

RESEARCH ARTICLE

# Gα proteins Gvm2 and Gvm3 regulate vegetative growth, asexual development, and pathogenicity on apple in *Valsa mali*

Na Song<sup>1</sup>\*, Qingqing Dai<sup>1</sup>\*, Baitao Zhu<sup>1</sup>, Yuxing Wu<sup>1</sup>, Ming Xu<sup>1</sup>, Ralf Thomas Voegelé<sup>2</sup>, Xiaoning Gao<sup>1</sup>, Zhensheng Kang<sup>1</sup>, Lili Huang<sup>1</sup>\*

**1** State Key Laboratory of Crop Stress Biology for Arid Areas and College of Plant Protection, Northwest A&F University, Yangling, People's Republic of China, **2** Fachgebiet Phytopathologie, Institut für Phytomedizin, Universität Hohenheim, Stuttgart, Germany

\* These authors contributed equally to this work.

\* [huanglili@nwsuaf.edu.cn](mailto:huanglili@nwsuaf.edu.cn)



## Abstract

In fungi, heterotrimeric guanine-nucleotide binding proteins (G-proteins) are key elements of signal transduction pathways, which control growth, asexual and sexual development, as well as virulence. In this study, we have identified two genes encoding heterotrimeric G protein alpha subunits, named *Gvm2* and *Gvm3*, from *Valsa mali*, the causal agent of apple *Valsa* canker. Characterization of *Gvm2* and *Gvm3* mutants indicates that *Gvm3* may be a crucial regulator of vegetative growth. Deletion of the corresponding gene results in a 20% reduction in growth rate. Besides, *Gvm2* and *Gvm3* seem to be involved in asexual reproduction, and mutants are hypersensitive to oxidative and cell membrane stresses. Interestingly, both G protein alpha subunits were most probably involved in *V. mali* virulence. In infection assays using *Malus domestica* cv. ‘Fuji’ leaves and twigs, the size of lesions caused by deletion mutants  $\Delta Gvm2$ , or  $\Delta Gvm3$  are significantly reduced. Furthermore, many genes encoding hydrolytic enzymes—important virulence factors in *V. mali*—are expressed at a lower level in these deletion mutants. Our results suggest that *Gvm2* and *Gvm3* play an important role in virulence probably by regulation of expression of cell wall degrading enzymes.  $\Delta Gvm2$ , and  $\Delta Gvm3$  mutants were further analyzed with respect to their impact on the transcript levels of genes in the cAMP/PKA pathway. The expression of the genes encoding adenylate cyclase *VmAC*, protein kinase A (PKA) regulatory subunit *VmPKR*, and PKA catalytic subunit *VmPKA1* are down-regulated in both mutants. Further analyses indicated that intracellular cAMP level and PKA activity are down-regulated in the  $\Delta Gvm3$  mutant, but are basically unchanged in the  $\Delta Gvm2$  mutant. Overall, our findings indicate that both *Gvm2* and *Gvm3* play diverse roles in the modulation of vegetative growth, asexual development, and virulence in *V. mali*.

## OPEN ACCESS

**Citation:** Song N, Dai Q, Zhu B, Wu Y, Xu M, Voegelé RT, et al. (2017) Gα proteins Gvm2 and Gvm3 regulate vegetative growth, asexual development, and pathogenicity on apple in *Valsa mali*. PLoS ONE 12(3): e0173141. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0173141

**Editor:** Monika Schmoll, Austrian Institute of Technology, AUSTRIA

**Received:** July 30, 2016

**Accepted:** February 15, 2017

**Published:** March 7, 2017

**Copyright:** © 2017 Song et al. This is an open access article distributed under the terms of the [Creative Commons Attribution License](https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

**Data Availability Statement:** All relevant data are within the paper and its Supporting Information files.

**Funding:** This work was financially supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (No. 31471732; 31671982).

**Competing interests:** The authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

## Introduction

Signal transduction cascades are the primary means by which external stimuli are communicated to the nuclei of eukaryotic organisms. In fungi, heterotrimeric guanine-nucleotide binding proteins (G-proteins) are key elements of signal transduction pathways, which control growth, asexual and sexual development, and virulence [1]. G-proteins are composed of three subunits:  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$ , which remain inactive in the heterotrimeric state with GDP bound to the G $\alpha$  subunit [2]. Heterotrimeric G-proteins are activated by members of the seven-transmembrane-spanning family of receptors [3]. Binding of signal ligands to such receptors promotes an exchange of GDP to GTP on the G $\alpha$  subunit, which then triggers a conformational change and dissociation from the G $\beta\gamma$  heterodimer [4]. Either G $\alpha$ , or G $\beta\gamma$ , or both, are then free to activate downstream targets such as phospholipases, protein kinases, adenylate cyclases, or ion channels [5–8]. Activated G-proteins are later desensitized by the intrinsic GTPase activity of the G $\alpha$  subunit, followed by re-association with the G $\beta\gamma$  complex. Therefore, the guanine nucleotide state of the G $\alpha$  subunit seems to play a crucial role in controlling G-protein signaling [4].

Multiple alignments of fungal G $\alpha$  genes revealed three major groups (I–III), based on amino acid sequence identity and functional similarities [9]. *Magnaporthe oryzae* for example possesses three G $\alpha$  subunits (MagA, MagB, and MagC) with sequence similarity to mammalian G $\alpha_s$ , G $\alpha_i$  superfamily proteins, and the fungal-specific G $\alpha_{II}$  subfamily, respectively [10]. Deletion of *magA* has no effect on vegetative growth, conidiation, or appressorium formation. Deletion of *magC* reduces conidiation, but does not affect vegetative growth, or appressorium formation. However, disruption of *magB* significantly reduces vegetative growth, conidiation, and appressorium formation [10]. In *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* Gpa2 regulates growth and pseudohyphal development via a cAMP-dependent mechanism [11,12]. Previous research showed that GanB plays a role during asexual conidiation and germination through regulating the cAMP/PKA pathway in response to glucose in *Aspergillus nidulans* [13,14]. Further fungal G $\alpha$  subunit homologs that are well characterized include CPG-2 of *Cryphonectria parasitica* [15], and GNA-2 of *Neurospora crassa* [16], as well as FfG2 and FfG3 of *Fusarium fujikuroi* [17].

*Valsa* canker caused by the Ascomycete *Valsa mali*, is one of the most destructive diseases on apple in Eastern Asia [18], especially in China [19,20], Japan [21] and Korea [22], and leads to heavy damage to apple production [23,24]. Since the pathogen penetrates extensively into the host phloem and xylem [25], chemical treatment cannot effectively cure or control *Valsa* canker [23]. Once inside the host tissue the fungus can induce tissue maceration and cell death. Cell wall degrading enzymes have been shown to play an important role in the infection process of *V. mali* [25–28]. Meanwhile, it has been reported that G-protein signaling is implicated in the regulation of cellulase genes in *C. parasitica* and *Trichoderma reesei* [29–31]. Other studies have shown that G $\alpha$  subunit homologs are important for regulating asexual development and virulence in *Botrytis cinerea* [32]. Therefore, a better understanding of the role of G $\alpha$  subunits in pathogenesis and their regulatory pathways in *V. mali* seems crucial for developing more effective disease management strategies.

The genome sequence of *V. mali* opened new opportunities and perspectives for basic research to study its mechanism of plant infection [27]. To explore the roles of G $\alpha$  subunits in *V. mali*, three G $\alpha$  genes were cloned from the fungus, two of which were functionally characterized in the present study. We used G $\alpha$  subunit mutants to elucidate their role in controlling development and virulence. We found that *Gvm2* has a role in regulating conidiation and virulence. *Gvm3* on the other hand seems to be involved in the regulation of vegetative growth, asexual development, and virulence. In addition, *Gvm2* and *Gvm3* also play a positive role in regulating cell wall degrading enzymes.

## Materials and methods

### Fungal strains, culture conditions

The wild type *V. mali* strain 03–8 [27] was obtained from the Laboratory of Integrated Management of Plant Diseases in College of Plant Protection, Northwest A&F University, PRC. All strains were routinely preserved in 20% glycerol at -80°C. Potato Dextrose Broth (PDB) was used to grow mycelium for DNA and RNA extraction. Fungal genomic DNA was extracted using the CTAB method [33]. The binary vector pBIG2RHPH2-GFP-GUS [34] was provided by Dr. Fengming Song at Zhejiang University, PRC. This vector carries the hygromycin B resistance cassette.

### Gene deletion and complementation analysis

To examine the biological function(s) of G $\alpha$  proteins, we generated deletion mutants. To construct gene knockout cassettes the double joint PCR approach was used [35]. The hygromycin-phosphotransferase (*hph*) cassette, was amplified from PBIG2RHPH2-GFP-GUS with primers HYG/F and HYG/R (S1 Table). Upstream and downstream gene flanking sequences were amplified with primer pairs Gvm1-1F/Gvm1-2R, Gvm1-3F/Gvm1-4R, Gvm2-1F/Gvm2-2R, Gvm2-3F/Gvm2-4R, and Gvm3-1F/Gvm3-2R, Gvm3-3F/Gvm3-4R (S1 Table), respectively. After ligation with the *hph* cassette, the ligation product was transformed into *V. mali* strain 03–8 [36]. Hygromycin B (Roche, Mannheim, Germany) was added to a final concentration of 100  $\mu$ g/ml for selection. Putative knockout mutants were identified by screening with primers GvmX-5F/GvmX-6R and H850/H852 (S1 Table), and further analyzed by PCR with primers GvmX-7F and H855R, and primers H856F and GvmX-8R (S1 Table). Southern Blot analyses were used to confirm gene replacement events (S2 Fig). Genomic DNA was labeled with digoxigenin (DIG)-dUTP using the DIG DNA Labeling and Detection Kit II (Roche). Hybridization and detection were carried out according to manufacturer's instructions. All mutants generated in this study were preserved in 20% glycerol at -80°C.

