for diversification of small GTP-binding protein functions. Rin, Rit and Ric are examples of GTP-binding proteins that also have a histidine residue at a homologous position (Lee et al., 1996; Wes et al., 1996). Rit and Rin were shown to have a slower intrinsic GTP-hydrolysis rate than most other GTP-binding proteins, which might be caused by the histidine residue in their switch I region (Shao et al., 1999). Taking the knowledge from our study into account, it might be possible that these proteins, like AgRhola, did not diverge from other GTP-binding proteins by altering effector but regulator interaction. Interestingly, these proteins, like the AgRho1 proteins, seem to be important for sustained polar growth. They are found in neuronal cells, and Rit as well as Rin were recently shown to act in neurite outgrowth by interaction with the key cell polarity regulator PAR6 (Hoshino and Nakamura, 2003; Hoshino et al., 2005). It might be an interesting hypothesis to test if GTP-binding proteins with a histidine in switch I have an altered cycling-kinetic that is advantageous for polar growth.

Taken together, we find that GTP-binding protein function can evolve independently from effector interaction. In addition, we could show that a single change in the protein sequence was the most important step during this evolution.

Material and methods

Nomenclature

According to the guidelines used for the *A. gossypii* gene annotation, we refer in this manuscript to *ABR183W* as *AgRHO1b* and to *ABR182W* as *AgRHO1a*, while in an initial characterization the authors referred to *AgRHO1a* as *RHOH* (Walther and Wendland, 2005).

Ashbya gossypii strains and growth conditions

Agleu2Δthr4Δ was used as a reference strain. Deletion strains were constructed by PCR-based gene targeting according to the method described by Wendland et al. (2000). All oligonucleotides and corresponding mutants are listed in Supplemental Table S1. Plasmid pGEN3 was used as a template if the mutant strain is G418 resistant and plasmid pUC19NATPS was used in the case of CloNAT resistance. The strains were verified by PCR with primers binding inside the marker genes and primers binding close to the integration site.

Mutants carrying single amino acid exchanges in the genome were constructed as follows. The Agrho1aC115T mutants were generated by transformation of either the reference strain (for Agrho1aC115T) or the Agrho1b deletion strain (for $Agrho1aC115T Agrho1b\Delta$) with the 4.2 kb EcoRI/ SalI fragment from pHPS299. This fragment contained the mutated Agrho1a gene together with the Gen3 marker and flanking regions for integration via homologous recombination. The Agrho1aQ68H strain was generated by transformation of the reference strainwith the 3.9 kb SphI fragment from pMK1a*. This fragment is similar to the one above except for the mutation in Agrho1a. The Agrho1bQ69H strain was generated by transformation of the reference strain with the 3.8 kb *Pst*I fragment from pMK1b*. This fragment carries the mutated Agrho1b also together with the Gen3 marker and regions for homologous integration. Mutated alleles were amplified by PCR and checked by restriction digest for presence of the desired mutation. Primers used for amplification were Rho1a_compl and AgRho1a-mutrev for Agrho1aC115T resulting in a 510 bp fragment, AgRho1a-ATG and AgRho1a-TAG for Agrho1aQ68H resulting in a 620 bp fragment and AgRho1b-ATG and AgRho1b-TAG for Agrho1bQ69H resulting in a 620 bp fragment. The mutation introduced inserted a *BgI*II restriction site into the *Agrho1aC115T* construct and to *Bss*SI restriction sites in both other mutant fragments. Presence of the mutation was indicated by fragments of 328 bp and 182 bp for the digest of the *Agrho1aC115T* product and by fragments of 410 bp and 210 bp for the digest of both other PCR-products. In addition the correct integration of the mutated alleles was verified with PCR. The primers are listed in Supplemental Table S3.

Integration of deletion cassettes and mutagenized alleles always occurred only in few nuclei of the multinucleated mycelium leading to a heterokaryotic situation, where some nuclei still carried the wild-type allele. Homokaryotic strains that carry the desired mutation in all nuclei were generated by separation of single spores with single nuclei followed by selection on the marker of the mutation.

Strains were grown at the temperature indicated either in AFM (Ashbya Full Medium) with or without Geneticin or ClonNAT, or in synthetic medium when selecting for auxotrophic markers (Knechtle et al., 2003).

Saccharomyces cerevisiae strains and growth conditions

The genotypes of all strains used in this study are listed in Supplemental Table S2. DSH1 was constructed by PCR-based gene targeting according to the method described by Wach et al. (1994) using primers pC1-ScRHO1 and pC2-ScRHO1 together with pCORE as a template. HPS2 and HPS3 were constructed similarly with primers Sc-AgRHO1a-ATG (for AgRHO1a) or AgRHO1b-ATG (for AgRHO1b) and Rho1 integrator using either pHPS262 (for AgRHO1a) or pHPS263 (for AgRHO1b) as a template. These vectors contain either one of the AgRho1 genes together with the KanMX resistance cassette. Transformation of the product from such a PCR leads to replacement of the S. cerevisiae RHO1 gene by its A. gossypii homologs generating a fusion with the ScRHO1 promoter and thereby preventing artefacts that come from differences in function of heterologous promoters. The three strains DSH1, HPS2 and HPS2 built the basis for all other strains. All three were transformed with integrative vectors (pHPS254, pHPS256, pHPS258) cut with EcoRV for integration into the LEU2 locus. The plasmids contained ScRHO1, ScRHO1-2 or ScRHO1-4 together with promoter and terminator. Using this method yielded the diploid strains HPS4, HPS5,

HPS7, HPS9, HPS10, HPS12, HPS31, HPS34 and HPS24. Haploid strains carrying both integrated constructs were selected by tetrad analysis. The strain HPS40 was generated similar to HPS2 except for the fact that the Agrho1aC115T was first integrated into a vector containing the ScRHO1 with flanking regions. The resulting vector pHPS317 was then used as template in a PCR reaction with the primers Sc-AgRHO1a-ATG and Rho1 integrator. The resulting product was transformed into S. cerevisiae for homologous integration.

S. cerevisiae strains were grown at 30° C. If different temperatures were used, this is indicated in the Figures. Media were used according to Amberg et al. (2005).

DNA manipulations and sequencing

All DNA Manipulations were carried out according to Sambrook et al. (2001) with DH5 α F' as host (Hanahan, 1983). Sequencing was done using an ABI DNA Sequencer according to the instructions of the manufacturer. Plasmids were isolated from yeast using the Roche "High Pure Plasmid Purification Kit" according to the instruction manual for plasmid preparation from E. coli but with the following modifications: 5 ml of a yeast culture were collected by centrifugation and the supernatant discarded. The cells were resuspended in solution 1 and 0.2 g of 0.5 mm glass beads were added. Cells were lysed by vortexing for 8 min at 4 °C. From here on the instructions of the manufacturer were followed, only the elution volume was decreased to 20 ul. 10 ul of the eluted fraction were transformed into E. coli for plasmid amplification.

Plasmids and constructs

All plasmids and constructs are listed in Supplemental Table S4 together with construction details. Sequences of most plasmids constructed for this study are available from the authors upon request.

Overlay assay for lysis quantification

The overlay assay for detection of cellular lysis was adopted from Saka et al. (2001). $4 \mu l$ of a mycelia suspension was spotted on AFM plates for every strain and incubated at 30°C for 36 h. The plates were then shifted to 25°C, 30°C or

37°C over night (about 14 h) and overlaid in the morning with lysis indicator agarose containing 10 mM BCIP (5-Bromo-4-chloro-3-indonyl phosphate disodium salt). Lysis indicator agarose (10 ml of 0.05 M Glycine-HCl buffer pH 9.5 in and 1 % agarose for routine use (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, USA) was boiled in a microwave oven and allowed to cool down to 50°C under constant stirring. The BCIP was added and dissolved and the warm agar was immediately poured over the mycelia. The plates were scanned after 90 min of incubation at room temperature using an EPSON Perfection 1200 PHOTO scanner (Long Beach, USA) and the average signal intensity of the blue channel of an area of 2960 pixels of the RGB image was determined using Metamorph v6.2 software (Universal Imaging Corporation, Downingtown, USA). Lysis of deletion strains was calculated relative to negative (wild type) and positive control strains (Agslt2 deletion).

Image acquisition and processing

For microscopy, cells were grown overnight in selective full or in selective synthetic minimal medium. Cells were then placed on slides with small cavities that were filled with half concentrated AFM with 2% glucose and 0.5% agarose and grown for 2 hours at the temperature indicated before they were placed under the microscope. The setup used for in vivo fluorescence microscopy consisted of a Zeiss Axioplan2e (Carl Zeiss, Jena, Germany) equipped with 100x alpha-Plan Fluar objective (NA 1.45) and differentialinterference-contrast. Images were acquired using a Photometrics CoolSNAP HO Camera (Roper Scientific, Tucson, USA). Fluorescence was excited with a Xenon-lamp and appropriate filtersets were used to adjust excitation and emission wavelengths. The setup was controlled by Metamorph v6.2 (Universal Imaging Corporation, Downingtown, USA). Brightfield images were acquired as single planes using differentialinterference-contrast. Images were scaled using Metamorphs scale image command and Huygens essential software was used for deconvolution of the images. The processed images were overlayed using Metamorphs overlay images command.

