

Pearls

Parallels in Intercellular Communication in Oomycete and Fungal Pathogens of Plants and Humans

Soo Chan Lee¹, Jean B. Ristaino², Joseph Heitman^{1*}

1 Molecular Genetics and Microbiology, Duke University Medical Center, Durham, North Carolina, United States of America, **2** Department of Plant Pathology, North Carolina State University, Raleigh, North Carolina, United States of America

Introduction

Sexual reproduction is one of the most fascinating evolutionary outcomes in nature. Sexual development is paradoxical, conferring both benefits and costs, which makes sex an attractive subject in evolutionary biology. In pathogenic microbes, sexual development generates progeny with diverse genetic repertoires and can contribute to create more virulent genotypes. Sexual reproduction is ubiquitous in eukaryotic organisms, from single-celled yeasts to humans. Mating systems are highly adapted in each group and vary from species to species, which results in extremely diverse sexual modes throughout nature. However, in some cases, quite divergent groups share similar mechanisms. This review describes a similarity in pheromone synthesis routes in two group of microbial pathogens of historic importance that are evolutionarily quite distinct: zygomycete pathogenic fungi that belong to the kingdom Fungi in the opisthokonts clade, and *Phytophthora* oomycete species that belong to the stramenopile supergroup [1] (Figure 1).

Historical Aspects of the Two Evolutionarily Distinct Pathogenic Molds: Mucoralean Fungi and *Phytophthora*

Mucorales of the fungal Zygomycota and *Phytophthora* in the oomycetes have historical significance. One of the *Mucor* species belonging to the Mucoralean order was the first microbe ever observed in detail by the human eye via Robert Hooke's microscope. Hooke described the microscopic structures of this mold in his book *Micrographia* [2]. In addition, the first description of sexual development in fungi was of a Mucoralean species nearly two hundred years ago [3]. Several fungal species in the Mucoralean order are the causal agents of mucormycosis, a deadly fungal infection. These species include *Rhizopus* spp., *Mucor* spp., *Rhizomucor* spp., *Absidia* spp., *Cunninghemella* spp., and others [4]. Mucormycosis is an emerging, serious fungal infection with high mortality rates. A recent mucormycosis outbreak occurred in victims of the tornadoes in Joplin, Missouri, United States.

Oomycetes such as *Phytophthora* spp. were previously considered members of the fungal kingdom. However, more recent molecular analyses revealed oomycetes are not true fungi but instead divergent stramenopiles that are more closely related to the diatoms and brown alga, with only one known human pathogen in the group: *Blastocystis hominis* [5]. *Phytophthora* spp are known as notorious plant destroyers. *Phytophthora infestans* exemplifies this threat; it was the first species described in the genus and left a path of devastation in its wake on potato crops in the US, Ireland, and Europe in the 19th century [6]. Movement of infected potato tubers led to the potato famine epidemics of the 19th century, which resulted in widespread human hunger, disease, and ultimately the death of 2 million people in Ireland. The pathogen is still a threat to food security in the developing world.

Sexual Development and Mating/*sex* Loci in Mucoralean Fungi

There are two mating types, (+) and (−), in heterothallic Mucoraleans involved in sexual reproduction. When two opposite mating type cells encounter and recognize each other, mating occurs. Upon recognition, hyphae of two different mating types fuse and form a zygophore. This is followed by zygospore formation, in which multiple nuclei exist and diploidization occurs. Meiosis occurs next and the zygospores germinate to produce a sporangium filled with progeny spores. Sexual development in fungi was first described in the Zygomycota, especially in the Mucoralean fungi. However, how sexual reproduction is genetically governed was not known until a series of studies identified the *sex* locus in several Mucoralean fungi, including *Phycomyces blakesleeanus*, *Mucor circinelloides*, *Rhizopus delemar*/*R. oryzae*, *Syzygites megalocarpus*, and *Mucor mucedo* [7–11]. Both mating type cells encode allelic HMG transcription factor genes *sexP* and *sexM* for the (+) and (−) mating types, respectively, which function as key transcription factors for mating and cell type identity. The *sexP* and *sexM* genes are flanked by genes encoding a putative RNA helicase and a triose phosphate transporter, thus forming a syntenic TPT-HMG-RNA helicase gene cluster conserved throughout the known *sex* loci in the Mucoraleans.