For generation of complemented strains, fragments containing the entire G $\alpha$  genes and their native promoter regions were amplified by PCR using primers Gvm2-GFP-CF/CR and Gvm3-GFP-CF/CR, respectively (S1 Table). The resulting PCR products were co-transformed into *S. cerevisiae* strain XK1-25 together with *Xho*I-digested pFL2 vector [37,38]. PGvm2-GFP and PGvm3-GFP fusion constructs were identified by PCR with primers Gvm2-GFP-CF/CR and Gvm3-GFP-CF/CR (S1 Table) and confirmed by sequencing. Fusion constructs were transformed into protoplasts of *V. mali*  $\Delta$ Gvm2 and  $\Delta$ Gvm3 mutants, respectively.

### Vegetative growth and pycnidia production

Small agar blocks were cut from the edge of 3-day-old cultures and placed onto Potato Dextrose Agar (PDA) in the dark at 25°C. Size and morphology of colonies were examined after 24 h, 48 h, and photographed after 48 h. For pycnidia production assays, cultures were grown in the dark for seven days, then transferred to an incubator with 12 h illumination per day at 25°C, and examined and photographed after 40 days. All treatments were performed with at least eight replicates, and all experiments were repeated three times. Data were analyzed by Student's t-test using the SAS software package (SAS Institute, Cary, USA),  $p < 0.05$ .

### Measuring stress responses

Fungal strains from glycerol stocks were inoculated onto PDA and placed in the dark for 3 d at 25°C. In order to test for sensitivity to osmotic stress, free radical stress, and cell membrane integrity, culture blocks of wild-type and the two mutants were inoculated onto PDA

containing 0.1 M NaCl, 0.03% H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, or 0.01% SDS, respectively. Size and morphology of colonies were examined each day for three consecutive days. All treatments were performed with at least eight replicates, and the experiment was repeated three times. Data were analyzed by Student's t-test using the SAS software package (SAS Institute),  $p < 0.05$ .

### Quantitative RT-PCR

Infected twigs (0.2 g) were collected 6 h, 12 h, 18 h, 24 h, 36 h, and 48 h post inoculation (hpi), frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored at -80°C. Mycelium was collected after 4 days incubation in PDB. Total RNA was extracted using the RNeasy Micro kit (Qiagen, Shenzhen, PRC). cDNA synthesis was performed using the StrataScript qPCR cDNA synthesis kit (Stratagene, La Jolla, U.S.A.) following the manufacturer's instructions. Primers G6PDHF and G6PDHR [39] were used to amplify the 6-phosphogluconate dehydrogenase, decarboxylating (*G6PDH*) gene of *V. mali*. Relative changes in transcript level of target genes were calculated by the  $2^{-\Delta\Delta C_t}$  method [40] with *G6PDH* as endogenous reference. Data from three biological replicates were used to calculate the mean and standard deviation. Primers used for qRT-PCR were listed in [S2 Table](#).

### Pathogenicity tests

For leaf pathogenicity assays, leaves of *Malus domestica* Borkh. cv. 'Fuji' from the green house were collected and inoculated according to Wei et al. [41]. Leaves were washed with tap water, immersed in 0.6% sodium hypochlorite for 3 min and rinsed with sterile water three times. The basal parts of petioles were wrapped with moistened cotton. Four little wounds were made on a leaf using a sterile needle. A 5-mm PDA culture block was placed upside down onto each wound. Leaves were placed in a plastic box and the box was immediately covered with a vinyl film to retain humidity and placed in the dark at 25°C. Examination and photo documentation took place after 72 h. Assays were repeated eight times with three biological replicates each.

For twig pathogenicity assays, biennial intact apple twigs of *Malus domestica* Borkh. cv. 'Fuji' from the green house were collected and inoculated according to Wei et al. [41]. Twigs were cut into 40 cm long segments and washed with tap water, immersed in 1% sodium hypochlorite for 10 min and rinsed with sterile water three times. The top of the twigs was sealed with wax. Four wounds were made on each segment using a flat iron (5 mm diameter), wounds were 8 cm apart. Twigs were inserted into sand in a plastic basin. A 5-mm PDA culture block was used to inoculate each wound. Then the basin was immediately covered with a vinyl film to retain humidity and placed in the dark at 25°C. Examination and photo documentation took place after eleven days. All treatments were performed with at least eight replicates, and all experiments were repeated three times. Data were analyzed by Student's t-test using the SAS software package (SAS Institute),  $p < 0.05$ .

### cAMP and PKA activity assays

Three-day-old YEPD liquid mycelial cultures were harvested and frozen in liquid nitrogen. cAMP levels of the samples were measured using an HPLC [42,43]. Data were analyzed by Student's t-test using the SAS software package (SAS Institute),  $p < 0.05$ .

PKA activity was measured from 3-day-old YEPD liquid cultures. Sample (0.3g) were ground in liquid nitrogen. PKA activity was detected using PepTag<sup>®</sup> Non-Radioactive Protein Kinase Assays kit (Promega, Madison, USA). Samples were separated on a 1.2% agarose gel at 160 V for 15 minutes.

## Results

### Identification of Gα subunit genes in *V. mali*

Based on sequence information from the *V. mali* genome, we cloned three Gα subunit genes termed *Gvm1* (VM1G\_00876), *Gvm2* (VM1G\_09956), and *Gvm3* (VM1G\_04248) [27]. The *Gvm1* gene contains three introns and encodes a polypeptide of 353 amino acids, which shows 98.6% identity to *M. oryzae* MAGB (AF011341), and 98.3% to *N. crassa* GNA-1 (XP957133). *Gvm2* contains four introns and encodes a polypeptide of 357 amino acids, which shows 82.7% identity to *M. oryzae* MAGC (AF011342), and 81.0% to *N. crassa* GNA-2 (Q05424). *Gvm3* contains five introns and encodes a polypeptide of 355 amino acids, which shows 89.9% identity to *M. oryzae* MAGA (AF011340), 85.4% identity to *N. crassa* GNA-3 (XP962205), and 40.1% identity to *S. cerevisiae* Gpa2 (NP010937) (Fig 1A).

A phylogenetic tree of different Gα subunits shows three distinct groups: Group I, Group II, and Group III (Fig 1A), which correspond to the three groups proposed by Bölker [9]. *Gvm1* contains a consensus myristoylation site (MGXXXS) [44], and pertussis toxin-labeling site (CXXX) [45] at its N and C termini, respectively. *Gvm3* groups together with homologs in Group III. *Gvm3* shows high similarity to mammalian Gα<sub>s</sub> and contains a potential myristoylation site at its N terminus, but does not have a pertussis toxin-labeling site at its C terminus (Fig 1B). *Gvm2* belongs to the fungal Gα subunit Group II and does not contain either site (Fig 1B).

### Deletion of *Gvm2* and *Gvm3*

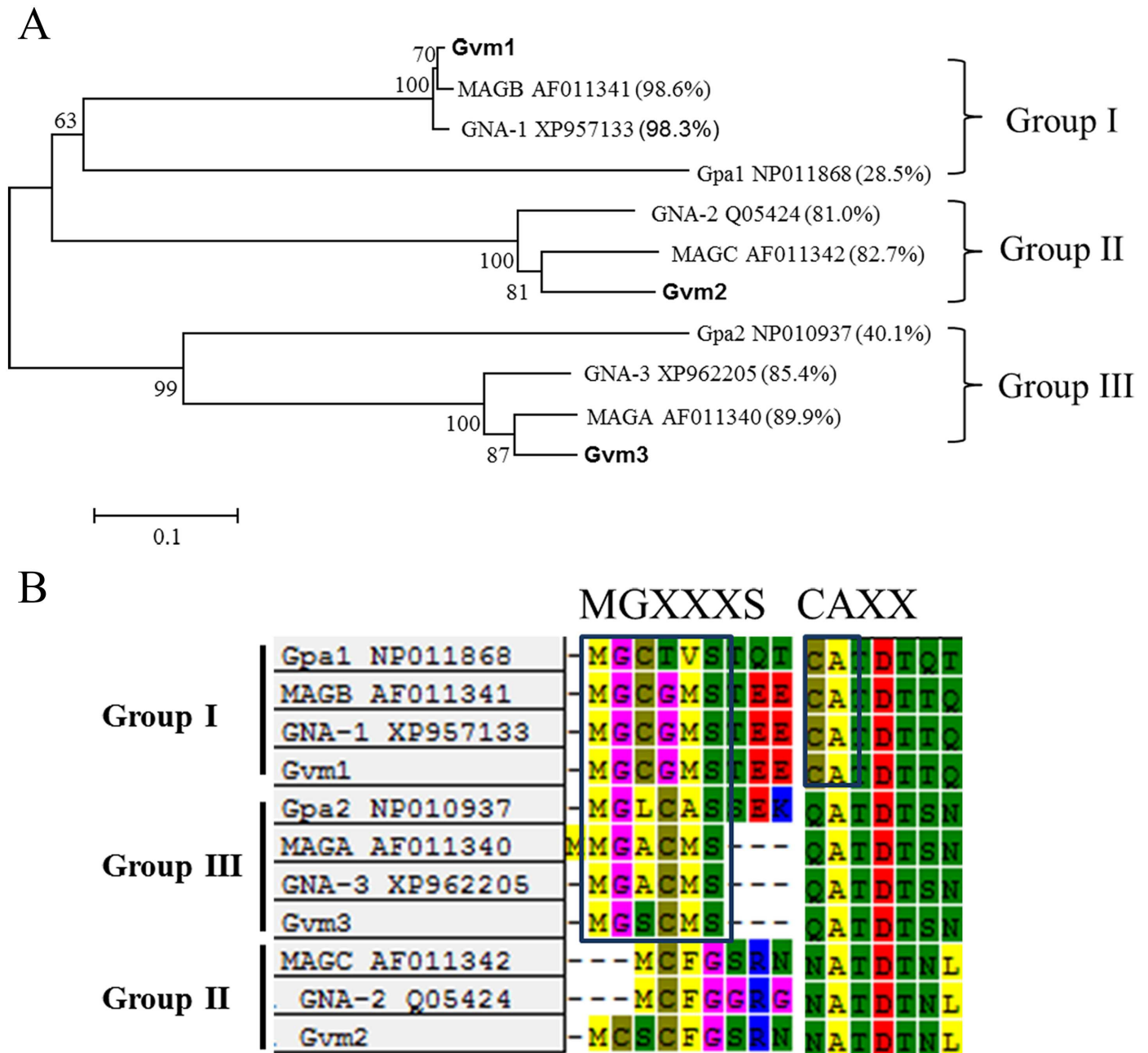
Our results show that we successfully obtained knockout mutants for *Gvm2* and *Gvm3* (S1 Fig). All putative knockout mutants were also verified by Southern blot (S2 Fig). We obtained at least two deletion mutants for each gene with similar phenotypes, as described later in Table 1. For *Gvm1*, we failed to identify true knockout mutants after screening over one thousand transformants from at least four independent transformation experiments, indicating that deletion of this gene may be lethal.