Two-hybrid experiments

For two-hybrid experiments prey and bait plasmids were transformed into a and α derivatives of *S. cerevisiae* strain PJ69-4a. Strains were crossed

and selected on minimal medium without leucine and tryptophane but containing a four-fold concentration (80 mg/l) of adenine. Transformants were grown in the same liquid medium to an OD_{600} of about 1. Of these, 5 μ l were spotted on plates without leucine, tryptophane and histidine for selection on interaction. To test the strength of interactions 5-aminotriazole was added to the media at the concentration indicated.

Protein expression and Purification

Allproteins were expressed using *E.coli* BL21(DE3) as a host (Stratagene, La Jolla, USA). Induction, expression and GST-purification was performed as described in detail by Smith and Rittinger (2002). Purification of the hexa-histidine-tagged *Ag*Sac7p was performed using an ÄKTA FPLC system (GE Healthcare Life Sciences, Pittsburgh, USA) with 1 ml HisTrap FF column according to the instructions of the manufacturer. Lysis buffer consisted of 100mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 300mM NaCl and 2mM β-Mercaptoethanol. Elution buffer was 100mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 300mM NaCl, 2mM β-Mercaptoethanol and 500mM Imidazol.

Pulldown assays

GST-pulldown of GAP and GTP-binding proteins was performed in the presence of aluminiumfluoride by addition of 10 mM NaF and 450 µM AlCl, to lysis and washing buffers for stabilization of the complex. Apart from the addition of aluminiumfluoride buffers and conditions used were similar to the purification of GST-tagged proteins described above. Western blots were visualized using an Odyssey infrared imaging system (Li-Cor, Lincoln, Nebraska USA) according to the protocol of the manufacturer using anti-GST from rabbit (G7781 Sigma, St. Louis, USA) and anti-Penta-HIS from mouse (34660 Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) as primary and anti-rabbit coupled to IRdve700 (611-730-127, Rockland Immunochemicals Inc., Gilbertsville, USA) and anti-mouse coupled to IRdye800 (926-32210, Li-Cor, Lincoln, USA) as secondary antibodies.

In vitro GAP-assay

The *in vitro GAP-assay* was performed using the "RhoGAP assay Biochem Kit" (BK105, Cytoskeleton Inc., Denver, USA) according to

the instructions of the manufacturer. RhoA and p50RhoGAP were controls supplied with the kit.

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Table 2: A. gossypii strains

strain	genotype	reference
Δlt	Agleu 2Δ Agthr 4Δ kan ^s	Altmann-Johl and
		Philippsen 1996
Agrho1a∆	Agleu2Δ Agthr4Δ Agrho1aΔ::Gen3	this study
Agrho1b∆	Agleu2Δ Agthr4Δ Agrho1bΔ::Gen3	this study
Agslt2∆	Agleu2Δ Agthr4Δ Agslt2Δ:: Gen3	this study
$Aglrgl\Delta$	Agleu2Δ Agthr4Δ Aglrg1Δ:: CloNAT	this study
Agsac7∆	Agleu2Δ Agthr4Δ Agsac7Δ:: Gen3	this study
Agrho1aC115T	Agleu2Δ Agthr4Δ Agrho1aC115T::Gen3	this study
Agrho1aC115T Agrho1b∆	Agleu2Δ Agthr4Δ Agrho1aC115T::Gen3	this study
Agrho1aQ68H	Agleu2Δ Agthr4Δ Agrho1aC115T::Gen3	this study
Agrho1bQ69H	Agleu2Δ Agthr4Δ Agrho1aC115T::Gen3	this study

Table 3: S. cerevisiae strains

strain	genotype	reference
DHD5	MAT a /MAT α ura3-52/ura3-52 leu2-3,112/leu2-3,112 his3-11,15/his3-11,15	Arvanitidis and Heinisch 1994
PJ69-4a	MATa trp1-901 leu2-3,112 ura3-52 his3-200 gal4 Δ gal80 Δ LYS2::GAL1-HIS3 GAL2-ADE2 met2::GAL7-lacZ	James et al. 1996
PJ69-4α	$MAT\pmb{\alpha}$ trp1-901 leu2-3,112 ura3-52 his3-200 gal4 Δ gal80 Δ LYS2::GAL1-HIS3 GAL2-ADE2 met2::GAL7-lacZ	Uetz et al. 2000
HPS2	MAT a /MAT α ura3-52/ura3-52 leu2-3_112/ leu2-3_112 his3-11,15/his3-11,15 RHO1/rho1::AgRHO1a-HISMX	this study
HPS3	MAT a /MAT α ura3-52/ura3-52 leu2-3_112/ leu2-3_112 his3-11,15/his3-11,15 RHO1/rho1::AgRHO1b-HISMX	this study
DSH1	MATa/MATα ura3-52/ura3-52 leu2-3_112/leu2-3_112 his3-11,15/his3-11,15 Δrho1::KanMX- KIURA3/RHO1	this study
HPS4	MAT a /MAT α ura3-52/ura3-52 leu2-3_112/ leu2-3_112::LEU2-RHO1 his3-11,15/his3-11,15 RHO1/rho1::AgRHO1a-HISMX	this study
HPS5	MATa/MATα ura3-52/ura3-52 leu2-3_112/ leu2-3_112::LEU2-rho1-2 his3-11,15/his3-11,15 RHO1/rho1::AgRHO1a-HISMX	this study
HPS7	MATa/MATa_ura3-52/ura3-52 leu2-3_112/ leu2-3_112::LEU2-rho1-4 his3-11,15/his3-11,15 RHO1/rho1::AgRHO1a-HISMX	this study
HPS9	MATa/MATa ura3-52/ura3-52 leu2-3_112/ leu2-3_112::LEU2-RHO1 his3-11,15/his3-11,15 RHO1/rho1::AgRHO1b-HISMX	this study
HPS10	MATa/MATa ura3-52/ura3-52 leu2-3_112/ leu2-3_112::LEU2-rho1-2 his3-11,15/his3-11,15 RHO1/rho1::AgRHO1b-HISMX	this study
HPS12	MATa/MATa ura3-52/ura3-52 leu2-3_112/ leu2-3_112::LEU2-rho1-4 his3-11,15/his3-11,15 RHO1/rho1::AgRHO1b-HISMX	this study
HPS31	MATa/MATα ura3-52/ura3-52 leu2-3_112/leu2-3_112::LEU2-RHO1 his3-11,15/his3-11,15 Δrho1::KanMX-KIURA3/RHO1	this study
HPS34	MATa/MATa ura3-52/ura3-52 leu2-3_112/leu2-3_112::LEU2-rho1-2 his3-11,15/his3-11,15 Δrho1::KanMX-KIURA3/RHO1	this study
HPS24	MAT a /MAT α ura3-52/ura3-52 leu2-3_112/leu2-3_112::LEU2-rho1-4 his3-11,15/his3-11,15 Δrho1::KanMX-KIURA3/RHO1	this study
HPS32	MAT a ura3-52 leu2-3 112::LEU2-RHO1 his3-11,15 Δrho1::KanMX	this study
HPS35	MAT a ura3-52 leu2-3_112::LEU2-rho1-2 his3-11,15 Δrho1::KanMX	this study
HPS57	MAT a ura3-52 leu2-3 112::LEU2-rho1-4 his3-11,15 Δrho1::KanMX	this study
HPS17	MATa ura3-52 leu2-3_112::LEU2-rho1-4 his3-11,15 rho1::AgRHO1a-HISMX	this study
HPS29	MATa ura3-52 leu2-3_112::LEU2-RHO1 his3-11,15 rho1::AgRHO1a-HISMX	this study
HPS54	MAT a ura3-52 leu2-3_112::LEU2-rho1-2 his3-11,15 rho1::AgRHO1a-HISMX	this study
HPS19	MATa ura3-52 leu2-3_112::LEU2-RHO1 his3-11,15 rho1::AgRHO1b-HISMX	this study
<i>HPS46</i>	MAT a ura3-52 leu2-3_112::LEU2-rho1-2 his3-11,15 rho1::AgRHO1b-HISMX	this study
HPS47	MATa ura3-52 leu2-3_112::LEU2-rho1-4 his3-11,15 rho1::AgRHO1b-HISMX	this study
HPS40	MAT a ; ura3-52; leu2-3_112; his3D1; MAL2-8C; SUC2; rho1::SpHIS3/RHO1a(C ₁₁₅ T)	this study

