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1 **Growth substrates and caleosin-mediated functions affect conidial virulence in the insect**
2 **pathogenic fungus *Beauveria bassiana***

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25

26 **ABSTRACT**

27 The entomopathogenic fungus, *Beauveria bassiana*, is a microbial biological control
28 agent capable of infecting a wide range of insect hosts. Conidia (spores) initiate infection via
29 adhesion, growth, and penetration of the insect cuticle, whose outmost layer is rich in lipids.
30 Conidial virulence was investigated in *B. bassiana* wild type and caleosin mutants (*ΔBbcal1*), the
31 latter a protein involved in lipid storage and turnover. Topical insect bioassays revealed that
32 conidia of the wild type strain showed up to 40-fold differences in mean lethal dose (LD₅₀)
33 values depending upon the growth substrate. The most virulent conidia were harvested from
34 potato dextrose agar (PDA) containing oleic acid, and the least potent those derived from
35 Sabouraud dextrose-yeast extract agar (SDAY). However, with the exception of SDAY and
36 Czapek-dox agar derived conidia, in which values were reduced, mean lethal times to kill (LT₅₀)
37 were essentially unaffected. In topical bioassays, the *ΔBbcal1* mutant displayed LD₅₀ values 5-40
38 fold higher than the wild type depending upon the growth substrate, with *ΔBbcal1* conidia
39 derived from SDAY unable to effectively penetrate the host cuticle. The *ΔBbcal1* mutant also
40 showed concomitant dramatic increases in LT₅₀ values from an average of ~4.5 for wild type to
41 >8.5 d for the mutant. In contrast, intrahemocoel injection bioassays that bypass cuticle
42 penetration events, revealed only minor effects on virulence for either wild type or *ΔBbcal1*
43 conidia. These data highlight the importance of caleosin-dependent lipid mobilization and/or
44 signaling in cuticle penetration events but suggest their dispensability for immune evasion and
45 within-host growth.

46

47 **INTRODUCTION**

48 The Ascomycete fungus, *Beauveria bassiana* is among a group of insect pathogens that
49 have been commercialized as biological control agents, especially within the framework of more
50 environmentally friendly alternatives to chemical pesticides and as part of Integrated Pest
51 Management practices (Glare *et al.*, 2012; Lacey *et al.*, 2015). As a broad host range pathogen,
52 *B. bassiana* conidia (spores) can initiate infection essentially anywhere on the insect surface and
53 does not require any specialized route of entry (Ortiz-Urquiza & Keyhani, 2013; Ortiz-Urquiza
54 & Keyhani, 2016). The insect epicuticle, comprised of lipids that include abundant amounts of
55 long chain hydrocarbons, fatty acids, and wax esters, is the first barrier to infection, and the
56 fungus has evolved mechanisms for adhesion, germination on the scant nutrients available, and
57 subsequent penetration of the host exoskeleton (Charnley, 2003; Holder & Keyhani, 2005;
58 Jarrold *et al.*, 2007; Zhang *et al.*, 2011). Insects actively resist infection at this cuticular level,
59 beginning with the epi-cuticle or waxy layer, via production of compounds toxic to microbes,
60 e.g. certain fatty acids, quinones, and formic/acetic acid (Golebiowski *et al.*, 2011; Toledo *et al.*,
61 2011; Tragust *et al.*, 2013). Insect behavioral modifications aimed towards eliminating the
62 pathogen and/or mitigating its infectivity can include heat seeking, burrowing, and grooming (de
63 Crecy *et al.*, 2009; Roy *et al.*, 2006; Yanagawa & Shimizu, 2007). Such factors as well as insect
64 chemical defenses can lead to an evolutionary arms race between the host and pathogen (Pedrini
65 *et al.*, 2015).

66 Conidia are the infectious agents most commonly used in pest control formulations, and
67 important knowledge has been gained in our understanding of factors important for conidial
68 viability and application (Faria *et al.*, 2012; Jin *et al.*, 2013; Qin *et al.*, 2014), although other cell
69 types have also been shown to be virulent and of potential commercial use (Holder *et al.*, 2007;

70 Mascarin *et al.*, 2015). *B. bassiana* biochemical pathways that can utilize fatty acids, aliphatic
71 and methyl branched alkanes, and glycerides as substrates, target insect cuticular lipids (Crespo
72 *et al.*, 2000; Lecuona *et al.*, 1997; Pedrini *et al.*, 2006; Pedrini *et al.*, 2007). These systems
73 include hydrocarbon oxidative pathways containing a set of cytochrome P450 enzymes
74 implicated in lipid assimilation (Pedrini *et al.*, 2010; Pedrini *et al.*, 2013; Zhang *et al.*, 2012).
75 Long chain alkanes, common constituents of the insect epicuticle are degraded by *B. bassiana* to
76 free fatty acids, acylglycerols, and phospholipids, although important aspects of this process,
77 including how lipids are transported into cells and the biochemical mechanisms of lipid storage
78 and mobilization remain poorly understood (Crespo *et al.*, 2008; Pedrini *et al.*, 2013). In
79 addition, it is known that culture conditions can affect virulence and that growth on insect
80 derived alkanes can increase the virulence of conidia as compared to those harvested from
81 standard glucose containing mycological media (Crespo *et al.*, 2002).

82 Lipid droplets (LDs) are cellular organelles that act as means for lipid storage, impacting
83 metabolism, energy homeostasis, and development (Murphy, 2012; Welte, 2015). LDs consist of
84 a phospholipid monolayer, embedded with various proteins that surround a lipid core chiefly
85 consisting of triacylglycerols (TAGs). Caleosins, first described in plants, are LD-associated
86 proteins containing EF-hand calcium-binding motifs (Naested *et al.*, 2000). Some caleosins are
87 capable of binding heme and have been shown to display peroxygenase activity, implicating
88 these proteins in lipid-mediated signaling, e.g. stress response (Hanano *et al.*, 2006; Partridge &
89 Murphy, 2009). Caleosins are widely distributed in plants, typically found as gene families, and
90 are also found in algae and fungi, but not in animals. While more extensively studied plants,
91 several reports have examined the functions of caleosins in fungi. In *Aspergillus flavus*, a
92 caleosin-like gene, designated *AfPGX*, was shown to exhibit peroxygenase activity and to be