### *Gvm3* is involved in vegetative growth and asexual reproduction, whereas *Gvm2* only plays a role in asexual reproduction

*Gvm3* was found to play an important role in vegetative growth. Deletion of this gene results in an over 20% reduction in growth rate (Fig 2). Compared with the wild type strain (15.3 mm/day), growth rates of  $\Delta Gvm3$  mutants G3M-1 (11.9 mm/day) and G3M-2 (12.0 mm/day) are significantly reduced ( $p = 0.05$ ). Both complemented strains (G3C-1 and G3C-2) exhibit at least partially restored growth rates. However, both  $\Delta Gvm2$  mutants (G2M-1 and G2M-2) show unaltered growth (Fig 2). In addition, *Gvm2* and *Gvm3* seem to be involved in asexual reproduction. Compared with the wild type strain, the amount of conidiation of  $\Delta Gvm2$  and  $\Delta Gvm3$  mutants is significantly decreased. Complementation (G2C-1, G2C-2 and G3C-1, G3C-2) could at least partially restore normal conidiation.

### Susceptibility of $\Delta Gvm2$ and $\Delta Gvm3$ mutants to abiotic stresses

As results from growth on PDA supplemented with 0.03% H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> suggest,  $\Delta Gvm2$  and  $\Delta Gvm3$  mutants seem to be more sensitive to Reactive Oxygen Species (ROS) (Fig 3). When assayed for growth on PDA plates supplemented with 0.01% SDS, to simulate membrane stress, both mutants, especially  $\Delta Gvm3$  mutants, showed drastically reduced growth. By contrast,  $\Delta Gvm2$  and  $\Delta Gvm3$  mutants do not seem to be affected by osmotic stress, simulated by inclusion of



**Fig 1. Three Gα subunits in *Valsa mali*.** A: Phylogenetic analysis with G protein sequences from *V. mali*, *N. crassa*, *S. cerevisiae*, and *M. oryzae*. Protein sequences were aligned, and the Neighbor-Joining phylogenetic tree was drawn using MEGA 5.0. B: Sequence alignment of the predicted active sites of the Gα subunits from *V. mali*, *N. crassa*, *S. cerevisiae*, and *M. oryzae*. MGXXXS: myristoylation site; CXXX: pertussis toxin-labeling site.

doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0173141.g001

0.1 M NaCl to PDA (Fig 3). These results indicate that Gvm2 and Gvm3 may play the same role with respect to tolerance to abiotic stresses in *V. mali*.

### Deletion of *Gvm2*, or *Gvm3* leads to reduced virulence

To gain insight into a possible function of Gvm2 and Gvm3 in pathogenicity, we examined their transcription profiles during infection using quantitative real-time PCR (qRT-PCR).

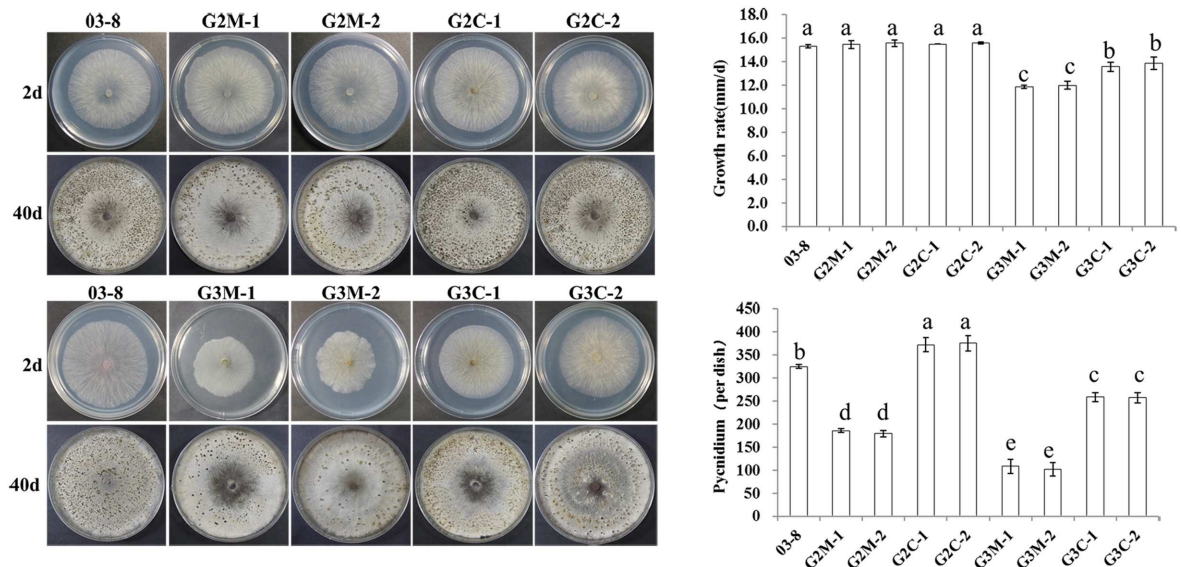
**Table 1. Wild type and mutant strains of *V. mali* used in this study.**

Strains	Brief description	Reference
03–8	Wild-type	[27]
G2M-1	<i>gvm2</i> deletion mutant of 03–8	This study
G2M-2	<i>gvm2</i> deletion mutant of 03–8	This study
G2C-1	<i>gvm2/Gvm2</i> complemented transformant	This study
G2C-2	<i>gvm2/Gvm2</i> complemented transformant	This study
G3M-1	<i>gvm3</i> deletion mutant of 03–8	This study
G3M-2	<i>gvm3</i> deletion mutant of 03–8	This study
G3C-1	<i>gvm3/Gvm3</i> complemented transformant	This study
G3C-2	<i>gvm3/Gvm3</i> complemented transformant	This study

doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0173141.t001

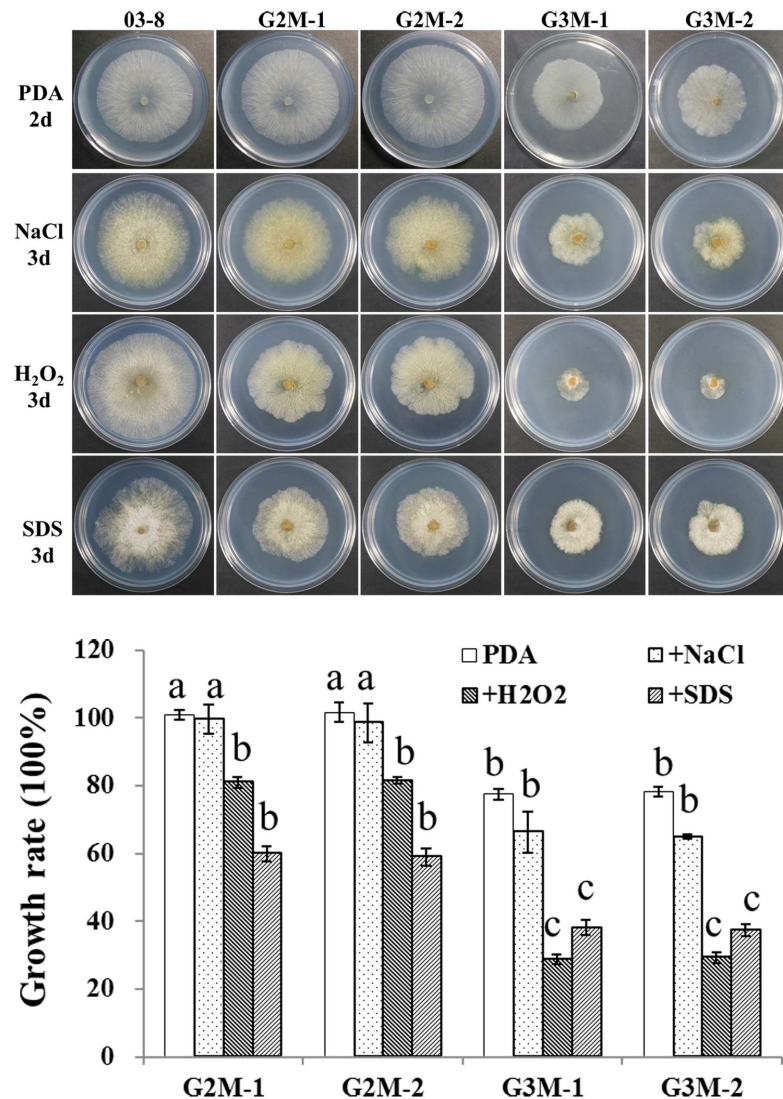
Compared to axenically grown mycelium, transcript levels of *Gvm2* are 6.6-fold, 3.6-fold, and 2.1-fold higher at 6 hpi, 12 hpi, and 24 hpi, respectively. However, expression of *Gvm2* is not significantly changed at 36 hpi and 48 hpi (Fig 4A). Similarly, transcript levels of *Gvm3* are 4.7-fold, 2.5-fold, and 2.2-fold increased at 6 hpi, 12 hpi, 24 hpi, respectively (Fig 4A). These results confirm that transcripts of *Gvm2* and *Gvm3* are up-regulated during early stages of infection. *Gvm3* has a transcript profile similar to *Gvm2*. However, its transcript levels in general are lower than those of *Gvm2* (Fig 4B).