Table 4: Oligonucleotides

ame	sequence	use
ho1a-S1	CTTATACTCGGACAATAACAGGCTGGGAAGTGACAGTTTCAGAAATgctaggg	Agrhola
	ataacagggtaat	deletion
ho1a-S2	GGATATGTAATTGACCGATGACTATGGATGCGGCGGCCGCGTaggcatgc aagcttagatct	Agrho1a deletion
	GACCACTAGCTCGTTGCGCTGCAATATAATAATAAGAACGAGgctagggataacag	Agrho1b
ho1b-S1	ggtaat	deletion
ho1b-S2	GTATTCAATCAACTATGTGAGTAGTTTCTTGTAGGCAGTCTCCaggcatgcaagctt	Agrho1b
11010-32	agatct	deletion
lt2-S1	CGGGAGTAAAGTGAAATAAATAACGAAGTACTTACGGAAACTATAGgctaggg	
	ataacagggtaat	deletion
lt2-S2	CATCGGGCTCACGGGCGCACGACGTGAACGACGAGAACGAAACAGCAAG aggcatgcaagcttagatct	Agslt2 deletion
	GGTACCAATACGATCAGCAAGGGTAAGATAGGAAGTGCTACTGTTTTTCatg	Aglrg1
gLrg1-NAT5'	ggtaccactcttgacgac	deletion
-I 1 NIATO!	TAAGAGTCTGATAGTACATACACTCATTATATTGAAAATGAGATCTGGgcttag	Aglrg1
gLrg1-NAT3'	gggcagggcatgctc	deletion
gSAC7-F2	ATATAGACATATTCAGCAATTACGATACTATACTTTACTTCATCC c cat gattac g c	
55:10, 12	caagettge	deletion
gSAC7-NS1	GACCGCGCGCAGAAGCAGGGGACAGTGAGCGTGGGAGGGGCGGAGccagtg	Agsac7 deletion
	aattcgagctcgg	CloNAT
2_NAT1	GTGTCGTCAAGAGTGGTACC	verification
2 MATI	A CATTO A COATTO COCOTO COCO	CloNAT
3_NAT1	ACATGAGCATGCCCTGCCCC	verification
3	TCGCAGACCGATACCAGGATC	Gen3
3	redendreedimeenddire	verification
2.3	GGAGGTAGTTTGCTGATTGG	Gen3
		verification $Agrhola\Delta$
elRho1aG1	GCGTTTCCATAGCTCAAGCAGCGCCC	verification
elRho1aG4		Agrho1a∆
	CAGCGGACAACGGCTCGGCGTTGCTC	verification
1:Rho1b_vPCR_sense	CCACTAGCTCGTTGCGCTGC	$Agrholb\Delta$
	CCACTAGCTCGTTGCGCTGC	verification
4:Rho1b_vPCR_ant	CCCGCCCATCACCAGTAAAC	Agrho1b∆
		verification
lt2-G1	GCCGGTATGACGCCATGTTC	$Agslt2\Delta$
lt2-G2		verification $Agslt2\Delta$
112-02	CGACGTGAACGACGGAGAAC	verification
gLrg1-G1		Aglrg1∆
88	GCGATGCCCGCCATTCTATTTC	verification
gLrg1-G4	TOTTCOOCCATOCTTTOCTC	$Aglrgl\Delta$
	TGTTGCGGGATGCTTTGCTG	verification
gSAC7-G1	CGTCGCACTGAAGCACTGAGCC	Agsac7∆
	coredene romacheronaec	verification
gSAC7-G4	GGTTGGATGCTGATTCTGCTG	Agsac7∆
-D1-1- C115T		verification
gRho1a-C115T gRho1a-mutrev	GGGCAGTTCCCGGAGATCtATGTGCCCAC GATCTCCGGGAACTGCCCTTTGGAGAACAC	mutagenesis mutagenesis
gRho1b-C118-120T	GGGAAAGTTCCCACAGGTGcAcGTTCCTACGG	mutagenesi
gRho1b-mutrev	CACCTGTGGGAACTTTCCCTTGGCAAACAC	mutagenesi
gRHO1a-TAGneu	CGAC <u>GGATCC</u> TATTTCTTCTTCTTGTCACC	cloning,
	COAC <u>OOATCC</u> TATTTCTTCTTCTTCTTCTCACC	verification
gRHO1a-ATG	GAGATCGAATTCATGGCGTACCAGACAGGCGGCA	cloning,
-DHO11- TAC		verification
gRHO1b-TAGneu	CGAC <u>GGATCC</u> TACTTTTTCTTCTTCTTGTCAGAC	cloning, verification
gRHO1b-ATG		cloning,
gidi010-A10	GATC <u>GAATTC</u> ATGTCTCAGCAAATGCATAAC	verification
4 rho1a* ins	OTTTOCOTTCCCA A A CA	AgrholaQ6
	CTTTCCCTTGGCAAACA	H verification
4_Rho1b*_ins	GAAACACGGCTTTACCTACG	~
	GAAACACGGCTTTACCTACG	Agrho1bQ6 H verification Agrho1aQ6

AgRHO1b	TACGGCCGTTATCGTACCCAGACTCC	Agrho1bQ69
Rho1a_compl	CTATGAGACTTCCGCTCCAATAGC	H verification verification
AgRho1a-mutrev	GATCTCCGGGAACTGCCCTTTGGAGAACAC CTAATAGAAATCATAGAACTTTAAAAATTATACTAGAAAGatggcgtaccagaca	verification ScRHO1 ORF
Sc-AgRHO1a-ATG	ggcgg CTAATAGAAAATCATAGAACTTTAAAAATTATACTAGAAAGatgtctcagcaaatgc	replacement ScRHO1 ORF
Sc-AgRHO1b-ATG	ataac	replacement
Rho1-integrator	GCAGTATCTGCCACTAAGTTAACGACTGAGAGATCGAGACACTCgaattcgagct cgtttaaac	ScRHO1 ORF replacement
pGADAGLRG1-ATG	CGATGATGAAGATACCCCACCAAACCCAAAAAAAAGAGATCATGACTAATA TACAGAAGCCACAGC	in vivo rekombination
pGADAGLRG1-TAG	GGGTTTTTCAGTATCTACGATTCATAGATCTCTGCAGGTCGACTTATTTAT	in vivo rekombination
pGADAgSAC7-ATG	CTATTCGATGATGAAGATACCCCACCAAACCCAAAAAAAA	in vivo rekombination
pGADAGSAC7-TAG	GGTTTTTCAGTATCTACGATTCATAGATCTCTGCAGGTCGACTATGTTGCTG ACCTAGAGCGGCTC	in vivo rekombination
behindAgRho1aS1	CCACGGTGACAAGAAGAAGAAGAAATGTCTGGTCCTGTGAgctagggataacaggg taat	integration
behindAgRho1aS2	$\label{eq:total-total-total-total} GTATGTAATTGACCGATGACTATGGATGCGGCGGCGGCGTaggcatgcaagcttagat \ ct$	integration
behindAgRho1aS1	CCACGGTGACAAGAAGAAGAAGAAATGTCTGGTCCTGTGAgctagggataacaggg taat	integration
behindAgRho1aS2	$\label{eq:total} GTATGTAATTGACCGATGACTATGGATGCGGCGGCCGCGTaggcatgcaagcttagatct$	integration
AgLRG1-LoxATG	GAAGTTATCAGTCGACtgactaatatacagaagccacagc	cloning
AgLRG1-LoxTAA	ATGGTCTAGAAAGCTTtatttatggatttctaccttcgtcac	cloning
AgSAC7-LoxATG	GAAGTTATCAGTCGACtgagtgagcagggcgcgctg	cloning
AgSAC7-LoxTAA	ATGGTCTAGAAAGCTTatgttgctgacctagagcggctcc	cloning
pGEXAgRho1aBam	CCGCGT <u>GGATCC</u> ATGGCGTACCAGACAGGCGGCAAC	cloning
pGEXAgRho1aEco	CACGAT <u>GAATTC</u> TCACAGGACCAGACATTTCTTCTTC	cloning
pGEXAgRho1bBam	GCGT <u>GGATCC</u> ATGTCTCAGCAAATGCATAACCC	cloning
pGEXAgRho1bEco	CACGATGAATTCCTACAAGACCACACACTTTTTCTTC	cloning
AgSAC7GAP-BGLII	GCGCAGATCTCCGGCGTCGGTGCACGCGGTGCCG	cloning
AgSAC7GAP-HINDIII	GCGCAAGCTTATCCGCAACATTACTATACTGG	cloning
AgLRG1GAP-BGLII	CGCGAGATCTCTTCTGCCCCAAACACCCAAGTC	cloning
AgLRG1GAP-HINDIII	GCGCAAGCTTATTAATCAGGTAATCCACAGTTTCAATG	cloning
Rho1aQH1	GTGGACATCGACGGGCGACGCGTAGAGCTGGCACTGTGGGATACAGCGGG	mutagenesis
Rho1aQH2	CCACGAGGAC CATTGGATCCGGGTACGACAATGGCCGCAGCCGGTCGTAGTCCTCGTGGC	mutagenesis
Rho1a-pC1	CCGCTGTAT GGGCGACGCGTAGAGCTGGCACTGTGGGATACAGCGGGCCgagetegttttegaeaet	mutagenesis
•	gg GGAATCCGGGTACGACAATGGCCGCAGCCGGTCGTAGTCCTCtccttaccattaagtt	C
Rho1a-pC2	gate CATTGGAGTCTGGGTACGATAACGGCCGTAGCCTGTCGTAATCCTC GTG AG	mutagenesis
Rho1b_Q-H_as_ok	CCGTAT	mutagenesis
Int_Rho1a*_s1	CCGCCTACATATCCTACTATAAGCGTACATCTGCTGCGCGgctagggataacaggtaat	integration
Int_Rho1a*_s2*	AGCGATCAATAGTTAATAATCCGTAGCCTCGGCAACGCAGaagcttagatctgatgag gccg	integration
Int_Rho1b*_s1	CCGCATAGCACTGGAGCGAAATGATCTGCAAAATTCCGAAgctagggataacagggt aat	integration
Int_Rho1b*_s2	$\label{eq:GCTCAAGTTTCTTTATTGATGGGACAGACGTGCTGTCGGGaggcatgcaagcttagatct} t$	integration
Rho1b_del_S1	CCACTAGCTCGTTGCGCTGCAATATAATAATAAGAACGAGgctagggataacagggt aat	deletion
Rho1b_del_S2	GTATTCAATCAACTATGTGAGTAGTTTCTTGTAGGCAGTCaggcatgcaagcttagatc t	deletion
pGADAgPkc1ATG	TGAAGATACCCCACCAAAACCCAAAAAAAAGAGATCGAATTCatgggagcagcgatga tgaac	in vivo rekombination
pGADAgPkc1TAG	AGTATCTACGATTCATAGATCTCTGCAGGTCGACGGATCCttatagcacaagatcatca	in vivo rekombination
AgSec3-Bam	GTATAAGTTGGATCCGGCGAGAAGGCGGAAAGCTCCTTG	cloning
AgSec3-Eco	GAGATCGAAATCATGTTGAAGCGCTTTTCGCACAGCAG	cloning
pGADSKN7P	CCACCAAAACCCAAAAAAAAGAGATCGAATTCCCGGGGATCCGGATGGCTGA	in vivo
pC1-ScRHO1	GGAGATA CTAATAGAAAATCATAGAACTTTAAAAAATTATACTAGAAAGgagctcgttttcgacac	rekombination Scrhol
pC2-ScRHO1	tgg GCAGTATCTGCCACTAAGTTAACGACTGAGAGATCGAGACACTCtccttaccattaa gttgatc	deletion Scrhol deletion