93 critical for normal growth and development, as well as impacting aflatoxin accumulation
94 (Hanano *et al.*, 2015). In *A. flavus*, deletion of the *AfPGX* gene resulted in severe phenotypes
95 with greatly reduced growth and little to no conidiation apparent. In contrast, targeted gene
96 knockout of the caleosin gene in *B. bassiana* ($\Delta Bbcal1$) resulted in little to no effects on
97 vegetative growth and only small effects on conidiation (Fan *et al.*, 2015). Impairment of spore
98 dispersal was noted, apparently due to clumping of the conidia, and a moderate effect was seen
99 with respect to the mean lethal time to kill (LT₅₀) larvae of the greater wax moth, *Galleria*
100 *mellonella* using topical bioassays, although only a single growth substrate was examined, i.e.
101 the standard mycological media potato dextrose agar (PDA). Here, we sought to expand upon
102 these results to: (1) probe the effect of lipid growth substrates on conidial virulence in terms of
103 both the mean lethal dose to kill hosts (LD₅₀) and LT₅₀ values, and (2) determine whether
104 caleosin-dependent reduction in virulence occurred mainly at the pre-penetration/penetration
105 stage and/or further downstream, i.e. during hemocoel proliferation and immune evasion. Our
106 data show that growth substrates have significant effects on wild type virulence, particularly in
107 topical assays. In addition, the contribution of the caleosin to virulence was greater during pre-
108 penetration/penetration events; with more moderate effects seen once the insect cuticle was
109 breached. These results reveal a critical role for caleosin-mediated lipid mobilization and/or
110 signaling events during the initial phases of fungal infection.

111

112 **METHODS**

113 **Fungal strains and culture conditions.** The wild-type strain *B. bassiana* ATCC 90517 and a
114 caleosin targeted gene knockout strain (Fan *et al.*, 2015), were routinely grown on potato
115 dextrose agar (PDA), Sabouraud dextrose agar (SDA) and/or Czapek-Dox agar (CZA)

116 supplemented or modified as indicated. For growth on lipid substrates, PDA was supplemented
117 with 0.25% oleic acid, 0.5% glyceride trioleate (triolein), 0.5% olive oil, or 0.2% hexadecane
118 (C₁₆) prepared in hexane at a concentration of 10%, and added to the media immediately prior to
119 pouring of the plates. For conidial production, agar plates were incubated at 26°C for 21 days
120 and aerial conidia were harvested by flooding the plate with sterile distilled H₂O containing
121 0.02% Tween-80. Conidial suspensions were filtered through a single layer of Miracloth and
122 final spore concentrations were determined by direct count using a hemocytometer and adjusted
123 to the indicated spore suspension concentrations.

124 **Lipid analyses.** Fungal conidia were harvested from various growth conditions including: CZA,
125 SDAY, PDA, and PDA supplemented with either 0.25% oleic acid, 0.5% glyceride trioleate,
126 0.5% olive oil, or 0.2% alkane (prepared in hexane at a concentration of 10%). All the plates
127 were cultured at 26°C for 30 d before harvesting of conidia. The conidia were harvested in
128 sterilized H₂O and 10⁸-10⁹ conidia were used for lipid profiles analysis. Lipids were extracted
129 using the Folch method (Folch et al. 1957). Briefly, 30 μL of a 10 μg/mL solution of
130 dilaurylphosphatidylcholine (internal standard) was added, then 1 mL of 2:1
131 chloroform:methanol containing 100 mg/L of butylated hydroxytoluene (BHT) was added to
132 each sample and mixed. The samples were centrifuged at 10,000xg and the supernatant was
133 transferred to a new tube. Next, 200 μL of 0.9% NaCl was added to induce phase separation.
134 After mixing and gentle centrifugation (1000xg), the chloroform layer was removed and
135 transferred to a clean tube. The extraction process was repeated once on the pellet and the
136 chloroform layers were combined. The combined mixture was dried under a gentle stream of
137 nitrogen. The dried samples were then reconstituted with 300 μL of isopropanol and 2 uL was
138 injected for LC-HRMS analysis.

139 LC-HRMS analysis was performed on a Thermo Q Exactive with Dionex 3000UHPLC
140 and autosampler. The mass spectrometer was operated in positive heated electrospray ionization
141 mode with the following conditions: 3.5 kV, 300C probe temperature, 30 arb sheath gas, 5 arb
142 aux gas, 1.0 ion sweep gas, s-lens of 35, and 320C heated capillary temperature. Spectra were
143 collected from 200-1200 at 35,000 mass resolution and mass accuracy was 5 ppm or better and
144 tandem mass spectra were collected using data dependent scanning (top 5). Separation was
145 achieved on an Waters BEH C18 50x2.1mm, 1.7 μ m column with mobile phase A as 60/40
146 Acetonitrile/water with 0.1% formic acid and 10 mM ammonium formate and mobile phase B
147 was 90/8/2 isopropanol/acetonitrile/water with 0.1% formic acid and 10 mM ammonium formate
148 under gradient elution conditions as previously (Ulmer *et al.*, 2015). Data processing was
149 performed with MZmine 2.20 for peak alignment and feature selection. An in house R built
150 script was used to identify lipids based on tandem mass spectra and reference to known
151 fragmentation pathways (manuscript in preparation).

152 **Insect bioassays.** Fungal strains were bioassayed using the greater wax moth *Galleria*
153 *mellonella* (Pet Solutions, Beavercreek, OH, USA) as the insect host. The larvae were treated
154 topically by dipping for 15 s in solutions of 10^5 , 10^6 , 10^7 , 5×10^7 and 10^8 conidia/ml harvested in
155 sterile distilled H₂O with 0.02% tween 80. Excess liquid on the insect bodies was removed by
156 placement on a dry paper towel. Control larvae were treated with sterile dH₂O. Mortality was
157 recorded every 24 h and the median lethal dose and mortality time (LD₅₀ and LT₅₀) was
158 determined by Probit analysis. Each treatment consisted of three replicates with at least 25
159 insects each, and the entire experiment was repeated three times with different batches of fungal
160 conidia. Additionally, conidia from both WT and $\Delta BbCall$ strains were injected into *G.*
161 *mellonella* larvae. Each larva was injected with 800 conidia using a 1 ml syringe coupled to a

162 programmable syringe pump (World Precision Instruments, Sarasota FL). Three replicates with
163 20 insects each were used for every treatment and the whole experiment was repeated three times
164 with different batches of conidia.