Sexual Development and Mating Locus of *Phytophthora*

In heterothallic species of *Phytophthora*, mating occurs when two opposite mating types called A1 and A2 are co-cultured. Each mating type can be dimorphic and capable of producing either male antheridia or female oogonia. A1 mating type cells produce the $\alpha 1$ hormone and A2 mating type cells produce the $\alpha 2$ hormone [12]. Hormones play a key role in partner recognition and sexual development. Sexual development in *Phytophthora* is critical to the generation of novel genotypes that have been

Citation: Lee SC, Ristaino JB, Heitman J (2012) Parallels in Intercellular Communication in Oomycete and Fungal Pathogens of Plants and Humans. *PLoS Pathog* 8(12): e1003028. doi:10.1371/journal.ppat.1003028

Editor: William E. Goldman, The University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, United States of America

Published: December 13, 2012

Copyright: © 2012 Lee et al. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

Funding: SCL is supported by the NIH Molecular Mycology and Pathogenesis Training Program (AI52080). This work was supported by NIH/NIAID R37 grant AI39115 to JH. The funders had no role in study design, data collection and analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript.

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

* E-mail: heitm001@duke.edu

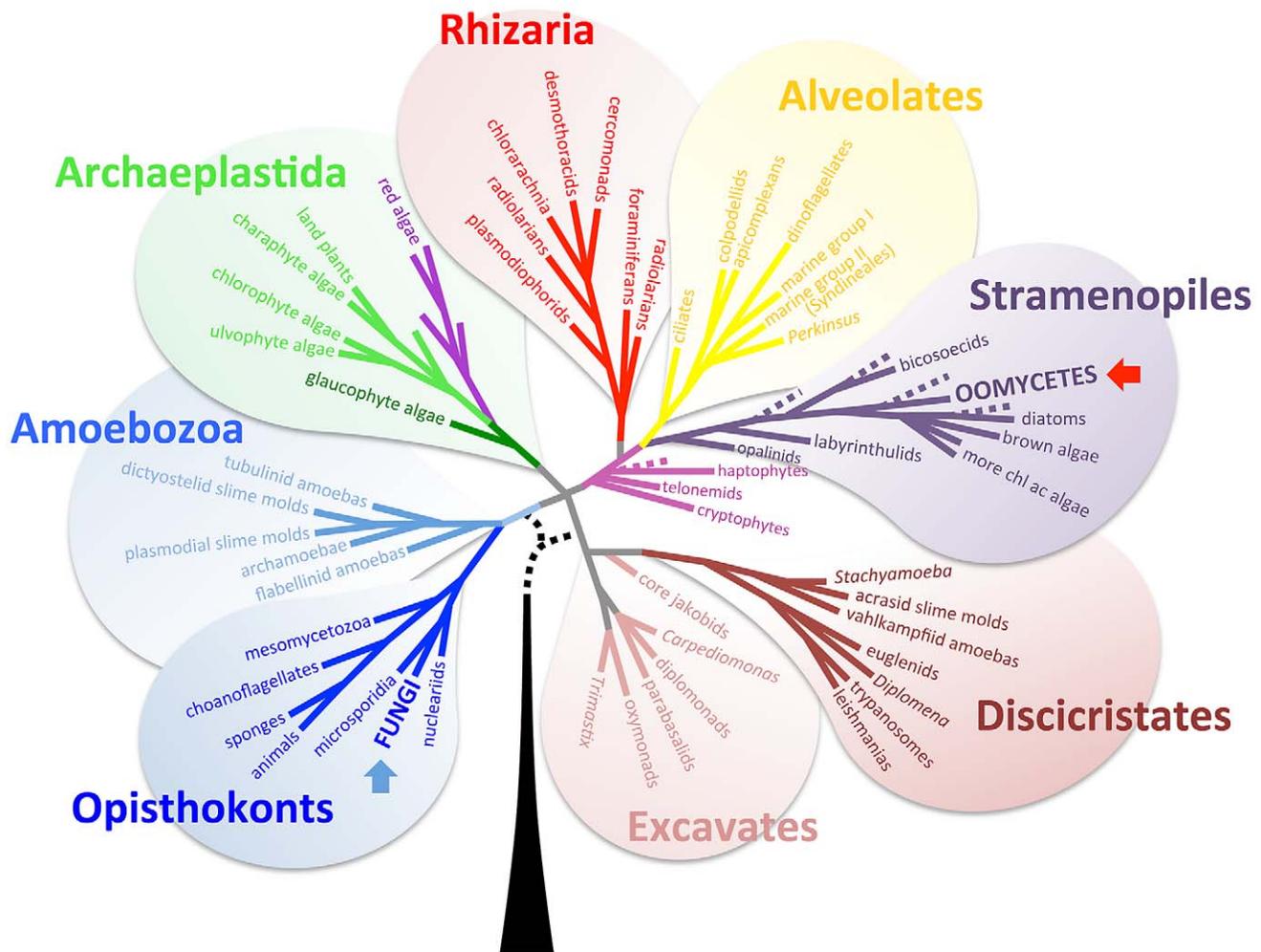


Figure 1. Eukaryotic tree of life (adapted from Baldauf, *Science*, 2003 [1], with her permission). The Mucoralean fungi belong to the fungal kingdom (blue arrow) in the Opisthokonts supergroup. *Phytophthora* species belong to the oomycetes in the Stramenopiles supergroup (red arrow).
doi:10.1371/journal.ppat.1003028.g001

exported from their origins in South America and have migrated across the globe, causing epidemics that continue to threaten our food supply today [13]. Understanding mechanisms that trigger sexual reproduction in nature may lead to novel approaches for disease control. Oospores result from sex and can survive for extended periods in soil and plant tissue and cause epidemics earlier in the season.