To further characterize the function of *Gvm2* and *Gvm3* in pathogenesis,  $\Delta Gvm2$  and  $\Delta Gvm3$  mutants were inoculated onto leaves and twigs. In infection assays with apple leaves, virulence of both deletion mutants is significantly reduced. Compared to the wild type strain 03–8, the average diameter of lesions caused by  $\Delta Gvm2$ , or  $\Delta Gvm3$  mutants are significantly decreased. Compared to the wild type (23.7 mm),  $\Delta Gvm2$  mutants show a reduction by 40.1%, and  $\Delta Gvm3$  mutants exhibit a reduction of 35.0% (Fig 5A). Similarly, lesion lengths



**Fig 2. Colony morphology and conidiation of  $\Delta Gvm2$  and  $\Delta Gvm3$  deletion mutants.** Colony morphology was assessed by incubating cultures in the dark for 48 h at 25°C, followed by measuring colony diameters. For the pycnidia production assays, cultures were placed in the dark at 25°C for 7 d, then transferred to the light, examined and photographed at 40 days. Bars indicate standard deviation of the mean of eight individual plates. All experiments were performed in triplicate. Different letters indicate statistical significance.

doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0173141.g002



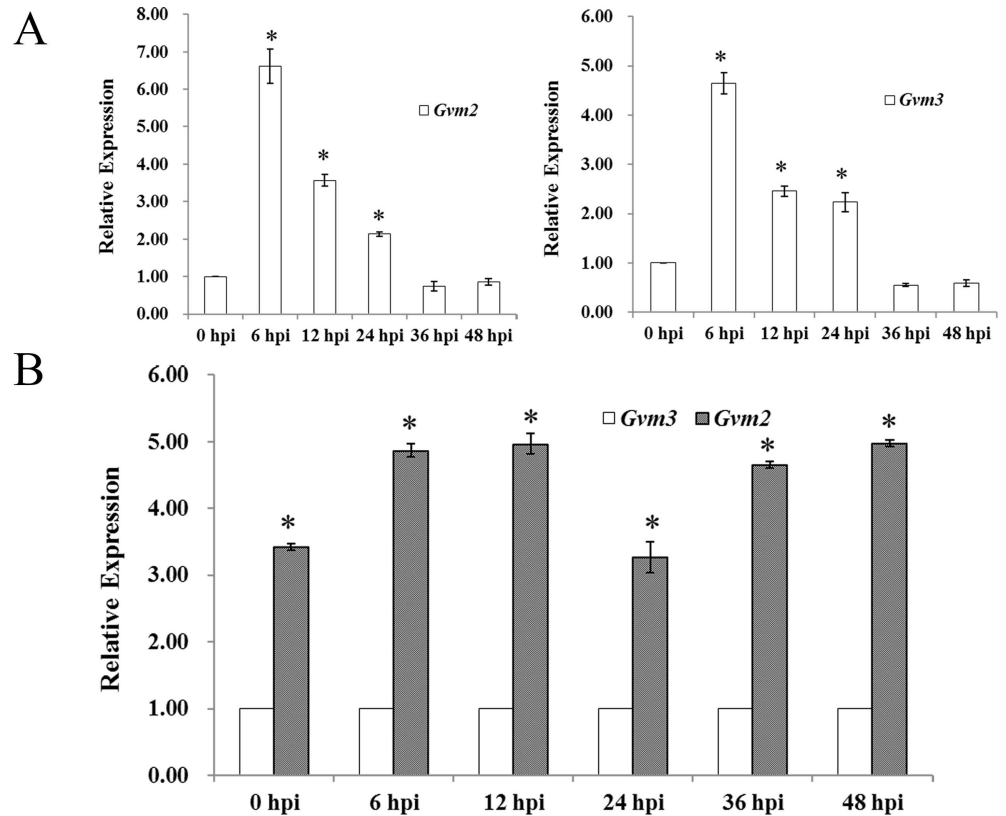
**Fig 3. Responses of  $\Delta Gvm2$  and  $\Delta Gvm3$  mutants to hyperosmotic, oxidative, and membrane stresses.** Colony diameters of wild-type strain 03–8,  $\Delta Gvm2$  mutants G2M-1, G2M-2 and  $\Delta Gvm3$  mutants G3M-1, G3M-2 on PDA with 0.1 M NaCl, 0.03% H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, or 0.01% SDS were measured after incubation in the dark for 3 d at 25°C. The percentage of the growth rate of the G2M-1, G2M-2, G3M-1, and G3M-2 mutants compared to that of the wild-type (set at 100%) on PDA cultures with or without different stresses. Different letters indicate statistically significant differences ( $P < 0.05$ , T-test). Bars indicate standard deviation of the mean of eight individual plates. All experiments were performed in triplicate.

doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0173141.g003

caused by  $\Delta Gvm2$  and  $\Delta Gvm3$  mutants are also smaller on twigs. The lesion length of wild type 03–8 strain was 59.0 mm. Compared to the wild type, both of  $\Delta Gvm2$  mutants G2C-1 and G2C-2 show a reduction of 27.5% and 28.8%, and  $\Delta Gvm3$  mutants G3C-1 and G3C-2 exhibit a reduction of 33.1% and 33.2% (Fig 5B).

Cell wall degrading enzymes have been shown to constitute important virulence factors in *V. mali* [25–28]. A role for G protein signaling in cellulase gene expression was described in *C. parasitica* and *T. reesei* [29–31]. To further analyze the influence of Gvm2, or Gvm3 on cell wall degrading enzymes, transcript levels of different genes, including nine pectinase, six cellulase and five hemicellulase genes (S3 Table) encoded in the *V. mali* genome were checked in





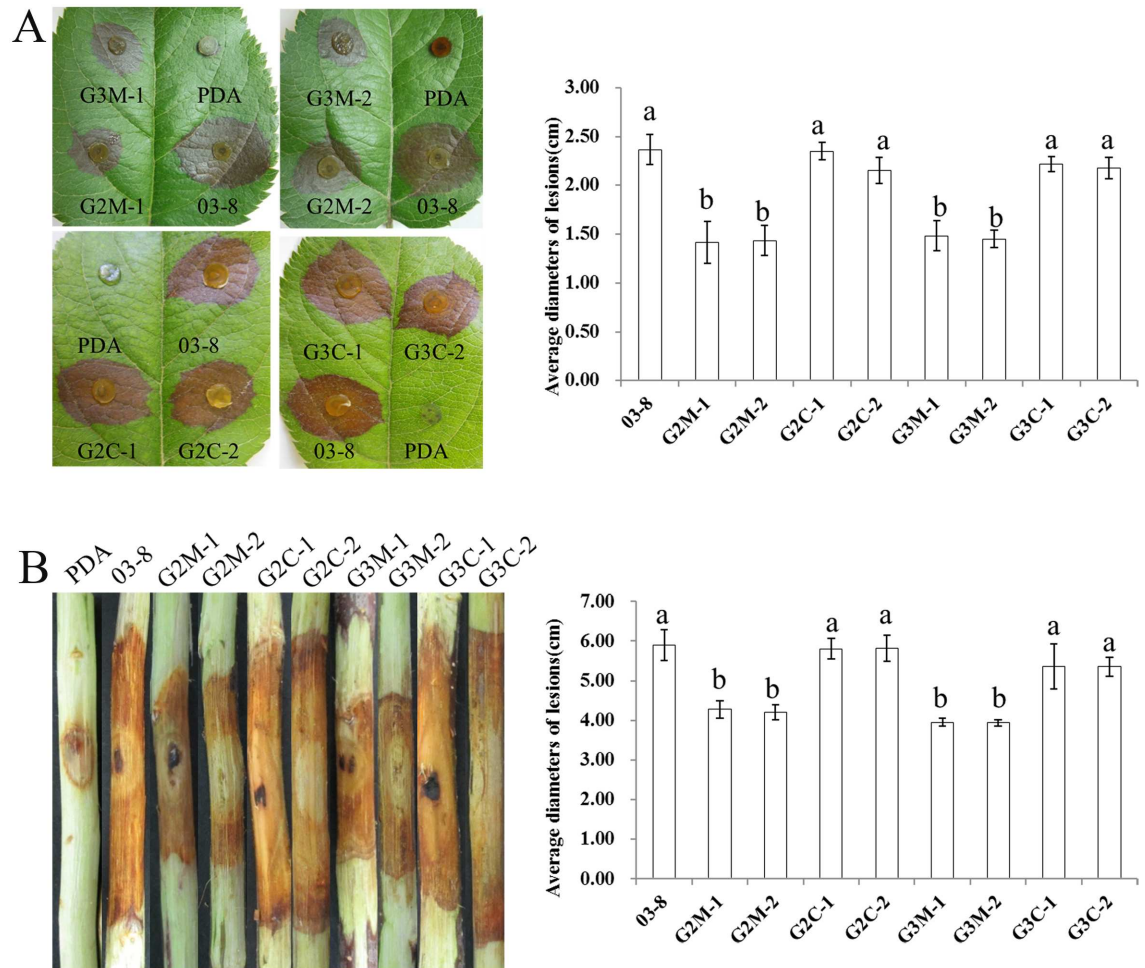
**Fig 4. Transcript levels of *Gvm2* and *Gvm3* assayed by qRT-PCR.** A: RNA samples were isolated from mycelium of strain 03–8 cultured in PDB medium at 25°C for 48 h. 0 hpi: axenic culture. Infected twigs were collected 6, 12, 24, 36 and 48 hpi. Relative transcript levels of *Gvm2* and *Gvm3* were calculated with *G6PDH* as internal control using the  $2^{-\Delta\Delta CT}$  method. Transcript levels of *Gvm2* or *Gvm3* at the mycelium stage were set to 1 for all samples. B: Relative transcript levels of *Gvm2* in comparison with *Gvm3*. The transcript level of *Gvm3* was set to 1 for all samples. Data from three biological replicates were used to calculate the mean and standard deviation.

doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0173141.g004

$\Delta Gvm2$  and  $\Delta Gvm3$  mutants. RNA samples were isolated from vegetative mycelium of wild type strain 03–8,  $\Delta Gvm2$ , and  $\Delta Gvm3$  mutants inoculated on twigs for 3 days at 25°C. Our results show that many hydrolytic enzyme encoding genes including pectinase, cellulase and hemicellulase genes are expressed at much lower levels in  $\Delta Gvm2$  and  $\Delta Gvm3$  mutants (Fig 6). These results clearly indicate that *Gvm2* and *Gvm3* are involved in regulating cell wall degrading enzyme genes.

### *Gvm2* and *Gvm3* mutants' influence on interrelated downstream genes

To further analyze the effects of a deletion of *Gvm2* or *Gvm3* on the expression of genes of the cAMP/PKA pathway, we checked the transcript levels of different genes, including one adenylate cyclase gene (*VmAC*, VM1G\_01407), two PKA catalytic subunits genes (*VmPKA1*, VM1G\_00266; and *VmPKA2*, VM1G\_08687), and one PKA regulatory subunit gene (*VmPKR*, VM1G\_08329) encoded in the *V. mali* genome. RNA samples were isolated from vegetative mycelium of wild type strain 03–8,  $\Delta Gvm2$  and  $\Delta Gvm3$  mutants cultured in PDB medium for 4 d at 25°C. Our results show that *VmAC*, and *VmPKR* are down-regulated in both mutants (Fig 7A). The expression of *VmPKA1* is also down-regulated, however, *VmPKA2* is not significantly affected in the two mutants (Fig 7A).



**Fig 5. Assay for plant infection of the  $\Delta Gvm2$  and  $\Delta Gvm3$  mutants.** 5 mm circular agar plugs were inoculated onto (A) leaves or (B) twigs, examined and photographed 3, and 11 dpi, respectively. Three biological replicates and eight technical replicates were performed. Bars indicate standard deviation of the mean of eight individual plants.

doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0173141.g005

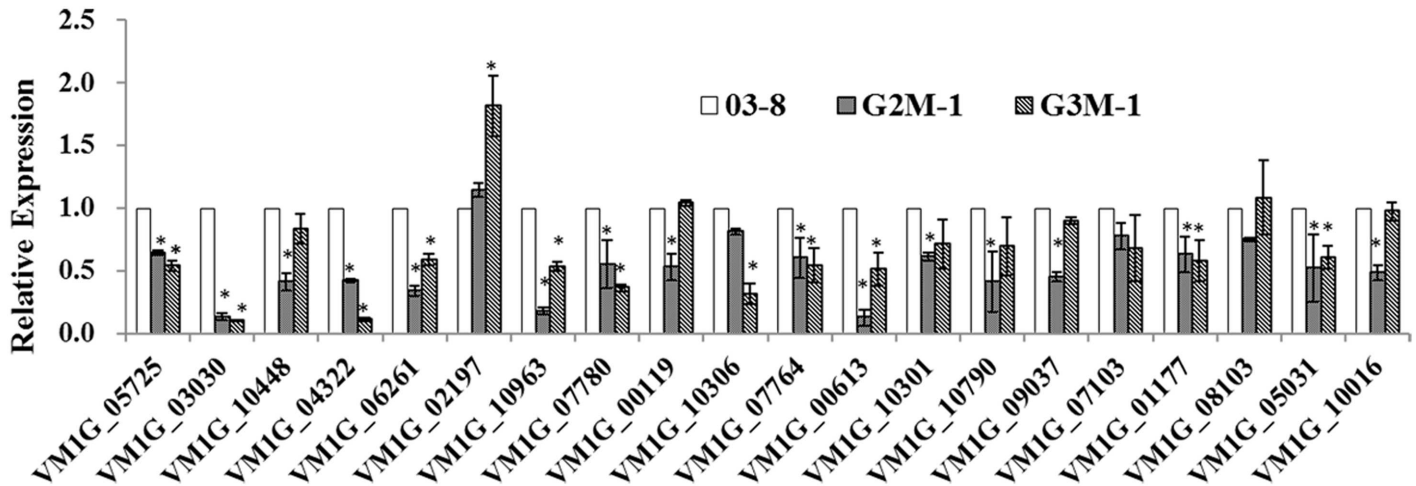
### Effects of *V. mali* Gvm2 and Gvm3 on cAMP level and PKA activity

It was reported that Group III Gα proteins could influence cAMP levels through the regulation of adenylate cyclase [9]. To determine whether Gvm2 and Gvm3 are also involved in this process, we measured intracellular cAMP levels in the mutants G2M-1 and G3M-1. Our results indicate that the  $\Delta Gvm3$  mutant strain G3M-1 accumulates somewhat lower levels of cAMP than the wild-type strain. Compared with the wild-type, G3M-1 shows a 1.7-fold lower intracellular cAMP level, while the intracellular cAMP level in G2M-1 did not obviously decrease (Fig 7B). These results suggest that Gvm3 protein plays a role in regulating the intracellular cAMP level.

Similarly, PKA activity is reduced in the  $\Delta Gvm3$  mutant strain G3M-1 (Fig 7C). However, PKA activity in the  $\Delta Gvm2$  mutant strain G2M-1 shows no obvious change (Fig 7C). These results suggest that Gvm3 is also involved in regulating PKA activity.

### Discussion

The importance of G protein signaling in regulating diverse biological processes in fungi has already been demonstrated [46]. In this study, we have identified genes encoding two



**Fig 6. Transcript levels of Cell Wall Degrading Enzyme (CWDE) genes in the  $\Delta Gvm2$  and  $\Delta Gvm3$  mutants of *V. mali*.** RNA samples were isolated from infected twigs of WT, G2M-1, and G3M-1 three days after inoculated at 25°C. Relative transcript levels were calculated with *G6PDH* as internal control using the  $2^{-\Delta\Delta CT}$  method. Transcript levels of WT were set to 1 for all samples.

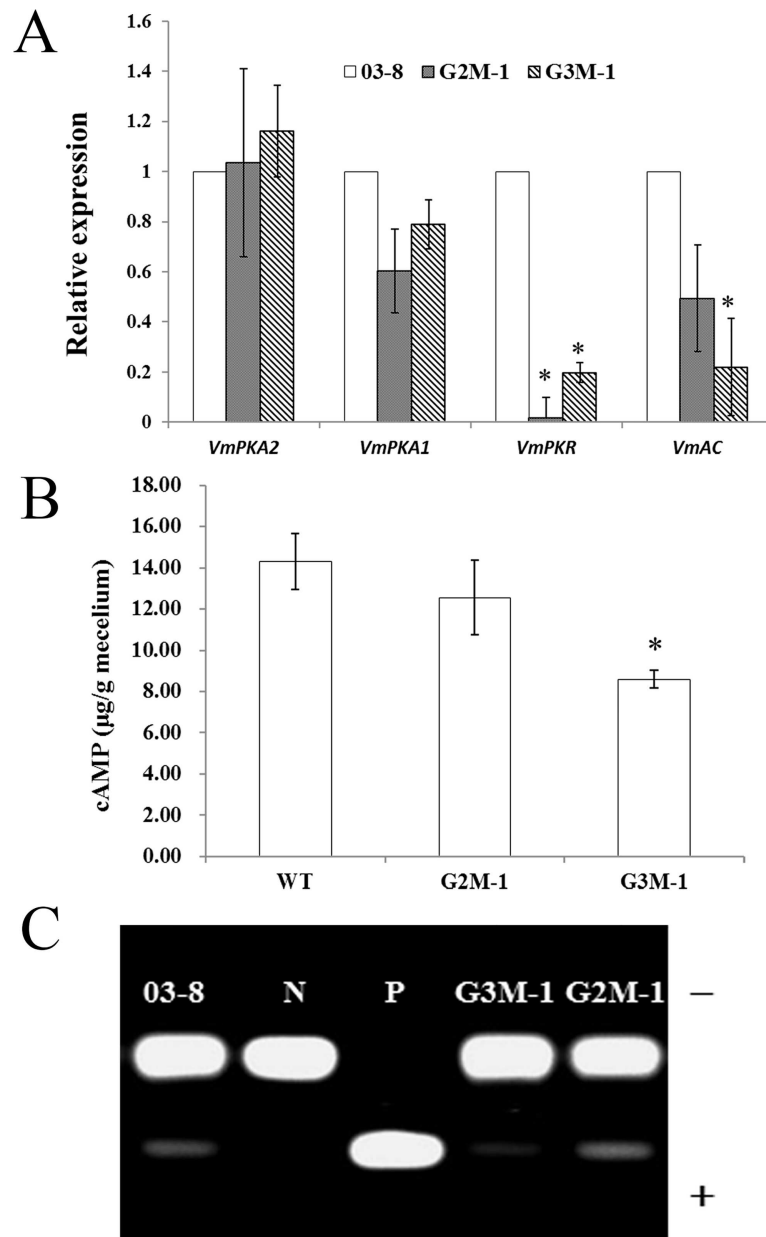
doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0173141.g006

heterotrimeric Gα subunits, *Gvm2* and *Gvm3*, from *V. mali*. We found that *Gvm2* and *Gvm3* play various roles in the modulation of vegetative growth, asexual development, and virulence possibly via the cAMP/PKA pathway in this pathogenic fungus. Reduced virulence of  $\Delta Gvm2$  and  $\Delta Gvm3$  mutants may be due to a lower expression level of cell wall degrading enzymes.