165 **RESULTS**

166 **Growth substrates and caleosin functioning affect virulence in topical insect bioassays**

167 Wild type and a targeted gene knockout of the single identified caleosin gene in *B.*
168 *bassiana* ($\Delta Bbcall$, (Fan *et al.*, 2015)), were grown on a variety of substrates including (1)
169 standard complex mycological media (SDAY and PDA), (2) minimal mycological media
170 containing sucrose as the carbon source (CZA), and (3) PDA supplemented with various lipids
171 including hexadecane (C₁₆), oleic acid, triolein, and olive oil. No obvious differences were noted
172 in growth rate on the various media and conidia were harvested after 21 d of growth as detailed
173 in the Methods section. In order to calculate LD₅₀ values, five different conidial concentrations
174 namely; 10⁵, 10⁶, 10⁷, 5 x 10⁷, and 10⁸ cells/ml were used in insect bioassays. *G. mellonella*
175 larvae were treated topically with fungal cell suspensions as detailed in the Methods section.
176 Wild type cells harvested from the standard mycological media- PDA and CZA, displayed
177 similar LD₅₀ (at 9 d) values of ~ 1.5 x 10⁶ conidia/ml (Table 1), with an ~10-fold decrease in
178 virulence (i.e. 10-fold higher LD₅₀ value) seen for wild type conidia isolated from SDAY
179 (LD₅₀^{Wt-SDAY} = 15.4 x 10⁶ conidia/ml). The $\Delta Bbcall$ mutant fared worse, with LD₅₀ values 25-
180 40-fold higher than wild type when derived from PDA and CZA media. $\Delta Bbcall$ conidia isolated
181 from SDAY were the least virulent of the conditions tested, being reduced to 77.1 x 10⁶
182 conidia/ml, 5-fold lower than wild type cells isolated from SDAY.

183 For the wild type strain, supplementation of PDA media with C₁₆, olive oil, or oleic acid
184 resulted in a 2-4 fold decrease (i.e. increased virulence) in LD₅₀^{Wt} values as compared to PDA.

185 In contrast, conidia isolated from PDA + triolein displayed an $LD_{50}^{Wt} = 3.62 \times 10^6$ conidia/ml,
 186 represented an ~2-fold increase as compared to PDA. Conidia derived from the $\Delta Bbcall$ mutant,
 187 isolated from the same media, i.e. PDA + C16 ($LD_{50} = 23.1 \times 10^6$ conidia/ml), PDA + triolein
 188 ($LD_{50} = 18.1 \times 10^6$), PDA + olive oil ($LD_{50} = 11.7 \times 10^6$), and PDA + oleic acid (15.6×10^6)
 189 were (2-3 fold) more virulent than mutant conidia harvested from PDA alone, but were still 5-45
 190 fold less effective than wild type cells grown under correspondingly identical conditions.

191 For *B. bassiana* wild type, with the exception of conidia derived from CZA and SDAY in
 192 which increases in the mean lethal time to kill (LT_{50}) was seen, little differences were seen in
 193 regards to LT_{50} values between cells grown on PDA, and PDA supplemented with either C16,
 194 triolein, olive oil, or oleic acid, with values ranging from 4.31-4.98 d (Fig. 1, Table 1). As
 195 compared to PDA, an increase of ~ 1 and a more dramatic 2 d (reflecting decreased virulence) in
 196 the LT_{50} was seen for the wild type conidia derived from CZA and SDAY. The $\Delta Bbcall$ mutant
 197 displayed severely reduced LT_{50} values overall, and with the exceptions of conidia from SDAY
 198 and PDA + olive oil, requiring 3-4 d longer to kill 50% of infected hosts as compared to
 199 corresponding wild type cells. Conidia from PDA + olive oil displayed $LT_{50}^{\Delta Bbcall-PDA-olive\ oil} =$
 200 6.52 d, which was 2 d more than its corresponding wild type, and $\Delta Bbcall$ conidia isolated from
 201 SDAY were almost avirulent and an accurate LT_{50} value could not be calculated for these cells.

202 **Minor impairment of virulence after intrahemocoel injection**

203 Direct injection of fungal spores into the host hemocoel bypasses penetration events,
 204 while maintaining the requirement for hemolymph proliferation and immune evasion. For wild
 205 type *B. bassiana* cells, with the exception of conidia harvested from PDA + oleic acid, the mean
 206 lethal times to kill (LT_{50}) values were essentially unaffected when comparing cells grown on
 207 PDA, CZA, SDAY, PDA + C16, PDA + triolein, and PDA + olive oil using intrahemocoel

208 injection assays into *G. mellonella* larvae (Table 2, Figure 2). Under these conditions LT_{50}^{Wt}
 209 values ranged from 2.42-2.93 d. A moderate decrease (~ 1 d) in the wild type LT_{50} was seen for
 210 conidia harvested from PDA + oleic acid (to 3.62 d). In general, small (< 0.5 d for CZA, PDA +
 211 triolein, and PDA + oleic acid) to moderate (~ 1 d, PDA, PDA + C16, and PDA + olive oil)
 212 increases in LT_{50} values were seen for the *Bbcall* knockout mutant as compared to their
 213 corresponding wild type conidia. *B. bassiana* $\Delta Bbcall$ conidia harvested from SDAY were more
 214 severely affected, showing a 3 d increase in LT_{50} values as compared to wild type cells.

215 Regardless of the mode of infection, i.e. for both topical infection and intrahemocoel
 216 injection assays, visual inspection of the cadavers revealed alterations in the melanization
 217 patterns during infection and death of the insect. Infection of *G. mellonella* larvae by the wild
 218 type strain results in a characteristic gradual darkening (melanization) of the insect during the
 219 course of the infection, which by the time the infected insect is near death or has died (< 24 h
 220 post-mortality) renders the cuticle a brown to dark brown discoloration (Fig. 3). In contrast, at or
 221 immediately following death of larvae infected by the $\Delta Bbcall$ strain only discrete patches of
 222 melanization are visible on the insects, and melanization over the entire cuticle as seen for wild
 223 type infections does not occur. Within 5-7 d post mortality, a profusion of mycelia and
 224 conidiation is seen for both the wild type and $\Delta Bbcall$ strains on infected cadavers (Fig. 3).