The complicated genetics of mating have been studied in *P. infestans* and a mating type locus has been identified that exhibits non-Mendelian inheritance [14,15]. A1 strains are heterozygous and A2 strains are homozygous [16]. Chromosome-specific allele differences and repetitive DNA has been found near the mating type locus in A1 strains and variation in the mating type locus among strains has been reported [17].

Sexual Pheromone Synthesis in Mucoralean and *Phytophthora*: Evolutionary Convergence

Sexual development is initiated by partner recognition. Molecules, called pheromones, mediate this process. The term “pheromone” (from the Greek words *pherein* [to transport] and

horman [to stimulate]) was first described and used by Karlson and Lusher one half century ago [18,19]. Since then, it has become a common term in reference to a sexual development messenger.

Mucoralean fungi utilize trisporic acid as their pheromone. The two mating types collaborate for its production, in which precursors of trisporic acid unique to each mating type need to be transferred into the opposite mating type and are then processed into the final active trisporic acid [20,21]. In both mating types, β -carotene serves as precursor for trisporic acid production. Both mating type cells convert β -carotene into 4-dihydrotrisporin via several enzymatic reactions. Next, (+) mating type cells produce 4-dihydromethyl trisporate from 4-dihydrotrisporin, whereas (–) mating type cells produce trisporin and trisporol. Interestingly, at this point, the intermediate chemicals are delivered to the opposite mating types. Trisporin and trisporol are exported by (–) mating type cells and enter into (+) mating type cells, where trisporic acid is finally produced. On the other hand, 4-dihydromethyl trisporate is made by (+) mating type cells and then exported and imported into (–) mating type cells, which convert it into methyl trisporate and finally trisporic acid (Figure 2) (reviewed in [22]). Thus, trisporic acid production and sexual

development cannot be completed without this chemical dialogue between both of the opposite sex partners.