Except for yeasts, which contain two Gα proteins, most characterized filamentous fungi possess three Gα proteins belonging to distinct groups [9,47]. Group I Gα proteins are highly conserved in most filamentous fungi, containing a consensus sequence for myristoylation (MGXXXS) at the amino terminus [44,48] and a site for ADP-ribosylation by pertussis toxin (CAAX) at the carboxy terminus [45]. *Gvm1* seems to be a Group I Gα subunit, but unfortunately, we were not able to obtain a deletion mutant. *Gvm2* is a Group II Gα subunit, and *Gvm3* is a Group III Gα subunit similar to *M. oryzae* MAGC, and MAGA, respectively. Group II Gα subunits are not as well conserved as Group I, or III Gα subunits. Group III Gα subunits are highly conserved and most possess a myristoylation sequence [49]. We found that *Gvm3* contains a potential consensus myristoylation site (MMGXXXS) at its N terminus, while *Gvm2* does not contain such a site.

*Gvm3* was found to play an important role in the regulation of vegetative growth. Similarly, deletion of *ffg3* in *F. fujikuroi* caused reduces growth rates on minimal as well as complete medium [17]. Defects in growth rate upon deletion of Gα subunit genes has also been shown for *A. nidulans*, and *B. cinerea* [13,14,32]. However, deletion of *magA* in *M. oryzae* has no effect on vegetative growth [10]. It remains to be clarified if there is a species-specific pattern in the influence of Group III Gα subunits on the growth of different fungi. Our  $\Delta Gvm2$  mutants on the other hand exhibit no significant effect on fungal growth. It is reported that the role of Group II Gα subunits in vegetative growth is less explicit. For example, deletion of *magC* does not affect vegetative growth in *M. oryzae* [10].

Gα subunits have also been reported to be involved in asexual reproduction. Deletion of *magA* has no effect on conidiation, but a mutation in *magC* considerably reduces conidiation in *M. oryzae* [10]. In this study, we found that conidiation of *V. mali* was negatively influenced by mutations in both Gα subunit genes, *Gvm2* and *Gvm3*. Despite the different growth rate phenotypes exhibited by these mutants, both Gα subunits seem to contribute to the regulation of asexual reproduction in *V. mali*.



**Fig 7. Assay for cAMP/PKA signaling pathway of  $\Delta Gvm2$  and  $\Delta Gvm3$  mutants.** A: Transcript levels of genes related to the cAMP/PKA signaling pathway. Relative transcript levels of *VmPKA1*, *VmPKA2*, *VmPKR* and *VmAC* genes in the wild type strain were set to 1. B: Intracellular cAMP levels in the wild-type and mutants. Bar chart showing quantification of intracellular cAMP in the mycelia of the indicated strains following three days of culturing in Yeast Extract Peptone Dextrose Medium (YEFD). The standard deviation represent SD of three replicates. C: PKA activity in the wild-type and mutants. Phosphorylated (+), nonphosphorylated (-), cAMP-Dependent Protein Kinase, Catalytic Subunit was the PKA positive control (P); water instead of PKA added as the negative control (N).

doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0173141.g007

We also found that mutants defective in *Gvm2*, or *Gvm3* are more sensitive to free radicals. Some reports have indicated that G protein-coupled signaling components are involved in H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-induced responses [50]. Besides, it has been reported that G $\alpha_i$  and G $\alpha_o$  are critical components of oxidative stress responses, e.g. for activation of extracellular signal-related kinase

(ERK) [50]. Based on our findings, we suggest that Gvm2 as well as Gvm3 play important roles in oxidative stress responses.

It has also been shown that G proteins may play a significant role in pathogenesis [49]. The results from our qRT-PCR analyses show that transcript levels of *Gvm2* and *Gvm3* are up-regulated during early stages of infection. Both proteins may therefore play an important role in the early stages of infection in *V. mali*. Many reports indicate that Group III Gα subunits may be involved in pathogenesis. In *Ustilago maydis*, Gpa3 seems to be involved in the invasion of corn [51]. Group III Gα subunits in *B. cinerea* (Bcg3), *Cryptococcus neoformans* (Gpa1), *F. fujikuroi* (Ffg3) and *Fusarium oxysporum* (Fga2) also seem to be required for full virulence [17,32,52–55]. However, deletion of *magA* in *M. grisea* does not appear to affect the ability to infect and spread within host tissue [10]. In infection assays with apple leaves and twigs, virulence of *Gvm3* deletion mutants is significantly reduced (Fig 5). We cannot totally exclude that the growth defect of  $\Delta Gvm3$  mutants may contribute to the reduced virulence, at least partially. However,  $\Delta Gvm3$  mutants show a 30% to 35% reduction in lesion length in leaves or twigs (Fig 5)—this is not proportional to the 20% reduction in growth rate (Fig 2). In addition, cell wall degrading enzymes have been described as important virulence factors in *V. mali* [25–28]. It is likely that the defect in virulence of  $\Delta Gvm3$  mutants may be related to its reduced expression of cell wall degrading enzyme genes (Fig 6). G protein signaling in cellulase gene expression has also been described for *C. parasitica* and *T. reesei* [29–31]. Interestingly,  $\Delta Gvm2$  mutants, which do not show a growth defect, also show a significant reduction in virulence. Reduced virulence of  $\Delta Gvm2$  mutants is consistent with reduced expression of cell wall degrading enzymes, indicating that Gvm2 also plays an important role in virulence. Transcript levels of genes encoding cell wall degrading enzymes in  $\Delta Gvm2$  mutants are lower compared to  $\Delta Gvm3$  mutants. This may be the reason why  $\Delta Gvm2$  mutants show the same reduction in virulence as  $\Delta Gvm3$  mutants, though  $\Delta Gvm2$  mutants do not exhibit a growth defect. Similarly, it has been found that Gpa3 from *C. neoformans* is also involved in pathogenesis [54]. However, in most organisms, the function of Group II Gα proteins is less significant than that of Group III Gα proteins. For example, deletion of *magC* in *M. oryzae*, *ffg3* in *F. fujikuroi*, and *gpa2* in *U. maydis* has no effect on virulence [10,17,51] and *B. cinerea* *bcg-2* mutants only show slightly reduced virulence [32].

Both Gβγ and Gα subunits are able to trigger downstream signaling pathways by interacting with various targets such as phosphodiesterases, protein kinases, and adenylyl cyclases [6,56,57]. In this study, we analyzed transcript levels of *VmAC*, *VmPKR*, *VmPKA1*, and *VmPKA2* in  $\Delta Gvm3$  and  $\Delta Gvm2$  mutants. Transcript levels of *VmAC*, *VmPKR*, and *VmPKA1* are down-regulated in both mutants. Gvm2 and Gvm3 may therefore be involved in the cAMP/PKA pathway. To further determine whether Gvm2 and Gvm3 proteins are involved in this process, we measured intracellular cAMP levels. Our results indicate that  $\Delta Gvm3$  mutants accumulate somewhat lower levels of cAMP, while the intracellular cAMP level in  $\Delta Gvm2$  mutants seems unchanged (Fig 7B). We also measured PKA activity in  $\Delta Gvm2$  and  $\Delta Gvm3$  mutants. Results show that PKA activity is reduced in  $\Delta Gvm3$  mutants (Fig 7C). However, PKA activity in  $\Delta Gvm2$  mutants show no change (Fig 7C). These results suggest that Gvm3 plays a more important role in regulating the cAMP-PKA signaling pathway. It has been reported that Group III Gα proteins could influence cAMP levels through the regulation of adenylyl cyclase [9]. Gα proteins, including *A. nidulans* GanB, *U. maydis* Gpa3, *F. fujikuroi* Ffg3 and *C. neoformans* Gpa1, have been implicated in the regulation of cAMP signaling [14,17,52,53,58,59].

In conclusion, two heterotrimeric Gα subunits, Gvm2 and Gvm3, were functionally characterized in *V. mali*. Both seem to be important for virulence. Gvm3 also seems to be involved in

regulating vegetative growth. Both, Gvm2 and Gvm3, seem to be involved in the response to different abiotic stresses in *V. mali*.

## Supporting information

**S1 Fig. Gene knockout by homologous recombination and PCR screening of transformants with four primer pairs.** Verification of mutants by PCR was done using four pairs of primers. Primers GvmX-5F and GvmX-6R (1) are located within the ORFs for negative screening, primers H852 and H850 (2) are located within the hygromycin-resistant gene, primers GvmX-7F and GvmX-8R are located beyond the gene flanking sequences, primers H856F and H855R are located within the hygromycin-resistance conferring gene, primers GvmX-7F/H855R (3) for positive screen (upstream), and primers H856F/ GvmX-8R (4) for positive screen (downstream). M: 2,000 bp marker.