pGADSKN7T	CTTGCGGGGTTTTTCAGTATCTACGATTCATAGATCTCTGCAGTCACACCCT GGGTTTCTTC	in vivo rekombination
GFP-Bam	CGGGATCCAGTAAAGGAGAAGAACTTTTCAC	cloning
GFP-Eco	CGC <u>GAATTC</u> TTTGTATAGTTCATCCATGCC	cloning
Rho1b-ECO	CGC <u>GAATTC</u> TCTCAGCAAATGCATAACCC	cloning
Rho1b-SPE	CACCA <u>ACTAGT</u> GATATAATGAAGCGAGGAG	cloning
Rho1a-ECO	CGC <u>GAATTC</u> GCGTACCAGACAGGCGGCAAC	cloning
Rho1a-SPE	CACCA <u>ACTAGT</u> CAGTGTAGCACTTCGGTATC	cloning
Rho1bP-BAM	GCC <u>GGATCC</u> CATCTCGTTCTTATTATTATATTGCAGCG	cloning
Rho1bP-HIND	GG <u>AAGCTT</u> GCGGCCGCCGCATCCATAGTC	cloning
Rho1aP-BAM	GCC <u>GGATCC</u> CATATTTCTGAAACTGTCACTTC	cloning
Rho1aP-HIND	GG <u>AAGCTT</u> GAGACTTCCGCTCCAATAGC	cloning
AgRho1a-C115T	GGGCAGTTCCCGGAGATCTATGTGCCCAC	mutagenesis
AgRho1a-mutrev	GATCTCCGGGAACTGCCCTTTGGAGAACAC	mutagenesis
Rho1a-HIS3F1	GAAGGTCCACGGTGACAAGAAGAAGAAGAAATGTCTGGTCCTGTGAAcggat	marker
Kilo1a-111551 1	ccccgggttaattaa	integration
Rho1a-HIS3R1	GGATATGTATGTAATTGACCGATGACTATGGATGCGGCGGCCGCGgaattcgagc	marker
Kilota-HissKi	tcgtttaaac	integration
pGADSTE4atg	GTACCAGATTACGCTCATATGGCCATGGAGGCCAGTGAATTCatggatagcattaga	in vivo
pGAD31E4atg	tatccatcc	rekombination
pGADSTE4taa	TTTCAGTATCTACGATTCATCTGCAGCTCGAGCTCGATGGATCCtcacatataggca	in vivo
родозтении	ggtgaccacac	rekombination

^{*}Bases are highlighted as follows: introduced restriction sites are underlined, altered codon for mutagenesis are printed bold, primers used for *in vivo* rekombination are printed in capital letters for the homology region used for recombination and in small letters for the region used for annealing during the PCR reaction.

Table 5: Plasmids

Name ^a	Used	Content	Construction details or reference	
pDH5			NCRR Yeast Resource Center, University of Washington	
pDH3			NCRR Yeast Resource Center, University of Washington	
pGUG			Knechtle et al. 2003	
pUC19			Vieira and Messing 1991	
pET-23a+			Novagen, Inc., Madison, Wisconsin, U.S.A.	
pGEX-2t			GE Healthcare Life Sciences, Pittsburgh, USA	
pGEN3			Wendland et al. 2000	
RHO1L		ScRHO1	1.4kb XbaI/XhoI fragment cloned XbaI/SalI into YEPlac195 kindly provided by M. Hall	i
pUC19NATPS			kindly provided by D. Hoepfner (unpublished)	
pCORE			Storici et al. 2001	
pFA6a-HISMX			Longtine et al. 1998	
YCPlacIII			Gietz and Sugino 1988	
Yiplac128			Gietz and Sugino 1988	
pGADT7			Clontech, Mountain View, CA, U.S.A.	
pGAD424			James et al. 1996	
pGBT9			James et al. 1996	
pYO748			Qadota et al. 1996	
pYO750			Qadota et al. 1996	
pYO760			Qadota et al. 1996	
pAG11194			Wendland and Philippsen 2001	
pHPS291	Fig. 2	YFP-AgRHO1a CFP-AgRHO1b	in vivo recombination of PCR product with primers behindAgRho1aS1 and behindAgRho1aS1 from pGEN3 into pHPS289	this study
pHPS289)		in vivo recombination of HindIII/BglI fragment from pHPS286 into EcoRV/SpeI cut pHPS285	this study
"UDC205			PCR product with GFP-Bam and GFP-Eco from pDH5 cut with	this
pHPS285 pHPS286			EcoRI/BamHI in pHPS248 cut EcoRI/BamHI PCR product with GFP-Bam and GFP-Eco from pDH3 cut with EcoRI/BamHI in pHPS250 cut EcoRI/BamH	study this study