Remarkably, this collaboration in sexual pheromone production between two fungal mating types is also found in the evolutionarily distant *Phytophthora* oomycete pathogens (Figure 1). The chemical nature of both *Phytophthora* $\alpha 1$ and $\alpha 2$ hormones was recently elucidated [23–25]. Only trace amounts of hormone are needed to initiate sexual development, and thus it proved difficult to obtain enough $\alpha 2$ hormone for structural study. In a recent study, Ojuka et al. successfully accumulated enough $\alpha 2$ hormone through a large-scale culture (approximately 200-liter culture) and identified

the chemical structure of the $\alpha 2$ hormone [26]. In this study, one of the most interesting findings was that the mechanism of sexual hormone production in *Phytophthora* resembles the intraspecies crosstalk observed in the Mucorales. They demonstrated that the $\alpha 2$ hormone of *Phytophthora* is a precursor of the $\alpha 1$ hormone. $\alpha 2$ hormone production is stimulated by the plant hormone phytol, which is proposed to be a precursor of $\alpha 2$. The $\alpha 2$ hormone from the A2 mating type must be transferred to and converted into $\alpha 1$ hormone by the opposite A1 mating type strain (Figure 2). Subsequently, the $\alpha 1$ hormone diffuses back to the A2 type, inducing gametangia formation. The central role of phytol, a