(TIF)

**S2 Fig. Strategy of knocking out G $\alpha$  subunit genes in *V. mali*.** Arrows indicate orientations of the G $\alpha$  and hygromycin phosphotransferase (hph) genes. Thin lines below the arrows indicate the probe sequence for each gene (Probe 1), or the hph gene (Probe 2). A: Southern blot analyses of Gvm2 knockout mutants. Genomic DNA was digested with restriction enzymes HindIII (H), EcoRI (EI), or XbaI (X). When hybridized with a Gvm2 fragment amplified with primers Gvm2-5F/Gvm2-6R (Probe 1), the wild-type strain 03–8 shows the expected 4.4 kb band. gvm2 mutants show no corresponding hybridization signal. When hybridized with an hph probe (Probe 2) amplified with primers H850/H852, the wild-type strain shows no hybridization signal. gvm2 mutants on the other hand exhibit the expected 4.6 kb, or 9.0 kb bands in the respective XbaI, or EcoRI digests. B: Southern blot analyses of Gvm3 knockout mutants. Genomic DNA was digested with EcoRV (EV), or BamHI (B). When hybridized with a Gvm3 fragment amplified with primers Gvm3-5F/Gvm3-6R (Probe 1), the wild-type strain 03–8 shows the expected 4.1 kb band. gvm3 mutants show no hybridization signal. When hybridized with an hph probe (Probe 2) amplified with primers H850/H852, the wild-type strain shows no hybridization signal, whereas the gvm3 mutants show the expected 4.0 kb band.

(TIF)

**S1 Table. Primers for gene knockout cassette establishment and detection.**

(DOCX)

**S2 Table. Primers for detection of relative expression levels.**

(DOCX)

**S3 Table. Primers used for melanin biosynthesis related genes and cell wall-degrading enzyme genes expression.**

(DOCX)

## Acknowledgments

We thank Fengming Song (Zhejiang University, PRC) for providing the pBIG2RHPH2-GFP-GUS plasmid and Dr. Hao Feng and Liangsheng Xu at Northwest A&F University for proof-reading this manuscript. This work was financially supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (No. 31471732; 31671982).

## Author Contributions

**Conceptualization:** LH NS XG.

**Data curation:** NS.

**Formal analysis:** NS QD YW MX.

**Funding acquisition:** LH.

**Investigation:** NS QD BZ YW MX.

**Methodology:** NS QD BZ YW MX.

**Project administration:** NS LH.

**Resources:** NS QD YW MX.

**Software:** NS QD YW MX.

**Supervision:** LH.

**Validation:** NS QD YW MX.

**Visualization:** NS LH.

**Writing – original draft:** NS LH.

**Writing – review & editing:** NS ZK RTV.

## References

- Jacqueline AS, Campbell AJ, Borkovich KA (2012) G protein signaling components in filamentous fungal genomes. *Biocommunication of Fungi*: Springer. pp. 21–38.
- Neves SR, Ram PT, Iyengar R (2002) G protein pathways. *Science* 296: 1636–1639. doi: [10.1126/science.1071550](https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1071550) PMID: [12040175](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/12040175/)
- Malbon CC (2005) G proteins in development. *Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol* 6: 689–701. doi: [10.1038/nrm1716](https://doi.org/10.1038/nrm1716) PMID: [16231420](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/16231420/)
- Dohlman HG, Thorner J (2001) Regulation of G protein-initiated signal transduction in yeast: paradigms and principles. *Annu Rev Biochem* 70: 703–754. doi: [10.1146/annurev.biochem.70.1.703](https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.biochem.70.1.703) PMID: [11395421](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/11395421/)
- Gilman AG (1987) G proteins: transducers of receptor-generated signals. *Annual Review of Biochemistry* Annu Rev Biochem 56: 615–649. doi: [10.1146/annurev.bi.56.070187.003151](https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.bi.56.070187.003151) PMID: [3113327](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/3113327/)
- Simon MI, Strathmann MP, Gautam N (1991) Diversity of G proteins in signal transduction. *Science* 252: 802–808. PMID: [1902986](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/1902986/)
- Clapham DE, Neer EJ (1997) G protein βγ subunits. *Annu Rev Pharmacol Toxicol* 37: 167–203. doi: [10.1146/annurev.pharmtox.37.1.167](https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.pharmtox.37.1.167) PMID: [9131251](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/9131251/)
- Hamm HE (1998) The many faces of G protein signaling. *J Biol Chem* 273: 669–672. PMID: [9422713](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/9422713/)
- Bölker M (1998) Sex and crime: heterotrimeric G proteins in fungal mating and pathogenesis. *Fungal Genet Biol* 25: 143–156. doi: [10.1006/fgbi.1998.1102](https://doi.org/10.1006/fgbi.1998.1102) PMID: [9917369](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/9917369/)
- Liu S, Dean RA (1997) G protein α subunit genes control growth, development, and pathogenicity of *Magnaporthe grisea*. *Mol Plant Microbe Interact* 10: 1075–1086. doi: [10.1094/MPMI.1997.10.9.1075](https://doi.org/10.1094/MPMI.1997.10.9.1075) PMID: [9390422](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/9390422/)
- Kübler E, Mösch HU, Rupp S, Lisanti MP (1997) Gpa2p, a G-protein α-subunit, regulates growth and pseudohyphal development in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* via a cAMP-dependent mechanism. *J Biol Chem* 272: 20321–20323. PMID: [9252333](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/9252333/)
- Lorenz MC, Heitman J (1997) Yeast pseudohyphal growth is regulated by GPA2, a G protein α homolog. *EMBO J* 16: 7008–7018. doi: [10.1093/emboj/16.23.7008](https://doi.org/10.1093/emboj/16.23.7008) PMID: [9384580](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/9384580/)
- Chang M, Chae K, Han D, Jahng K (2004) The GanB Galpha-protein negatively regulates asexual sporulation and plays a positive role in conidial germination in *Aspergillus nidulans*. *Genetics* 167: 1305. doi: [10.1534/genetics.103.025379](https://doi.org/10.1534/genetics.103.025379) PMID: [15280244](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/15280244/)
- Lafon A, Seo J-A, Han K-H, Yu J-H, d'Enfert C (2005) The heterotrimeric G-protein GanB(α)-SfaD(β)-GpgA(γ) is a carbon source sensor involved in early cAMP-dependent germination in *Aspergillus nidulans*. *Genetics* 171: 71–80. doi: [10.1534/genetics.105.040584](https://doi.org/10.1534/genetics.105.040584) PMID: [15944355](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/15944355/)

15. Gao S, Nuss DL (1996) Distinct roles for two G protein α subunits in fungal virulence, morphology, and reproduction revealed by targeted gene disruption. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 93: 14122–14127. PMID: [11038529](#)
16. Krystofova S, Borkovich KA (2005) The heterotrimeric G-protein subunits GNG-1 and GNB-1 form a Gβγ dimer required for normal female fertility, asexual development, and Gα protein levels in *Neurospora crassa*. *Eukaryot Cell* 4: 365–378. doi: [10.1128/EC.4.2.365-378.2005](#) PMID: [15701799](#)
17. Studt L, Humpf H-U, Tudzynski B (2013) Signaling governed by G proteins and cAMP is crucial for growth, secondary metabolism and sexual development in *Fusarium fujikuroi*. *PLoS one* 8: e58185. doi: [10.1371/journal.pone.0058185](#) PMID: [23469152](#)
18. Jones AL, Aldwinckle H (1990) *Compendium of apple and pear diseases and Pests*: APS Press, St. Paul.
19. Cao K, Guo L, Li B, Sun G, Chen H (2009) Investigations on the occurrence and control of apple canker in China. *Plant Protect* 35: 114–116.
20. Wang L, Zang R, Huang LL, Xie FQ, Gao XN (2005) The investigation of apple tree *Valsa* canker in Guanzhong region of Shaanxi province. *J Northwest Sci-Tech Univer Agricult and Forest* 33: 98–100.
21. Abe K, Kotoda N, Kato H, Soejima J (2011) Genetic studies on resistance to *Valsa* canker in apple: genetic variance and breeding values estimated from intra-and inter-specific hybrid progeny populations. *Tree Genet Genom* 7: 363–372.
22. Lee DH, Lee SW, Choi KH, Kim DA, Uhm JY (2006) Survey on the occurrence of apple diseases in Korea from 1992 to 2000. *Plant Pathol J* 22: 375–380.
23. Abe K, Kotoda N, Kato H, Soejima J (2007) Resistance sources to *Valsa* canker (*Valsa ceratosperma*) in a germplasm collection of diverse *Malus* species. *Plant Breed* 126: 449–453.
24. Chen C, Li M, Shi X, Wang J (1987) Studies on the infection period of *Valsa mali* Miyabe et Yamada, the causal agent of apple tree canker. *Acta Phytopathol Sin* 17: 3–6.
25. Ke XW, Huang LL, Han QM, Gao XN, Kang ZS (2013) Histological and cytological investigations of the infection and colonization of apple bark by *Valsa mali* var. *mali*. *Australas Plant Path* 42: 85–93.
26. Ke XW, Yin ZY, Song N, Dai QQ, Voegelé RT, Liu YY, et al. (2014) Transcriptome profiling to identify genes involved in pathogenicity of *Valsa mali* on apple tree. *Fungal Genet Biol* 68: 31–38. doi: [10.1016/j.fgb.2014.04.004](#) PMID: [24747070](#)
27. Yin ZY, Liu HQ, Li ZP, Ke XW, Dou DL, Gao XN, et al. (2015) Genome sequence of *Valsa* canker pathogens uncovers a potential adaptation of colonization of woody bark. *New Phytol* 208: 1202–1216. doi: [10.1111/nph.13544](#) PMID: [26137988](#)
28. Xu CJ, Dai QQ, Li ZP, Gao XN, Hang LL (2016) Function of Polygalacturonase Genes *Vmpg7* and *Vmpg8* of *Valsa mali*. *Scientia Agricultura Sinica* 49: 1489–1498.
29. Schmoll M, Schuster A, do Nascimento Silva R, Kubicek CP (2009) The G-alpha protein GNA3 of *Hypocrea jecorina* (anamorph *Trichoderma reesei*) regulates cellulase gene expression in the presence of light. *Eukaryot cell* 8: 410–420. doi: [10.1128/EC.00256-08](#) PMID: [19136572](#)
30. Seibel C, Gremel G, do Nascimento Silva R, Schuster A, Kubicek CP, Schmoll M. (2009) Light-dependent roles of the G-protein α subunit GNA1 of *Hypocrea jecorina* (anamorph *Trichoderma reesei*). *BMC Biol* 7: 1.
31. Wang P, Nuss DL (1995) Induction of a *Cryphonectria parasitica* cellobiohydrolase I gene is suppressed by hypovirus infection and regulated by a GTP-binding-protein-linked signaling pathway involved in fungal pathogenesis. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 92: 11529–11533. PMID: [8524797](#)
32. Doehlemann G, Berndt P, Hahn M (2006) Different signalling pathways involving a Gα protein, cAMP and a MAP kinase control germination of *Botrytis cinerea* conidia. *Mol Microbiol* 59: 821–835. doi: [10.1111/j.1365-2958.2005.04991.x](#) PMID: [16420354](#)
33. Hallen HE, Watling R, Adams GC (2003) Taxonomy and toxicity of *Conocybe lactea* and related species. *Mycol Res* 107: 969–979. PMID: [14531619](#)
34. Fang L (2005) *Agrobacterium tumefaciens*-mediated transformation of *Fusarium graminearum* and *Colletotrichum lagenarium* and preliminary screening for pathogenicity mutants. Master's Thesis, Zhejiang University, Zhejiang.
35. Yu JH, Hamari Z, Han KH, Seo JA, Reyes-Domínguez Y, Sczarcocchio C. (2004) Double-joint PCR: a PCR-based molecular tool for gene manipulations in filamentous fungi. *Fungal Genet Biol* 41: 973–981. doi: [10.1016/j.fgb.2004.08.001](#) PMID: [15465386](#)
36. Gao J, Li Y, Ke X, Kang Z, Huang L (2011) Development of genetic transformation system of *Valsa mali* of apple mediated by PEG. *Acta microbiologica Sinica* 51: 1194–1199. PMID: [22126074](#)