pHPS248 pHPS247 pHPS246 pHPS245 pHPS244			PCR product with Rho1b-Eco and Rho1b-Spe from pAG11194 in pHPS247 cut EcoRI/SpeI PCR product with Rho1a-Eco and Rho1a-Spe from pAG11194 in pHPS246 cut EcoRI/SpeI PCR product with GFP-Bam and GFP-Eco from pGUG cut with EcoRI/BamHI in pHPS244 cut EcoRI/BamHI PCR product with GFP-Bam and GFP-Eco from pGUG cut with EcoRI/BamHI in pHPS245 cut EcoRI/BamHI PCR product with Rho1bP-BAM and Rho1bP-HIND from pAG11194 cut with BamHI/HindIII in YCPlac111 cut BamHI/HindIII PCR product with Rho1bP-BAM and Rho1bP-HIND from pAG11194 cut with BamHI/HindIII in YCPlac111 cut BamHI/HindIII	this study
pHPS250	Fig. 2	GFP-AgRHO1b	see above	this study
pHPS254	Fig. 3	ScRHO1	BamHI/SalI fragment from pYO760 in Yiplac128 cut BamHI/SalI	this study
pHPS256	Fig. 3	Scrho1-2	BamHI/SalI fragment from pYO748 in Yiplac128 cut BamHI/SalI	this study
pHPS258	Fig. 3	Scrhol-4	BamHI/SalI fragment from pYO750 in Yiplac128 cut BamHI/SalI	this study
pHPS299	Fig. 4	Agrho1Y39H	SpeI/SacI fragment from pHPS296 in pUC19 cut XbaI/SacI	this study
pHPS296 pHPS292			in vivo recombination of PCR with behindRho1aS1 and behindRho1aS1 into pHPS292 PfoI/EheI fragment from pHPS276 in pHPS290 cut PfoI/EheI	this study this
pHPS290			PCR with Rho1aP-HIND Rho1b-SPE from pAG11194 cut with HindIII/SpeI in YCPlac111 cut with HindIII/SpeI	study this study
рНРS276 рНPS264	Fig. 5	Agrho1aY39H 2-hybrid	Quick change mutagenesis with primers AgRho1a-C115T and AgRho1a-mutrev of pHPS264 PCR with Rho1a-ATG and Rho1a-TAGneu from pAG11194 cut EcoRI/BamHI in pGBT9 cut EcoRI/BamHI	this study this study
pHPS305	Fig. 4	AgrholaY39H ΔAgrholb	SpeI/SacI fragment from pHPS304 in pUC19 cut XbaI/SacI in vivo recombination of PCR product with Rho1b-S1 and Rho1b-S2 from	this study this
pHPS304			pGen3 into pHPS292	study
pHPS317	Fig. 4	Agrho1aY39H	BbsI/XhoI from pHPS299 in pHPS262 cut BbsI/XhoI	this study
pHPS262			HindIII/KpnI of pHPS260 in pUC19 cut HindIII/KpnI	this study
pHPS260			Sc-AgRHO1a-ATG and Rho1-integrator from pHPS253 into RHO1L	this study
pHPS253			in vivo recombination of PCR with Rho1a-HIS3F1 and Rho1a-HIS3R1 from pFa6a His3 and pAG11194	this study
pHPS313	Fig. 5	<i>AgLRG1</i> 2-hybrid	in vivo recombination of PCR with pGADLRG1-ATG and pGADLRG1-TAG from genomic Δlt DNA into pGAD424 cut EcoRI/BamHI	this study
pHPS314	Fig. 5	AgSAC7 2-hybrid	in vivo recombination of PCR with pGADSAC7-ATG and pGADSAC7-TAG from genomic <i>Alt</i> DNA into pGAD424 cut EcoRI/BamHI	this study
pHPS333	Fig. 5	6his-AgSAC7	PCR with AgSAC7GAP-BGLII and AgSAC7GAP-HINDIII from genomic Δlt DNA cut HindIII/BamHI in pET-23a+ cut HindIII/BglII	this study
pHPS334	Fig. 5	6his-AgLRG1	PCR with AgLRG1GAP-BGLII and AgLRG1GAP-HINDIII from genomic \(\Delta t \) DNA cut HindIII/BamHI in pET-23a+ cut HindIII/BglII	this study
pHPS270	Fig. 5	GST-AgRhola	PCR with pGEXAgRho1aBam and pGEXAgRho1aEco from pAG11194 cut EcoRI/BamHI in pGEX-2t cut EcoRI/BglII	study
pHPS272	Fig. 5	GST-AgRho1b	PCR with pGEXAgRho1bBam and pGEXAgRho1bEco from pAG11194 cut EcoRI/BamHI in pGEX-2t cut EcoRI/BglII	this
pHPS277	Fig. 5	Agrho1aY39H, Q68H 2-hybrid	Quick change mutagenesis with primers AgRho1a-C115T and AgRho1a-mutrev of pHPS265	this study
pHPS265			PCR with Rho1a-ATG and Rho1a-TAGneu from pHPS212 cut EcoRI/BamHI in pGBT9 cut EcoRI/BamHI	this study

pHPS212 pHPS210			in vivo recombination with annealed primers Rho1aQH1 and Rho1aQH2 and pHPS210 cut with BamHI/AfIIIin vivo recombination of PCR with Rho1a-pC1 and Rho1a-pC2 from pCORE into pAG11194	study
pMK1a_int pRho1a*_kanr	Fig. 6	Agrho1aQ68H	SphI fragment of pRho1a*_kanr in pUC19 cut SphI in vivo recombination of PCR with Int_Rho1a*_s1 and Int_Rho1a*_s1 from pGEN3 into pHPS212	this study this study
pMK1b_int	Fig. 6	Agrho1bQ69H	PstI fragment of pRho1b*_kanr in pUC19 cut PstI	this study this
pRho1b*_kanr pRho1b* Rho1b_cas			in vivo RK mit PCR Int_Rho1b*_s1 Int_Rho1b*_s1 von pGEN3 in vivo recombination with annealed primers Rho1aQH1 and Rho1aQH2 and Rho1b_cas in vivo recombination of PCR with Rho1b-pC1 and Rho1b-pC2 from pCORE into pAG11194	study
pHPS205	Table 1	<i>AgPKC1</i> 2-hybrid	in vivo recombination of PCR with pGADAgPkc1-ATG and pGAD-AgPkc1-TAA from genomic Alt DNA and pGAD424 cut EcoRI/BamHI	study
pHPS214	Table 1	<i>AgBNI1</i> 2-hybrid	in vivo recombination of PCR with pGADBNI1-ATG and pGADBNI1-TAA from genomic \(\Delta t\) DNA and pGAD424 cut EcoRI/BamHI	this study
pHPS224	Table 1	AgSKN7 2-hybrid	in vivo recombination of PCR with pGADAgSKN7P and pGADAgSKN7T from genomic <i>Alt</i> DNA and pGAD424 cut BamHI	this study
pHPS237	Table 1	<i>AgSTE4</i> 2-hybrid	in vivo recombination of PCR with pGADAgSte4-ATG and pGADSte4-TAA from genomic Δlt DNA and pGADT7 cut EcoRI/BamHI	this study
pHPS275	Table 1	AgSEC4 2-hybrid	BamHI/EcoRI fragment from pHPS274 in pGAD424 cut BamHI/EcoRI	this study
pHPS274			PCR with AgSec3-Bam and AgSec3-Eco genomic Δlt DNA cut BamHI/EcoRI in pUC19 cut BamHI/EcoRI	this study

^anames aligned left are base vectors or were used in the Figures or tables listed in column 2. Names aligned right are constructs that the other vectors are based on.

Appendix

Introduction

Hyphal growth allows filamentous fungi to spread rapidly through their substrate in search for nutrients or mating partners, or to penetrate host organisms (figure 1). Single hyphae can elongate with 20 µm/min, fungal mycelia are known to cover hectares (Smith et al., 1992). Attempts to understand hyphal growth have led to the description of the Spitzenkörper or apical body by Girbardt in 1957. He observed that the apical body, which was visible as a phase-dense structure in the hyphal tip, is only present in growing hyphae and that its location in the hyphal tip correlates with the direction of hyphal growth. Electron microscopy of different fungal species revealed that the appearance of the apical body varies between different species but that it shares some common features. Most prominently, vesicles are accumulated in the apical body. They surround a distinct core region, which either appears as a dense cluster of vesicles, as a meshwork of microfilaments or, sometimes, as a structure with low contrast in the EM (Grove and Bracker, 1970; Howard, 1981; Harris et al., 2005, Robert W. Roberson, unpublished results). Microtubules extend into and through the apical body though no microtubule organizing centers (MTOC) could be identified in the tips of higher fungi (Han et al., 2001; Freitag et al., 2004, Robert W. Roberson and Claudia Birrer, unpublished results).

A role for the apical body in polarized secretion was assumed since it mainly consists of vesicles. How tightly hyphal morphogenesis and the apical body might be connected was found in the late eighties by computer simulations. It was shown that hyphal shapes arise by simply moving a vesicle supply center (VSC), which is a theoretical construct that distributes vesicles in all directions, with a constant speed. The predicted position of such a VSC and the position of the apical body coincided, which led to the theory that post-Golgi vesicles accumulate in the apical body before they are redistributed to the growing tip (Bartnicki-Garcia et al., 1989; Bartnicki-Garcia et al., 1995). Importantly, one has to consider that the VSC hypothesis only defines minimal requirements for hyphal morphogenesis and does not take into consideration factors like endocytosis or the possibility that not the entire plasma membrane might be compatible for vesicular fusion. Nevertheless, this hypothesis implied that understanding the apical body is of great importance to understand fast and efficient hyphal growth. A first insight on a molecular level came from C. albicans hyphae where the formin CaBnil as well as the myosin light chain CaMlcl were found to localize to the apical body (Crampin et al., 2005). In Ashbya gossypii, we found that the formin AgBni1, the polarisome components AgSpa2 and AgPea2, and the exocyst components AgExo70 and AgSec3 localize in an apical bodylike pattern suggesting that it might play a role

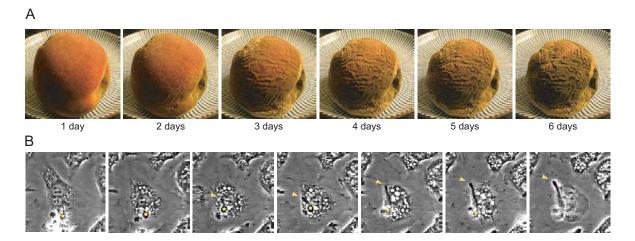


Fig. 1: Hyphal growth allows filamentous fungi to spread. (A) Fungal spread on a peach. The pictures were taken with a time-interval of one day. (B) The fungal pathogen *C. albicans* (asterisk) is engulfed by a mouse bone marrow macrophage. *C. albicans* responds by growing a germ tube (arrowhead) which eventually pierces the macrophage from the inside, killing the attacking macrophage while the fungus survives. The image series cover 75 minutes in real time. Pictures were taken by Julie Theriot and Julie Koehler, Stanford University Medical School, USA (http://cmgm.stanford.edu/theriot/index.html).