225 **Neutral lipid analysis in *B. bassiana***

226 Changes in total neutral lipid contents, i.e. diacylglycerol (DAG) and triacylglycerol
 227 (TAG) levels in the wild type and $\Delta Bbcall$ strains were examined in conidia harvested from
 228 different growth substrates. Growth substrates included PDA, CZA, SDAY, and PDA
 229 supplemented with oleic acid, C16, olive oil, and glycerol trioleate. No significant changes in
 230 DAG content was seen between the wild type and $\Delta Bbcall$ mutant strain in conidia isolated from

231 the various growth substrates with the exception of growth on olive oil, in which the DAG
232 content in the *ΔBbcall* mutant was significantly higher than the wild type (Fig. 4A, $P < 0.05$).
233 TAG content was much higher (20-30X) than DAG content in the cells examined, however, no
234 significant differences were noted between the wild type and mutant strains in TAG content,
235 although under a number of conditions, i.e. CZA and PDA + oleic acid, a large variation was
236 seen (Fig. 4B).

237

238 **DISCUSSION**

239 Media composition, i.e. the growth substrates from which fungal spores are isolated, is
240 known to influence virulence of fungal insect pathogens (Kim *et al.*, 2014; Maldonado-Blanco *et*
241 *al.*, 2014; Pelizza *et al.*, 2011), with complex relationships between various spore parameters,
242 e.g. stress response, germination rate and cuticle degrading enzyme activities have been reported
243 (Mascarin *et al.*, 2013; Rosas-Garcia *et al.*, 2014). Conidia derived from media containing lower
244 carbon/nitrogen ratios, including those derived from insect passage but subsequently grown on
245 different synthetic media, were found to display lower LT_{50} values (i.e. were more virulence)
246 (Safavi *et al.*, 2007). However, it has also been reported that *B. bassiana* conidia isolated directly
247 from insect cadavers were less virulent than those harvested from rice or synthetic media and the
248 method of application was found to influence virulence (Santoro *et al.*, 2007). A comparison of
249 *B. bassiana* grown on colloidal chitin, insect (*Sphenarium purpurascens*) cuticle, wheat bran, or
250 Sabouraud-dextrose agar (SDA), revealed similar LT_{50} values for all conidia against adults of the
251 mealworm beetle (*Tenebrio molitor*), but differential mortality against *T. molitor* larvae
252 (Rodriguez-Gomez *et al.*, 2009). Similarly, small effects were reported for the entomopathogenic
253 fungus *Metarhizium anisopliae* when conidia were isolated from media containing various

254 carbon and nitrogen ratios and only moderate correlations were seen between protease and lipase
 255 activities and virulence when tested against larvae of the diamondback moth, (*Plutella xylostata*)
 256 (Wu *et al.*, 2010). Stress conditions have also been shown to affect *M. anisopliae* virulence, with
 257 the highest mortality reported for conidia grown on minimal media containing lactose (~ = CZA)
 258 (Rangel *et al.*, 2008). *B. bassiana* conidia grown on C₁₆ as the sole carbon source displayed
 259 decreased LT₅₀ values (increased virulence) when tested against the bean weevil
 260 (*Acanthoscelides obtectus*) as compared to cells isolated from glucose grown agar (Crespo *et al.*,
 261 2002), and inducible pathways for assimilation of long chain hydrocarbons that are prevalent on
 262 the insect epicuticle have been reported (Pedrini *et al.*, 2010; Zhang *et al.*, 2012). For the most
 263 part, however, relatively small effects have been reported and only the LT₅₀ parameter examined.

264 Our data show that for *B. bassiana* wild type, grown on standard PDA and CZA
 265 mycological media produces conidia that have lower LD₅₀ values (15-fold more infective) when
 266 tested using topical bioassays, as compared to the carbon/nitrogen rich media, SDAY. Conidia
 267 isolated from PDA were more efficacious than those derived from either CZA or SDAY, with
 268 the latter showing a dramatic ~2 d shift in LT₅₀. These data are in general agreement with
 269 previous reports (see above) indicating that production on more minimal media results in more
 270 virulent spores. Amongst the mid-to long-chain alkanes, C₁₆ is known to be one of the preferred
 271 carbon sources for *B. bassiana*, and oleic acid can be used as an energy source that can feed
 272 directly into lipid droplet formation pathways (Pedrini *et al.*, 2010; Pedrini *et al.*, 2013). Olive oil
 273 consists of TAGs and small amounts of free saturated (palmitic; 13% and stearic; 1.5%) and
 274 unsaturated fatty acids (oleic; 70%, linoleic; 15%, palmitoleic; 0.3-3.5%, and α -linolenic; 0.5%),
 275 and these minor constituents may act to induce other aspects of fatty acid metabolism.
 276 Supplementation of PDA with C₁₆, olive oil, or oleic acid increased the infectivity of conidia 2-4

277 fold but had little effect on the efficacy of the conidia. However, conidia isolated from PDA
278 containing triolein (TAG, glycerol trioleate) were 2-fold less infective than those isolated on
279 PDA alone, although equally efficacious. These data imply that the components of olive oil, i.e.
280 free fatty acids, mixture of TAGs, and/or other compounds, or the combined constituents result
281 in the production of more virulent conidia.

282 In addition to the effects on virulence, a distinct alteration in host melanization that
283 occurs during the infection process was noted. During wild type infections, whether topical or
284 via artificial intrahemocoel injection of the fungal conidia, a gradual darkening of the insect
285 cuticle occurs up to and after mortality of the insect. During the last stages of infection, as the
286 insect is dying, internal fungal hyphae penetrate outwards, growing as mycelia and sporulating on
287 the cadaver within 5-6 d post-mortality (Ortiz-Urquiza & Keyhani, 2013; Ortiz-Urquiza &
288 Keyhani, 2016). This host melanization is typically considered to be part of the host defense
289 response, however, in the *ΔBbcall* mutant, which is impaired in virulence, host melanization
290 also appears to be dramatically reduced, with only small, localized melanized patches visible on
291 infected host during the time of death. The darkening of the host cuticle may also be linked to the
292 production of fungal secondary metabolites. This raises an intriguing alternative hypothesis that
293 this melanization response during the late stages of infection is actively induced by the fungus
294 rather than acting as a defense response or a lack of production of critical late stage fungal
295 metabolites occurs in the caleosin mutant. Although speculative, this may help fungal infection
296 in several ways including by diverting resources away from other defense responses and/or
297 minimizing potential competition by other microbes as the insect dies.