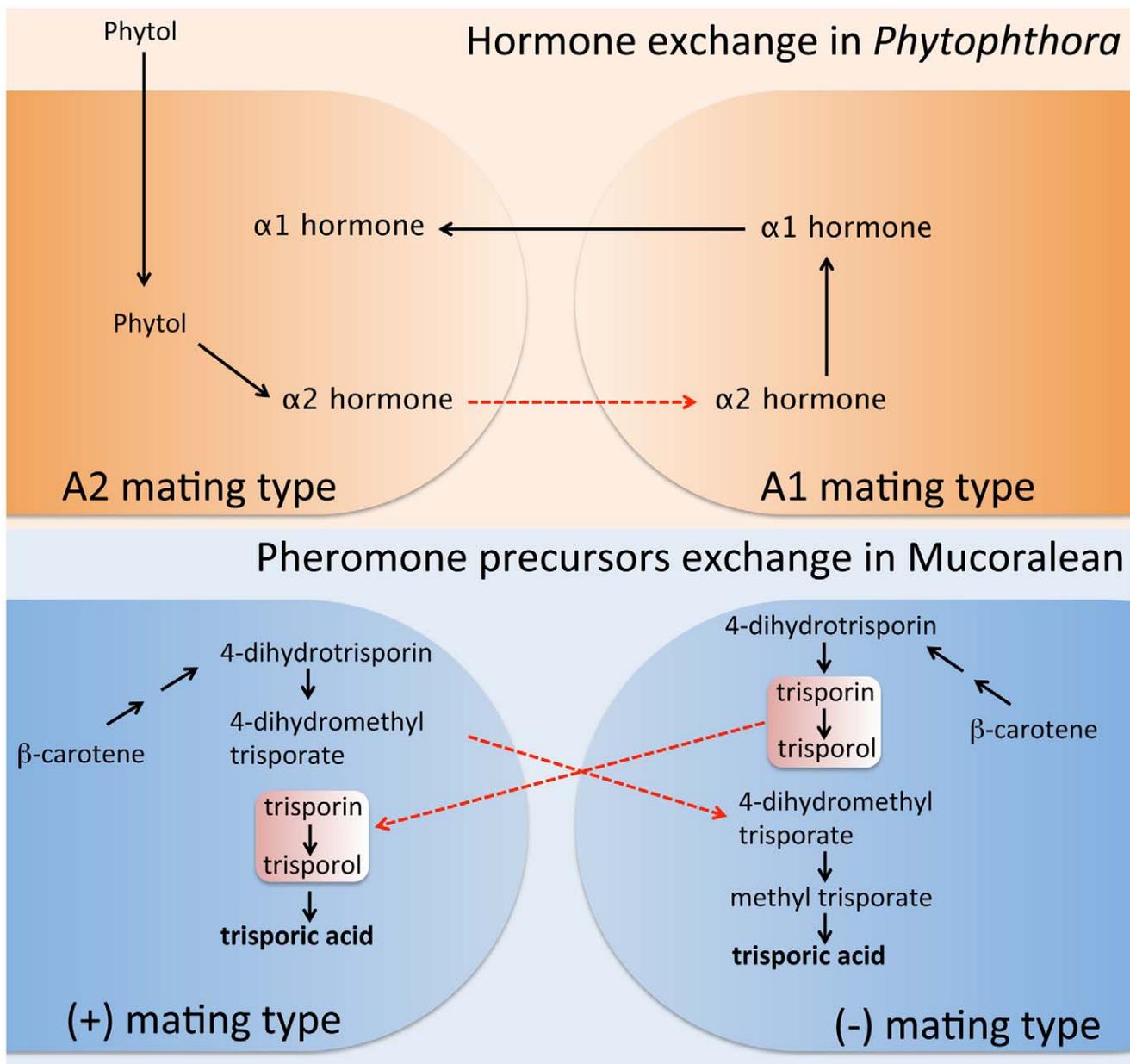


Figure 2. Sexual pheromone synthesis in *Phytophthora* and Mucoralean fungi. In *Phytophthora*, A2 mating type cells produce $\alpha 2$ hormone from phytol. The $\alpha 2$ hormone must be transported into the A1 mating type cells to serve as a precursor of the $\alpha 1$ hormone (upper). In Mucoralean fungi, both mating type cells produce pheromone intermediates from β -carotene. The mating type unique intermediates then must be transported into the opposite mating type partners, where the synthesis of the mature mating pheromone, trisporic acid, is completed (bottom). Thus, in both microbes, pheromone synthesis cannot be completed without mating partners in close proximity. Furthermore, exchange of pheromone intermediates is a key characteristic shared in both evolutionarily distinct pathogens. doi:10.1371/journal.ppat.1003028.g002

plant-based sterol, in the mating process of *Phytophthora* solves a long standing mystery in mating of this important group of plant pathogens.

Mucoralean and *Phytophthora* are evolutionarily distant in the eukaryotic tree of life (Figure 1), but their sexual pheromone synthesis mechanisms are strikingly parallel. This convergence in

exchange of mating pheromone precursors between partners during sexual reproduction illuminates our understanding of the fascinating nuances of sex in nature and potentially provides a foothold to develop new approaches to overcome these divergent pathogens of plants and of humans.