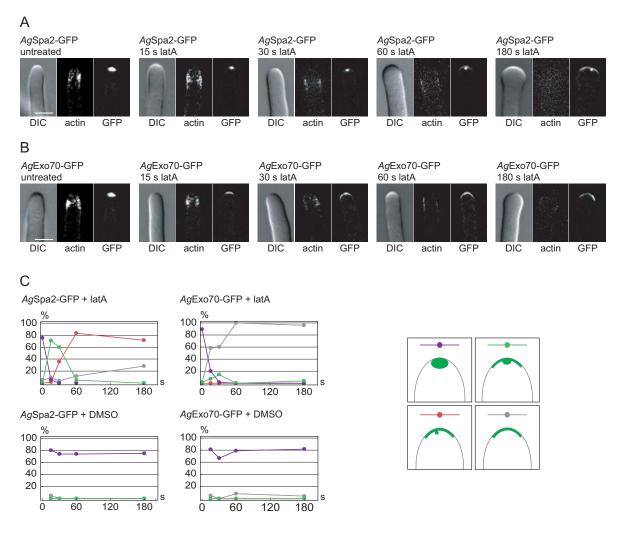


Fig. 2: Disruption of the actin cytoskeleton leads to formation of an AgSpa2-GFP containing spherule. (A) Latrunclin A was added to a to a 20 hours old liquid culture of a strain that expresses AgSpa2-GFP. Samples were fixed prior to and 15, 30, 60 and 180 seconds after addition of the drug. Disruption of the actin cytoskeleton was monitored by staining of the hyphae with Alexa568-coupled phalloidin. Representative pictures are shown for the different time points. (B) Images of AgExo70-GPF expressing hyphae that were treated as described above. (C) Quantification of different, characteristic localization patterns that were observed upon treatment of 20 hours old mycelia with latrunclin A or DMSO. 40 to 60 leading hyphae were analyzed for the latrunclin A treated samples and more than 20 for the DMSO controls. The purple line represents the hyphae that displayed apical body-like localization of AgSpa2-GFP or AgExo70-GFP, the green line hyphae that displayed a "condensed" spherical localization pattern, the red line hyphae with small and bright GFP spherules and the grey line cortical localization of AgSpa2-GFP or AgExo70-GFP. Schemes of the different localization patterns are shown next to the graphs. Note that the different categories do not add up to 100 % since few hyphae were observed that displayed crescent-like or aberrant localizations of the GFP-tagged factors, which are not included in the graphs. Scale bar = 5 μm.

in organization of the actin cytoskeleton and, eventually, in organization of polarized secretion. The experiments described in the appendix are only loosely connected characterizing different aspects of fast hyphal growth and the apical body. First, we show that loss of filamentous actin leads to accumulation of AgBni1 and AgSpa2 in small spherules. In a sharp contrast, AgExo70 was restricted to the cortex upon actin cytoskeleton disruption. Microtubules are frequently observed in the hyphal tip. However, apical body-like localization of AgExo70-GFP and fast hyphal growth are microtubule-independent. endoplasmatic reticulum reaches into the region occupied by the apical body but does not form a distinct sphere like it is observed for other organisms.

AgSpa2 and AgBni1 form distinct structures upon actin cytoskeleton disruption.

Filamentous actin is indispensable for polarized growth of fungal cells (Novick and Botstein, 1985; Akashi et al., 1994; Ayscough et al., 1997; Fuchs et al., 2005). Loss of filamentous actin in *Candida albicans* hyphae resulted in depolarized cell growth leading round, enlarged hyphal tips (Crampin et al., 2005) thus the actin cytoskeleton is necessary for polar growth but not for surface expansion *per se*. Here, we studied the effect of latrunculin A on different polarity factors of *A. gossypii*. Latrunclin A is a toxin from the sponge *Latrunculia magnifica*. It sequesters monomeric actin (Coue et al., 1987), actin structures disappear quickly due to the dynamic nature of the actin cytoskeleton (Ayscough et al., 1997).

Loss of actin cables, either due to latrunclin A treatment or due to loss of the formin *AgBNI1*, leads to dispersal of the post-Golgi vesicle marker GFP-*Ag*Sec4 in *A. gossypii* (Schmitz et al., 2006). We wondered how other factors that localize to the apical body behave upon disruption of the actin cytoskeleton. For this reason, spores of *AgSPA2-GFP* and *AgEXO70-GFP* were inoculated in liquid AFM for 20 hours at 30 °C. The cultures were split, one half was treated with 200 µM latrunculin A, the other half with DMSO as a control. Samples were taken after different time-points, fixed and stained for actin. Already after 15 seconds, apical body localization of *AgExo70-GFP* and *AgSpa2-GFP* was not observed

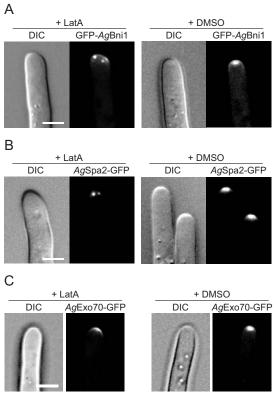


Fig. 3: AgBni1-GFP concentrates in a spherule upon latrunculin A treatment. (A) GFP-AgBNII hyphae growing on a time lapse slide (glass slide with a cavity that is filled with AFM microscopy agar) were treated with 5 μ l 400 μ M latrunculin A in AFM or with a DMSO control. The pictures show hyphae three minutes after addition of the drug. (B) AgSPA2-GFP and (C) AgEXO70-GFP were treated as described for GFP-AgBNII. Scale bars = 5 μ m.

any more for most hyphae. While AgExo70-GFP was found at the cortex in the majority of latrunculin treated hyphae, the AgSpa2-signal was observed in a localization pattern that could be best described as a "condensed apical body" (figure 2, 15 s time point). After 60 seconds, AgSpa2-GFP mostly formed a single, small spherule (figure 2A and 2C, 60s time point). This structure seemed to be rather stable since it was still visible three minutes after addition of latrunculin A when hyphal tips were enlarging isotropically (figure 2A, 180s and 2C). Five minutes after administration of the drug, some AgSpa2-GFP spherules were still visible (data not shown). Most of the GFP-AgBNI1 hyphae displayed a cortical or crescent-like localization pattern even if treated with DMSO only thus the GFP-AgBni1 distribution in fixed hyphae seems not to reflect the localization patterns known from live hyphae. For this reason, latrunculin treated GFP-AgBNI1 hyphae were observed by timelapse microscopy. Latrunculin A induced swelling of hyphal tips after about ten minutes and lysis of

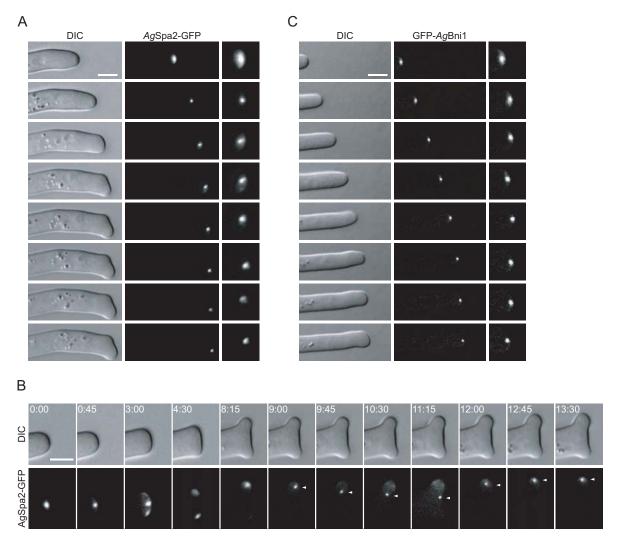


Fig. 4: Microscopy-induced stress leads to formation of AgSpa2-GFP and GFP-AgBni1 spherules.