298 Our data strongly support the idea of growth substrate “priming” of conidia. This priming
299 may entail several processes that can include (pre-) induction of pathways in conidia via

300 accumulation of (1) gene transcripts and/or proteins (e.g. enzyme, transporters, and regulators) as
301 determined by the original growth substrate that would allow for utilization of similar carbon and
302 nitrogen sources more rapidly, (2) metabolites and energy stores that can act as stress response
303 modulators and rapid sources of energy, and/or (3) factors that directly affect host interactions,
304 e.g. cuticle degrading enzymes, secondary metabolites and toxins, compounds needed for
305 adhesion, more rapid germination, and penetration of insect cuticle. As expected, the neutral
306 lipids seen in the fungal conidia were mainly composed of TAGs (10-30-fold higher as compared
307 to DAGs), however little difference was seen between either TAG or DAG content between the
308 wild type and *ΔBbcal1* mutant. This is in contrast to significant changes seen in phospholipid,
309 ceramide, and even ergosterol levels in the caleosin mutant as compared to the wild type (Fan *et*
310 *al.*, 2015). The only significant difference between the wild type and *ΔBbcal1* mutant was seen
311 in total DAG content when grown on PDA containing olive oil, intriguingly these conditions also
312 result in the formation of copious amounts of lipid droplets in the mutant fungal cells (Fan *et al.*,
313 2015).

314 LD formation has been linked to virulence in a number of fungi including via regulation
315 of cellular DAG in the rice blast fungus, *Magnaporthe oryzae* (Abu Sadat *et al.*, 2014), by the fat
316 storage-inducing transmembrane protein 2 (FIT2) in *Candida parapsilosis*, and through the
317 activity of a glycerol-3-phosphate acetyltransferase that contributes to TAG biosynthesis in *M.*
318 *roberstii* (formerly *M. anisopliae*) (Gao *et al.*, 2013), where lipid metabolism has also been
319 linked to autophagy (Duan *et al.*, 2013). In the plant fungal pathogen *Colletotrichum orbiculare*,
320 LDs appear to accumulate and then disappear during appressorial maturation, the latter
321 specialized fungal infection structures used to penetrate host tissues (Asakura *et al.*, 2012), and a
322 perilipin (Plin1 homolog), a major protein constituent of LDs, has been implicated in LD

323 maintenance, appressorial turgor pressure, and virulence in *M. robertsii*, (Wang & Leger, 2007).
324 These data suggest the importance of lipid mobilization in infection by certain fungi. A *B.*
325 *bassiana* caleosin (*Bbcal1*), another protein constituent of LDs has recently been characterized
326 (Fan *et al.*, 2015). Targeted gene inactivation of *Bbcal1* did not significantly affect normal
327 growth and germination or stress response, however, altered cellular phospholipid profiles were
328 noted and changes intracellular vesicle-like structures, that may have represented distorted LDs,
329 vacuoles, and/or endoplasmic reticulum elements, were seen. In addition, a decrease in the LT_{50}
330 was seen in topical insect bioassays from conidia harvested from PDA plates. Here we have
331 extended the analysis of the virulence deficiency of $\Delta Bbcal1$ mutants to examine both infectivity
332 and efficacy, and in particular, to determine whether impairment occurred during pre/penetration
333 events or post-penetration, the latter during growth in the insect hemocoel and requiring
334 competent immune evasion. Conidia of the $\Delta Bbcal1$ mutant derived from PDA showed a >20-
335 fold decrease in infectivity as compared to wild type and a dramatic loss (4 d) of efficacy in
336 topical bioassays. On CZA, infectivity was even lower (~ 40-fold compared to wild type CZA
337 conidia), and efficacy was also 4 d lower than the wild type counterpart. $\Delta Bbcal1$ conidia
338 harvested from SDAY were the least infectious of all conditions tested, although were only 5-
339 fold lower than SDAY-wild type conidia. However, the efficacy of the $\Delta Bbcal1^{SDAY}$ conidia was
340 so low that an accurate LD_{50} could not be calculated. These data indicate that caleosin
341 functioning is critical for both infectivity and efficacy of *B. bassiana* infection of *G. mellonella*
342 larvae. Addition of C16, olive oil, of oleic acid to PDA improved the infectivity of the resultant
343 $\Delta Bbcal1$ conidia, however LD_{50} values were still 20-44 fold higher than their wild type
344 counterparts. The only exception in the trends observed was seen using PDA + triolein, in which
345 conidia fared worse (~2-fold) in terms of infectivity than those isolated from PDA for the wild

346 type, whereas they fared better (~2-fold) for the $\Delta Bbcal1$ mutant. However, overall, the
347 $\Delta Bbcal1^{triolein}$ conidia were 5-fold less infective than their wild type counterparts. These data
348 imply that loss of caleosin functioning impacts the ameliorating effects of growth on the various
349 lipid substrates in terms of infectivity. The efficacy of the $\Delta Bbcal1$ mutants grown in the
350 presence of various lipids was also significantly affected; ~3-4 d increase for PDA + C16,
351 triolein, and oleic acid, but only an ~ 2 d increase for PDA + olive oil.

352 In conclusion, our data illustrate two key points concerning insect virulence mediated by
353 the entomopathogenic fungus, *B. bassiana*. The first is the growth substrate dependence on the
354 virulence of resultant conidia, with the major effect seen with respect (1) to topical infection with
355 in general minor effects seen once the cuticle has been breached, and (2) to infectivity and only
356 minor effects seen with respect to efficacy. Growth substrates that included lipids commonly
357 found on insect cuticles generally increased (topical) infectivity, and the C/N rich media, SDAY,
358 resulted in spores with lower infectivity and efficacy. These data are potentially useful in
359 production strategies for the biological control agent. The inability to properly produce an/or
360 regulate lipid droplet formation and turnover via a caleosin dependent pathway, significantly
361 decreased both infectivity and efficacy, with the major effect seen in topical assays. These latter
362 data support a model in which lipid mobilization is critical for pre- and/or penetration events, but
363 less important for subsequent proliferation within the hemocoel and immune evasion. Important
364 questions that remain include determining the molecular contributions and functioning of the
365 caleosin within the context of LDs, interacting proteins, and their regulation in fungi.