37. Bruno KS, Tenjo F, Li L, Hamer JE, Xu JR (2004) Cellular localization and role of kinase activity of PMK1 in *Magnaporthe grisea*. Eukaryot cell 3: 1525–1532. doi: [10.1128/EC.3.6.1525-1532.2004](https://doi.org/10.1128/EC.3.6.1525-1532.2004) PMID: [15590826](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/15590826/)
38. Zhou X, Li G, Xu JR (2011) Efficient approaches for generating GFP fusion and epitope-tagging constructs in filamentous fungi. Methods Mol Biol 722, 199–212. doi: [10.1007/978-1-61779-040-9\\_15](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-61779-040-9_15) PMID: [21590423](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/21590423/)
39. Yin ZY, Ke XW, Huang DX, Gao XN, Voegelé RT, Kang ZS, et al. (2013) Validation of reference genes for gene expression analysis in *Valsa mali* var. *mali* using real-time quantitative PCR. World J Microbiol Biotechnol 29: 1563–1571. doi: [10.1007/s11274-013-1320-6](https://doi.org/10.1007/s11274-013-1320-6) PMID: [23508400](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/23508400/)
40. Livak KJ, Schmittgen TD (2001) Analysis of relative gene expression data using real-time quantitative PCR and the  $2^{-\Delta\Delta CT}$  method. Methods 25: 402–408. doi: [10.1006/meth.2001.1262](https://doi.org/10.1006/meth.2001.1262) PMID: [11846609](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/11846609/)
41. Wei JL, Hang LL, Gao XN, Ke XW, Kang ZS (2010) Laboratory evaluation methods of apple Valsa cancer disease caused by *Valsa ceratosperma* sensu Kobayashi. Acta Phytopathol Sin 40: 14–20.
42. Duan YX (2013) Separation and purification of cAMP from red jujube and research of its oral liquid. Master's Thesis, Tianjin University of Commerce, Tianjin.
43. You FH (2007) Studies on absorption and separation for cAMP from ziziphus jujube. Master's Thesis, Hefei University of Technology, Hefei.
44. Buss JE, Mumby SM, Casey PJ, Gilman AG, Sefton BM (1987) Myristoylated alpha subunits of guanine nucleotide-binding regulatory proteins. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 84: 7493–7497.
45. West R, Moss J, Vaughan M, Liu T, Liu TY (1985) Pertussis toxin-catalyzed ADP-ribosylation of transducin. Cysteine 347 is the ADP-ribose acceptor site. Journal of Biological Chemistry 260: 14428–14430. PMID: [3863818](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/3863818/)
46. D'Souza CA, Heitman J (2001) Conserved cAMP signaling cascades regulate fungal development and virulence. FEMS Microbiol Rev 25: 349–364. PMID: [11348689](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/11348689/)
47. Kays A, Borkovich K (2004) Signal transduction pathways mediated by heterotrimeric G proteins. Biochemistry and Molecular Biology: Springer. pp. 175–207.
48. Turner G, Borkovich K (1993) Identification of a G protein alpha subunit from *Neurospora crassa* that is a member of the Gi family. Journal of Biological Chemistry 268: 14805–14811. PMID: [8325859](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/8325859/)
49. Li L, Wright SJ, Krystofova S, Park G, Borkovich KA (2007) Heterotrimeric G protein signaling in filamentous fungi. Annu Rev Microbiol 61: 423–452. doi: [10.1146/annurev.micro.61.080706.093432](https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.micro.61.080706.093432) PMID: [17506673](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/17506673/)
50. Nishida M, Maruyama Y, Tanaka R, Kontani K, Nagao T, Kurose H. (2000) Gai and Gao are target proteins of reactive oxygen species. Nature 408: 492–495. doi: [10.1038/35044120](https://doi.org/10.1038/35044120) PMID: [11100733](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/11100733/)
51. Regenfelder E, Spellig T, Hartmann A, Lauenstein S, Bölker M, Kahmann R. (1997) G proteins in *Ustilago maydis*: transmission of multiple signals? EMBO J 16: 1934–1942. doi: [10.1093/emboj/16.8.1934](https://doi.org/10.1093/emboj/16.8.1934) PMID: [9155019](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/9155019/)
52. Alspaugh JA, Pukkila-Worley R, Harashima T, Cavallo LM, Funnell D, Cox GM, et al. (2002) Adenylyl cyclase functions downstream of the Gα protein Gpa1 and controls mating and pathogenicity of *Cryptococcus neoformans*. Eukaryot Cell 1: 75–84. doi: [10.1128/EC.1.1.75-84.2002](https://doi.org/10.1128/EC.1.1.75-84.2002) PMID: [12455973](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/12455973/)
53. Alspaugh JA, Perfect JR, Heitman J (1997) *Cryptococcus neoformans* mating and virulence are regulated by the G-protein α subunit GPA1 and cAMP. Genes Dev 11: 3206–3217. PMID: [9389652](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/9389652/)
54. Li L, Shen G, Zhang Z-G, Wang Y-L, Thompson JK, Wang P. (2007) Canonical heterotrimeric G proteins regulating mating and virulence of *Cryptococcus neoformans*. Mol Biol Cell 18: 4201–4209. doi: [10.1091/mbc.E07-02-0136](https://doi.org/10.1091/mbc.E07-02-0136) PMID: [17699592](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/17699592/)
55. Jain S, Akiyama K, Takata R, Ohguchi T (2005) Signaling via the G protein α subunit FGA2 is necessary for pathogenesis in *Fusarium oxysporum*. FEMS Microbiol Lett 243: 165–172. doi: [10.1016/j.femsle.2004.12.009](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.femsle.2004.12.009) PMID: [15668015](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/15668015/)
56. Kaziro Y, Itoh H, Kozasa T, Nakafuku M, Satoh T (1991) Structure and function of signal-transducing GTP-binding proteins. Ann Rev Biochem 60: 349–400. doi: [10.1146/annurev.bi.60.070191.002025](https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.bi.60.070191.002025) PMID: [1909108](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/1909108/)
57. Neer EJ (1995) Heterotrimeric G proteins: Organizers of transmembrane signals. Cell 80: 249–257. PMID: [7834744](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/7834744/)
58. Krüger J, Loubradou G, Regenfelder E, Hartmann A, Kahmann R (1998) Crosstalk between cAMP and pheromone signalling pathways in *Ustilago maydis*. Mol Gen Genet 260: 193–198. PMID: [9862471](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/9862471/)
59. D'Souza CA, Alspaugh JA, Yue C, Harashima T, Cox GM, Heitman J. (2001) Cyclic AMP-dependent protein kinase controls virulence of the fungal pathogen *Cryptococcus neoformans*. Mol Cell Biol 21: 3179–3191. doi: [10.1128/MCB.21.9.3179-3191.2001](https://doi.org/10.1128/MCB.21.9.3179-3191.2001) PMID: [11287622](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/11287622/)