(A) Frames from a time-lapse movie of an AgSPA2-GFP hypha (movie S6). The time interval between the images is 3 minutes, the second column shows the AgSpa2-GFP signal that is correlated with the DIC pictures. The third column displays an enlargement of the tip region in the GFP-channel. (B) Frames from a time-lapse movie of AgSpa2-GFP are shown (movie S7). The white numbers indicate the times in minutes. The white arrowhead designates an AgSpa2-GFP spherule that moves inside the hypha. (C) Frames from a time-lapse movie of a GFP-AgBni1 expressing strain (movie S8). The time interval between the images is 3 minutes. Scale bars = 5 μ m.

some hyphae after 15 minutes in mycelia grown on time-lapse slides, which are glass slides with a cavity that is filled with AFM microscopy agar. The slower reaction of hyphae to latrunculin A on solid medium compared to liquid culture might result from the lower growth temperatures under microscopy conditions. GFP-AgBni1 was concentrated in a bright spherule along with one to four less intense GFP-AgBni1 foci in 76 % of all hyphae (n = 17) three minutes after application of latrunculin A (figure 3A). The GPF-AgBni1 spherules were not stable since they were not detected in hypha that grew isotropically (not shown). Similarly, AgSpa2-GFP was observed in a bright spherule in 87 % of all cases, accompanied

by some smaller, less intense AgSpa2-GFP dots in 48 % of the hyphae (n = 23, figure 3B). The small AgSpa2 spots have not been observed in hyphae that were treated with latrunculin A in liquid culture. Therefore, they might be the consequence of the slowed actin cytoskeleton disruption under microscopy conditions. Formation of AgExo70-GFP spherules was not observed (figure 3C) confirming the findings from the previous experiment. Intriguingly, AgSpa2-GFP and GFP-AgBni1 spherules not only occurred if the actin cytoskeleton was disrupted. Frequently, spherule formation accompanied by deceleration of hyphal growth was observed in hyphae upon prolonged exposure to intensive blue light during

acquisition of time-lapse movies (figure 4A and movie S6). Interestingly, the spherule seemed not necessarily to be associated with the tip since extensive movement of an *Ag*Spa2-GFP spherule was observed (figure 4B and movie S7). Microscopy stress had a similar effect on *Ag*Bni1: GFP-*Ag*Bni1 spherule formation accompanied cessation of hyphal growth (figure 4C and movie S8).

In summary, apical body-like localization of the polarisome component AgSpa2, the formin AgBni1 and the exocyst component AgExo70 was sensitive to latrunculin A. In contrast, the polarized, cortex-associated pools of these factors stayed at hyphal tips even during non-polar growth that resulted from disruption of the actin cytoskeleton. Additionally, AgBni1 and AgSpa2 but not AgExo70concentrated in a spherule in the hyphal tip. In fast growing hyphae, AgSpa2 and AgBni1 are enriched in a core-like structure in the apical body as shown in part I on figure 8, it is thus tempting to speculate that the spherules observed upon disruption of the actin cytoskeleton are remnants of this core structure. In budding yeast, the formin ScBni1 displays retrograde movement on actin cables. Loss of polymerized actin abolishes retrograde transport with enhanced targeting of ScBni1 to the bud tip (Buttery et al., 2007). If the mechanism of actin-dependent AgBni1dispersal is conserved in A. gossypii, it is possible that destruction of the actin cytoskeleton leads to AgBni1 accumulation at the sites where it is recruited at the tip cortex and, eventually, in the center of the apical body. Interestingly, we saw a decrease in cytoplasmatic fluorescence of GFP-AgBni1 upon latrunculin A treatment which supports this hypothesis (data not shown). Future experiments will show whether AgSpa2 and AgBni1 colocalize in the core region of the apical body or the spherules observed upon disruption of the actin cytoskeleton respectively. Interestingly, formation of AgSpa2 and AgBni1 spherules was observed upon prolonged exposure to intensive, blue light. This similarity between latrunculin A and light-stress induced cessation of hyphal growth may indicate that quick deceleration of hyphal growth could be mediated by loss of actin cables. Indeed, it was discovered in budding yeast that the actin cytoskeleton depolarizes upon heat shock (Delley and Hall, 1999). Thus, it would be possible that an unknown mechanism deactivates the machinery responsible for generation of polarized actin cables resulting in spherule formation in the hyphal tip. However,

this is highly elusive. We do not know how blue light influences the mycelium or whether heat shock has similar effects on *A. gossypii* and on *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*.

Microtubules are not necessary for apical body-like localization of AgExo70-GFP and hyphal growth in A. gossypii.

Microtubules are frequently observed in the apical body by transmission electron microscopy (figure 5A). This was further confirmed by immunofluorescence staining of microtubules in an *AgEXO70-GFP* strain (figure 5C). Spherical localization of *AgExo70-GFP* was taken as an indication for the presence of an apical body since *AgExo70-GFP* localized to the FM 4-64 stained apical body as shown in part I, figure 3. In 88 %

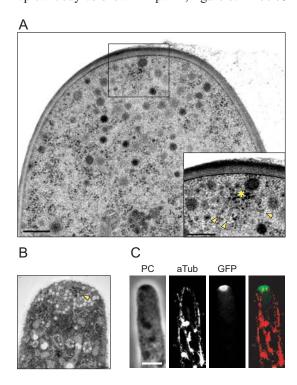
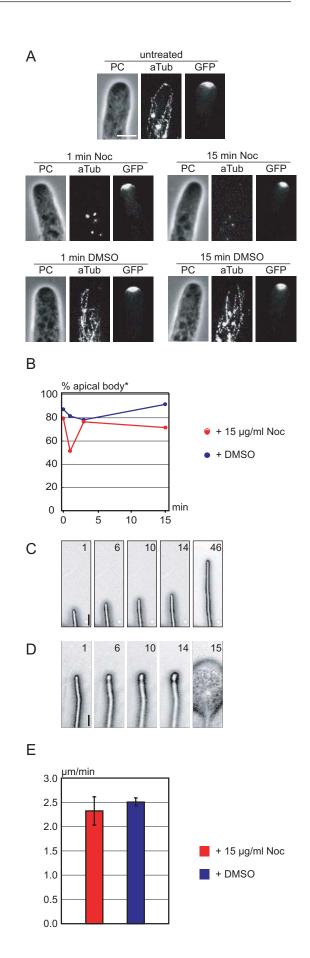


Fig. 5: Electron microscopy of the hyphal tip: microtubules and ribosomes in the apical body. (A) Transmission electron microscopy micrograph (TEM) of a cryo-fixed *A. gossypii* hyphal tip. The inset shows a higher magnification of the region that is marked with a rectangle on the bigger image. The star denotes a cluster of ribosomes, the arrowheads point to microtubules. Scale-bars = 0.3 μm and 0.2 μm respectively. (B) TEM micrograph of a chemically fixed hypha. The arrowhead points to a ribosomal cluster that is surrounded by a dense array of vesicles. (C) Immuno-fluorescence staining of microtubules in an AgExo70-GFP expressing strain. Microtubules (aTUB) are shown in red and AgExo70-GFP (GFP) in green in the overlay image. Scale bar = 5 μm .



of the cases, one or two microtubules penetrated into the AgEx70-GFP labeled zone, in about 10 % of the cases, no microtubules were observed in this region while one hypha displayed 3 microtubules in the apical body (n = 32). The apical body was hypothesized to be a switching center between microtubule-based long-range transport and shortrange actin-mediated transport (Harris et al., 2005). If this were true for A. gossypii, one would expect an effect on the apical body upon microtubule destruction. To test this hypothesis, microtubules were disrupted with 15 µg/ml nocodazole in a 19 hours old culture. After one minute of treatment, the cytoplasmatic microtubules disappeared. After 15 minutes, no mitotic spindles were detected any more. Lack of microtubules did not influence hyphal morphogenesis neither did it cause changes in the AgExo70-GFP localization (figure 6A). 50 to 70 tips were analyzed for presence of an apical body that is indicated by spherical localization of AgExo70-GFP. Interestingly, a decrease in the number of apical bodies was observed after one minute of nocodazole treatment. Nevertheless, spherical AgExo70-GFP localization was observed in a majority of the hyphae at all time-points (figure 6B). Even 4 hours after microtubule loss, many hyphae appeared undisturbed (data not shown). It was reported that hyphal growth continues in the absence of microtubules (Gladfelter et al., 2006, supplemental figures), however it might still be possible that hyphal elongation speed is reduced. To test this possibility, the border of 3 days old mycelium that was growing on AFM agar plates was treated with nocodazole and observed

Fig. 6: Microtubules are not necessary for apical bodylike localization of AgExo70-GFP and hyphal growth. (A) Immunofluorescence staining of microtubules (aTUB) in an AgExo70-GPF (GFP) strain that was treated with 15 μg/ml nocodazole. Spores were inoculated in liquid AFM and incubated for 20 hours at 30 °C. The images are taken from samples that were fixed and processed one minute and 15 minutes after addition of nocodazole. Scale bar = $5 \mu m$. (B) The relative occurrence of hyphae displaying AgExo70-GFP in an apicalbody like localization is plotted on the y-axis, the time after addition of nocodazole or DMSO on the x-axis. The red line represents the data from the nocodazole-treated hyphae, and the blue line the DMSO treated control. Between 45 and 70 leading hyphae were assessed per time point. (C) AFM containing $30 \mu g/ml$ nocodazole was pipetted onto the border of a 2 days old mycelium, pictures of an image sequence are shown. The numbers indicate the time after addition of nocodazole in minutes. (D) Control treatment with 400 µM latrunculin A. Scale-bars for C and D = 20 μ m. (E) AFM containing 30 μ g/ml nocodazole or DMSO was pipetted onto the border of a 3 days old mycelium. Hyphal growth speeds were measured over 12 minutes. The bars represent the mean from 3 experiments, 15-25 hyphae were assessed per experiment. Error bars = S.E.