366

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595 **Table 1. Calculated LD₅₀ and LT₅₀ values derived from topical infection of *B. bassiana* wild**
 596 **type and $\Delta Bbcal1$ conidia harvested from different substrate media using *G. mellonella***
 597 **larval insect bioassays**

Growth substrate ¹	LD ₅₀ (x10 ⁶ conidia/ml)		LT ₅₀ (days) ²	
	WT	$\Delta BbCal1$	WT	$\Delta BbCal1$
PDA	1.52 ± 0.20	36.43 ± 4.71	4.61 ± 0.13	8.69 ± 0.35
CZ	1.34 ± 0.22	51.90 ± 3,71	5.4 ± 0.38	8.75 ± 0.37
SDAY	15.41 ± 2.33	77.07 ± 1.30	6.59 ± 0.7	-
PDA-C ₁₆	0.83 ± 0.11	23.12 ± 1.80	4.8 ± 0.20	8.66 ± 0.51
PDA + triolein	3.62 ± 0.14	18.08 ± 0.21	4.31 ± 0.11	7.9 ± 0.32
PDA + olive oil	0.49 ± 0.07	11.74 ± 0.79	4.48 ± 0.07	6.52 ± 0.23
PDA + oleic acid	0.35 ± 0.04	15.57 ± 1.57	4.98 ± 0.15	8.00 ± 0.30

598 Values indicate Mean ± SE

599 ¹Conidia were harvested from indicated agar media.

600 ²Calculated using 5 x 10⁷ conidia/ml.

601

602

603 **Table 2. Calculated LT₅₀ values derived from intrahemocoel injection of *B. bassiana* wild**
 604 **type and $\Delta Bbcal1$ conidia into *G. mellonella* larvae**
 605

Growth substrate	LT ₅₀ (days) ¹	
	WT	$\Delta BbCal1$
PDA	2.67 ± 0.10	3.32 ± 0.33
CZ	2.93 ± 0.28	2.97 ± 0.34
SDAY	2.99 ± 0.10	5.97 ± 0.45
PDA + C ₁₆	2.51 ± 0.16	3.46 ± 0.22
PDA + triolein	2.42 ± 0.11	3.02 ± 0.08
PDA + olive oil	2.57 ± 0.14	3.47 ± 0.12
PDA + oleic acid	3.62 ± 0.17	3.67 ± 0.21

606 ¹LT₅₀ calculated using 800 conidia/larval injection. Values indicate Mean ± SE

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615 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

616 **Fig. 1. Topical insect bioassays.** Larvae of the Greater waxmoth, *G. mellonella*, were topically
 617 treated with conidia derived from *B. bassiana* wild type (blue lines, filled symbols) or the
 618 $\Delta Bbc11$ mutant (red lines, open symbols). (A) Infections were initiated using conidia harvested
 619 from PDA (squares), CZA (triangles, dashed lines), and SDAY (circles, dotted lines). (B)
 620 Infections were initiated using conidia harvested from PDA + C16 (diamonds) and PDA + oleic
 621 acid (circles, dashed lines). (C) Infections were initiated using conidia harvested from PDA +
 622 olive oil (squares) and PDA + triolein (circles, dotted lines). Mock treated controls for each
 623 graph are included (●). Data are shown using a cell concentration of 5×10^7 conidia/ml. The
 624 percentage mortality \pm SE over the indicated time course is presented.

625 **Fig. 2. Intrahemocoel injection insect bioassays.** Larvae of the Greater waxmoth, *G.*
 626 *mellonella*, were injected with conidia (800 conidia/larvae) derived from *B. bassiana* wild type
 627 (blue lines, filled symbols) or the $\Delta Bbc11$ mutant (red lines, open symbols). (A) For the wild
 628 type, cells derived from PDA, CZA, and SDAY gave essentially the same curves and are
 629 represented by a single line (blue squares). For the $\Delta Bbc11$ mutant, infections were initiated
 630 using conidia harvested from PDA (squares), CZA (triangles, dashed lines), and SDAY (circles,
 631 dash-dotted lines). (B) Infections were initiated using conidia harvested from PDA + C16
 632 (diamonds) and PDA + oleic acid (circles, dashed lines). (C) Infections were initiated using
 633 conidia harvested from PDA + olive oil (squares) and PDA + triolein (circles, dotted lines).
 634 Mock treated controls for each graph are included (●). The percentage mortality \pm SE over the
 635 indicated time course is presented.

636 **Fig. 3. Melanization and fungal growth on *G. mellonella* larvae.** Representative images of *G.*
637 *mellonella* larvae topically infected with wild type and $\Delta Bbcal1$ conidia at or near the onset of
638 mortality (top panels) and 5-6 d post-mortality (bottom panels). Similar results were obtained
639 when *G. mellonella* larvae were assayed via intrahemocoel injection (data not shown).

640 **Fig. 4. Diacylglycerol (DG, A) and triacylglycerol (TG, B) content in wild type and $\Delta Bbcal1$**
641 **conidia.** DG and TG levels were examined in *B. bassiana* wild type and $\Delta Bbcal1$ mutant conidia
642 harvested from PDA, CZA, SDAY, PDA + oleic acid, PDA + C16, PDA + olive oil, and PDA +
643 glycerol trioleate as detailed in the Methods section. Error bars \pm SE.