References

1. Baldauf SL (2003) The deep roots of eukaryotes. *Science* 300: 1703–1706.
2. Orlowski M (1991) *Mucor* dimorphism. *Microbiol Mol Biol Rev* 55: 234–258.
3. Ehrenberg CG (1820) Syzygites, eine neue Schimmeligattung, nebst Beobachtungen über sichtbare Bewegung in Schimmeln. *Verhandl Gesamte Naturf Freunde, Berlin* 1: 98–109.
4. Ibrahim AS, Spellberg B, Walsh TJ, Kontoyiannis DP (2012) Pathogenesis of mucormycosis. *Clin Infect Dis* 54: S16–S22.
5. Poirier P, Wawrzyniak I, Vivares CP, Delbac F, El Alaoui H (2012) New Insights into *Blastocystis* spp.: a potential link with irritable bowel syndrome. *PLoS Pathog* 8: e1002545. doi:10.1371/journal.ppat.1002545
6. Bourke PMA (1964) Emergence of potato blight, 1843–1846. *Nature* 203: 805–808.
7. Idnurm A, Walton FJ, Floyd A, Heitman J (2008) Identification of the *sex* genes in an early diverged fungus. *Nature* 451: 193–196.
8. Lee S, Corradi N, Byrnes E, Torres-Martinez S, Dietrich F, et al. (2008) Microsporidia evolved from ancestral sexual fungi. *Curr Biol* 18: 1675–1679.
9. Gryganskiy AP, Lee SC, Litvintseva AP, Smith ME, Bonito G, et al. (2010) Structure, function, and phylogeny of the mating locus in the *Rhizopus oryzae* complex. *PLoS ONE* 5: e15273. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0015273
10. Idnurm A (2011) Sex determination in the first-described sexual fungus. *Eukaryot Cell* 10: 1485–1491.
11. Wetzal J, Burmester A, Kolbe M, Wostemeyer J (2012) The mating-related loci *sexM* and *sexP* of the zygomycetous fungus *Mucor mucedo* and their transcriptional regulation by trisporoid pheromones. *Microbiology* 158: 1016–1023.
12. Ko W (1988) Hormonal heterothallism and homothallism in *Phytophthora*. *Annu Rev Phytopathol* 26: 57–73.
13. Ristaino JB, Groves CT, Parra GR (2001) PCR amplification of the Irish potato famine pathogen from historic specimens. *Nature* 411: 695–697.
14. Fabritius A-L, Judelson HS (1997) Mating-type loci segregate aberrantly in *Phytophthora infestans* but normally in *Phytophthora parasitica*: implications for models of mating-type determination. *Curr Genet* 32: 60–65.
15. Judelson HS, Spielman LJ, Shattock RC (1995) Genetic mapping and non-Mendelian segregation of mating type loci in the oomycete, *Phytophthora infestans*. *Genetics* 141: 503–512.
16. Fabritius A-L, Cvitanich C, Judelson HS (2002) Stage-specific gene expression during sexual development in *Phytophthora infestans*. *Mol Microbiol* 45: 1057–1066.
17. Randall TA, Ah Fong A, Judelson HS (2003) Chromosomal heteromorphism and an apparent translocation detected using a BAC contig spanning the mating type locus of *Phytophthora infestans*. *Fungal Genet Biol* 38: 75–84.
18. Karlson P, Lusher M (1959) ‘Pheromone’: a new term for a class of biologically active substances. *Nature* 183: 55–56.
19. Polaino S, Idnurm A (2012) Sexual pheromones in the Fungi. In: Witzany G, editor. *Biocommunication of Fungi*: Springer Netherlands. pp. 171–188.
20. Sutter RP (1970) Trisporic acid synthesis in *Blakeslea trispora*. *Science* 3939: 1590–1592.
21. Schimek C, Wostemeyer J (2009) Carotene derivatives in sexual communication of zygomycete fungi. *Phytochemistry* 70: 1867–1875.
22. Lee SC, Ni M, Li W, Shertz C, Heitman J (2010) The evolution of sex: a perspective from the fungal kingdom. *Microbiol Mol Biol Rev* 74: 298–340.
23. Qi J, Asano T, Jinno M, Matsui K, Atsumi K, et al. (2005) Characterization of a *Phytophthora* mating hormone. *Science* 309: 1828–1828.
24. Yajima A, Qin Y, Zhou X, Kawanishi N, Xiao X, et al. (2008) Synthesis and absolute configuration of hormone $\alpha 1$. *Nat Chem Biol* 4: 235–237.
25. Harutyunyan SR, Zhao Z, Hartog Td, Bouwmeester K, Minnaard AJ, et al. (2008) Biologically active *Phytophthora* mating hormone prepared by catalytic asymmetric total synthesis. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 105: 8507–8512.
26. Ojika M, Molli SD, Kanazawa H, Yajima A, Toda K, et al. (2011) The second *Phytophthora* mating hormone defines interspecies biosynthetic crosstalk. *Nat Chem Biol* 7: 591–593.