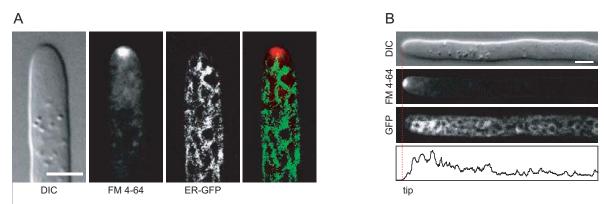


Fig. 7: The ER does not localize in an apical body-like manner in the hyphal tip. (A) ER-GFP (green in the overlay) in a hypha that was stained with FM 4-64 (red in the overlay). The strain K81 was stained with FM 4-64 as described in part I. (B) Image of an ER-GFP expressing hypha that was stained with FM 4-64. The intensity profile of ER-GFP was measured in the direction of the hyphal axis with the "line scan"-tool of the MetaMorph software and is shown in the lowest panel. The x-axis indicates the distance from the tip and the y-axis relative GFP fluorescence intensity. Scale bars = 5 μ m.

microscopically during the following 50 minutes (figure 6C). Growth continued while treatment with latrunculin A led to immediate cessation of hyphal growth, swelling and lysis (figure 6D). Furthermore, the average hyphal elongation rate was measured during a time period of 12 minutes after nocodazole treatment. Growth speeds of nocodazole- and DMSO treated hyphae did not differ (figure 6E).

To summarize, we could not find an indication that microtubules are directly involved in hyphal growth of A. gossypii despite the fact that they are frequently observed in the hyphal tip. Disruption of microtubules by nocodazole neither abolished apical body-like localization of AgExo70 nor did it slow down hyphal growth. It is thus unlikely that the apical body in A. gossypii serves as a switching center between microtubule- and actinbased vesicle transport since, in this case, one would at least expect a reduction of hyphal growth speed. Nevertheless, microtubules are essential for formation of a mycelium due to their role in nuclear transport and mitosis. In the basidiomycete Ustilago maydis, loss of microtubules does not influence morphogenesis as well but reduces hyphal growth speed (Fuchs et al., 2005). Disruption of microtubules in Aspergillus nidulans resulted in a sever reduction of hyphal growth though morphogenesis seemed normal (Horio and Oakley, 2005) thus indicating that microtubules play a direct role in hyphal growth of filamentous fungi. However, benomyl was used as a microtubuledestabilizing agent in both studies instead of nocodazole. We found that a mix of benomyl and nocodazole led to transient swelling of hyphal tips and dispersal of AgExo70-GFP in A. gossypii (data

not shown). This cell polarity defect is likely to be a side effect of benomyl rather than a consequence of microtubule disruption since nocodazole alone disrupts microtubules without affecting polar growth.

The endoplasmatic reticulum displays a polarized distribution in *A. gossypii* and reaches into the apical body.

Ribosomes, which are visualized as small, electron-dense dots by transmission electron microscopy, are highly abundant in the cytosol. The ribosomal density seems reduced in the peripheral region of the apical body while an enrichment of ribosomes in a core region is obvious (figure 5A and 5B). We wondered whether the space devoid of ribosomes could represent the lumen of endoplasmatic reticulum (ER) since ER fragments are associated with the apical body of the green algae Chara globularis (Braun, 2001). We tested this hypothesis by localization of ER-GFP, which consists of GFP flanked by a signal peptide and an ER retention signal (Hettema et al., 1998). ER-GFP localized in network through the hypha and extended into the region that was stained with FM 4-64 in 13 out of 14 cases (figure 7A). However, the ER was not observed in a spherical localization that resembled the apical body in its shape. Nevertheless, it displays a polarized distribution in hyphae (figure 7B) since the ER-GFP signal was more intense in the proximity of the hyphal tip in all observed cases (n = 19).

In summary, the ER reaches into the zone of the hyphal tip that is occupied by the apical body. Yet the part of the apical body poor in ribosomes does not represent ER lumen since the tip-base ER did not resemble the apical body in its shape. Therefore, it might be possible that a dense array of different proteins and vesicles excludes ribosomes from parts of the apical body. The endoplasmatic reticulum seems to be denser close to hyphal tips as indicated by the higher ER-GFP fluorescence in this region. Apical accumulation of ER seems to be a general theme in filamentous fungi since it was also observed in *U. maydis* (Wedlich-Soldner et al., 2002) and might by beneficial for hyphal growth.

Material and methods

Please see the "Materials and methods" section of part I for general information on strains and techniques. Here, only materials and methods are described that were not mentioned otherwise, plasmids and strains are listed in table 1 and 2.

A. gossypii strain construction

ER-GFP (pK81 and pK82)

The plasmids pK81 and pK82 that encode an ER-GFP fusion protein were transformed into $Agleu2\Delta thr 4\Delta$ to give rise to a strain with a luminal endoplasmatic reticulum (ER) marker. ER-GFP is a fusion protein of the ScSuc2 amino-terminus that contains a signal peptide for ER import, GFP and the ER retention signal from ScKar2 (Hettema et al., 1998). Expression of ER-GFP was driven by the ScHIS3 promoter. The plasmids pK81 and pK82 were generated by ligating the EcoRI/HinDIII digested, T4 DNA polymerase treated 1

kbp fragment of pAgIntER-GFP into *Pvu*II cut pRS415 and pAG503.

Immunofluorescence staining of microtubules

Immunofluorescence was performed as described previously by Gladfelter et al., 2006. *A. gossypii* spores were inoculated in AFM and grown for 20 hours. The culture was checked microscopically to ensure the presence of fast-growing hyphae. Samples that displayed signs of starvation like heavily vacuolated hyphae were discarded (Helfer and Gladfelter, 2006). The culture was fixed for one hour by adding formaldehyde to a final concentration of 4 %. A rat anti-tubulin antibody (YOL34; Serotec, United Kingdom) was used at a dilution of 1:50, AlexaFluor568 goat anti-rat (Invitrogen, USA) at a dilution of 1:200.

Cytoskeleton disruption

Latrunculin A, which binds to and sequesters monomeric actin, was stored at -20 °C in a 0.237 M stock (100 $\mu g/\mu l)$ in DMSO and was added to liquid cultures to a final concentration of 200 $\mu M.$ For live imaging, 5 μl of 400 μM latrunculin A in AFM was added on time-lapse slides, effectiveness of the latrunculin A treatment was confirmed by swelling of hyphal tips and lysis. Microtubules were disrupted with nocodazole, which was kept in a stock of 3 mg/ml in DMSO at -65 °C and added to liquid cultures to a final concentration of 15 $\mu g/ml.$ For live imaging, 15 μl of 30 $\mu g/ml$ nocodazole were added to the mycelia.

Table 1: Plasmids

Name	Backbone	Insert	Source
pAG503	pRS415	ScLEU2 of pRS415 replaced with GEN3	Knechtle 2002
pAgIntER-GFP	pAgINTLAC	P_{ScHIS3} - ER - GFP	Schlatter I., unpublished
pK81	pRS415	P_{ScHIS3} -ER-GFP	This study
pK82	pAG503	P_{ScHIS3} -ER-GFP	This study

Table 2: A. gossypii strains

Strain	Genotype	Construction	Source
K81	ER-GFP (pK81) Agcdc42Δ Agleu2Δ Agthr4Δ	pK81	This study
K82	ER-GFP (pK82) Agcdc42Δ Agleu2Δ Agthr4Δ	pK82	This study

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Supplmental movies

The supplemental movies can be found on the enclosed CD.

Movie S1

A time-lapse movie of an *A. gossypii* hyphal tip grown on a thin agar layer that contained 19 % gelatine was acquired during 60 seconds (see part I, figure 2).

Movie S2

Time-lapse movies of *AgEXO70-GFP* expressing hyphae. The movie represents 15 minutes in real time (see part I, figure 3).

Movie S3

Germination of $Aggic 1/2\Delta$ and the reference strain. The movie represents 16 hours in real time (see part II, figure 6).

Movie S4

Time-lapse movie of $AgGIC1/2\Delta$ -YFP. The arrow indicates a lateral branching event (see part II, figure 8). The movie was taken during 50 minutes. Scale bar = $20 \ \mu m$.

Movie S5

Time-lapse movie acquired at the border of an $Agrho1a\Delta$ mycelium. Arrows indicate hyphal lysis (see part III, figure 1). Scale bar = 50 μ m.

Movie S6

Time-lapse movie of AgSPA2-GFP. The movie represents 21 minutes of real time (see appendix, figure 4). Scale bar = $5 \mu m$.

Movie S7

Time-lapse movie of AgSPA2-GFP. The movie represents 30 minutes of real time (see appendix, figure 4). Scale bar = $5 \mu m$.

Movie S8

Time-lapse movie of *GFP-AgBNI1*. The movie represents 41 minutes of real time (see appendix, figure 4). Scale bar = $5 \mu m$.

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Curriculum vitae

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Erklärung

E	rk	ä	ru	ng	J

Ich erkläre, dass ich die Dissertation "From polarity establishment to fast hyphal growth in the filamentous fungus *Ashbya gossypii*" nur mit der darin angegebenen Hilfe verfasst und bei keiner anderen Universität und bei keiner anderen Fakultät der Universität Basel eingereicht habe.

Basel, 12. Juni 2007

Michael Köhli