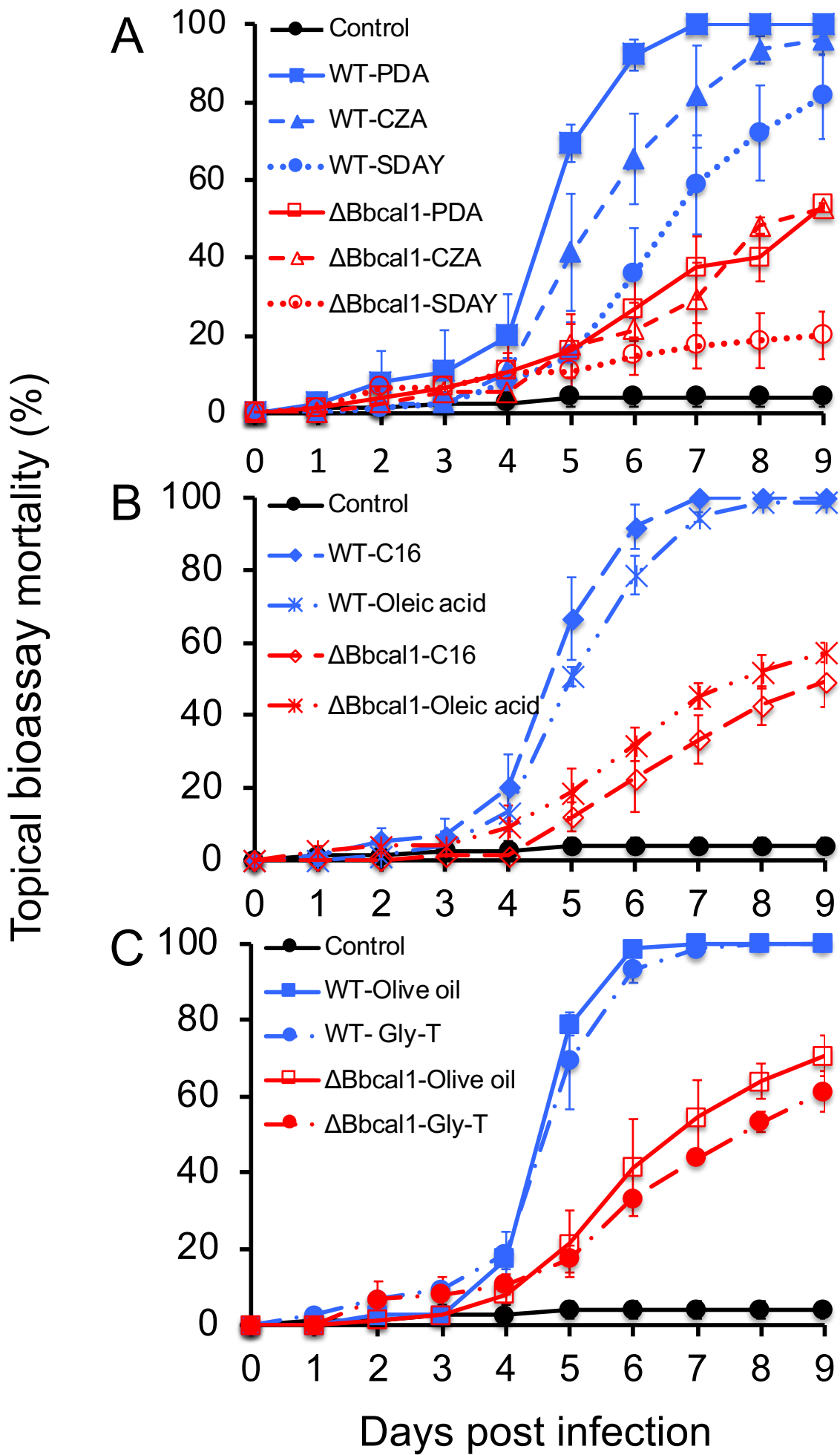


Figure 1

Intrahemocoel injection bioassay mortality (%)

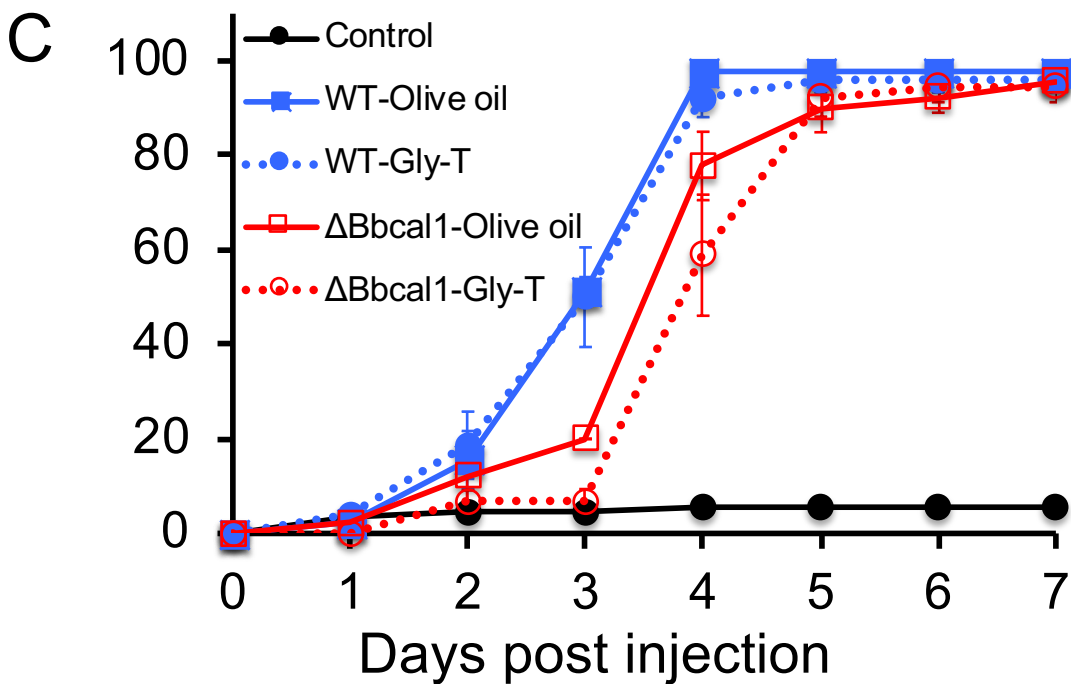
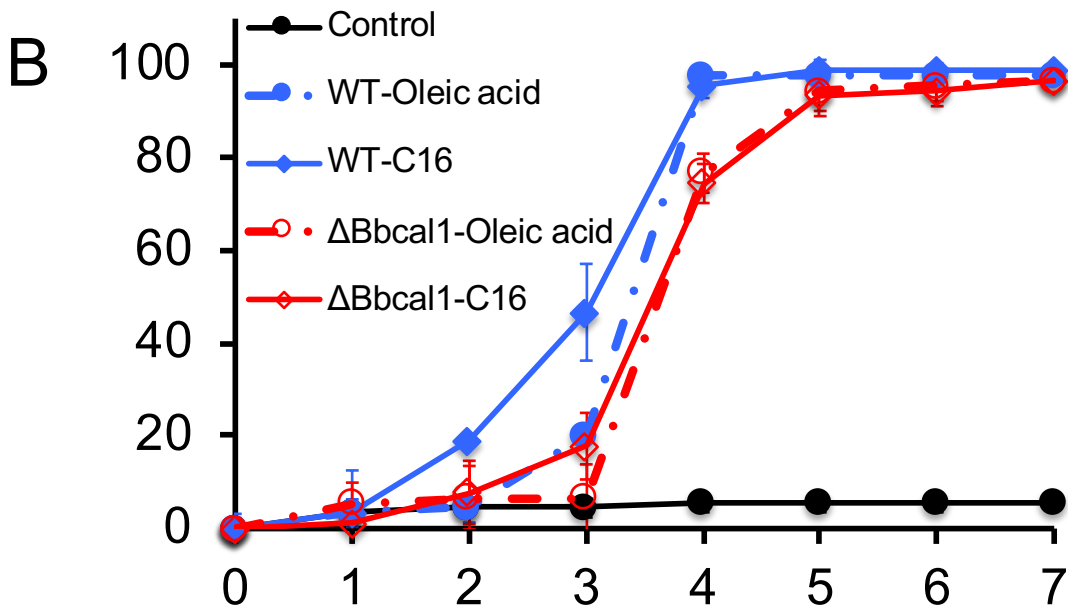
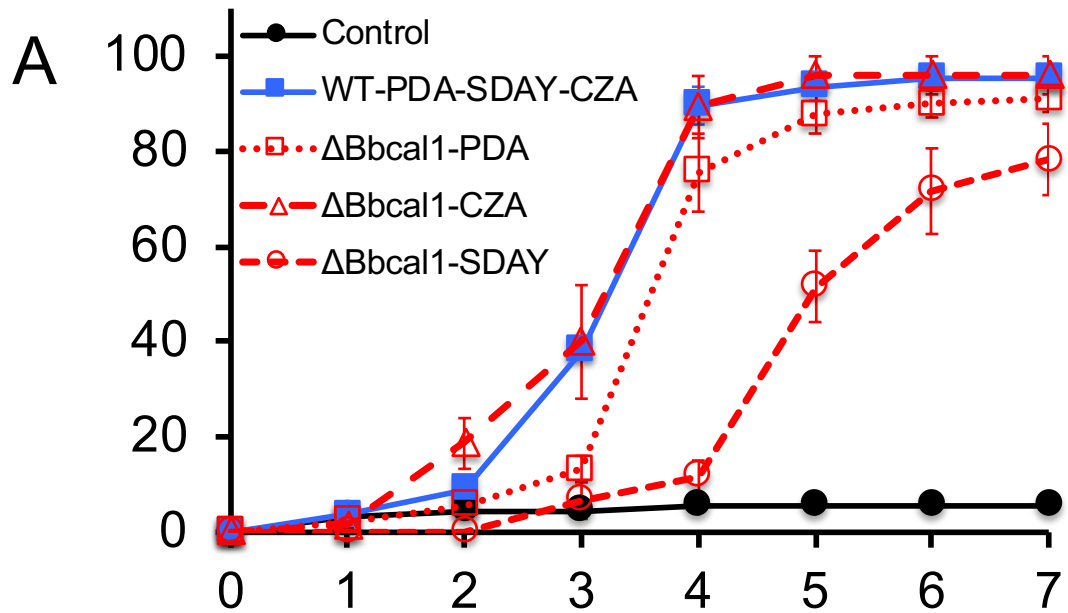


Figure 2

Wild type

$\Delta Bbcal1$

onset of mortality



5-7 d post-mortality



Figure 3

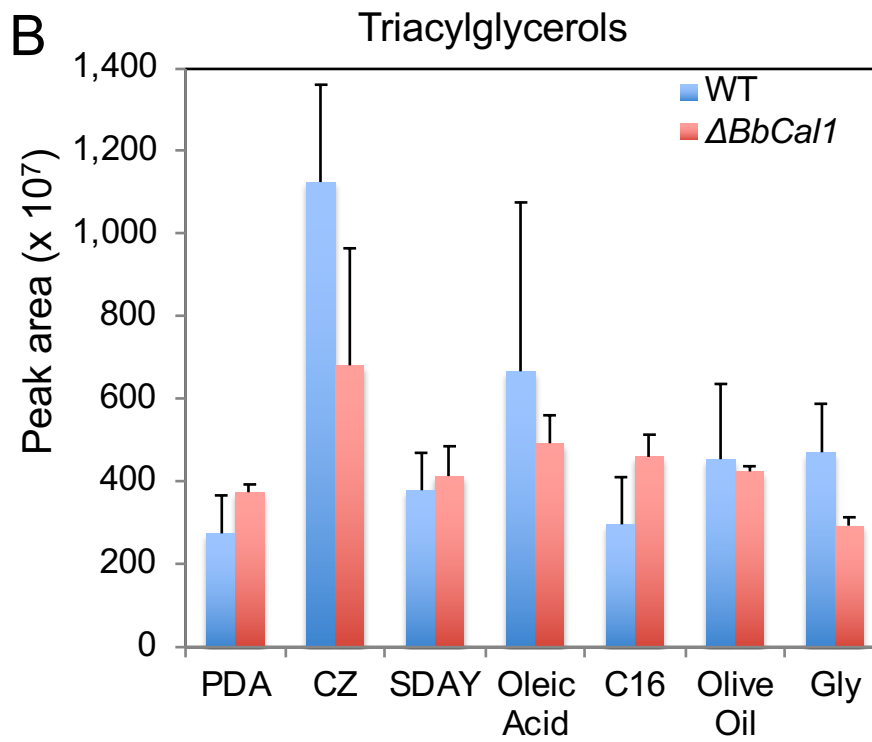
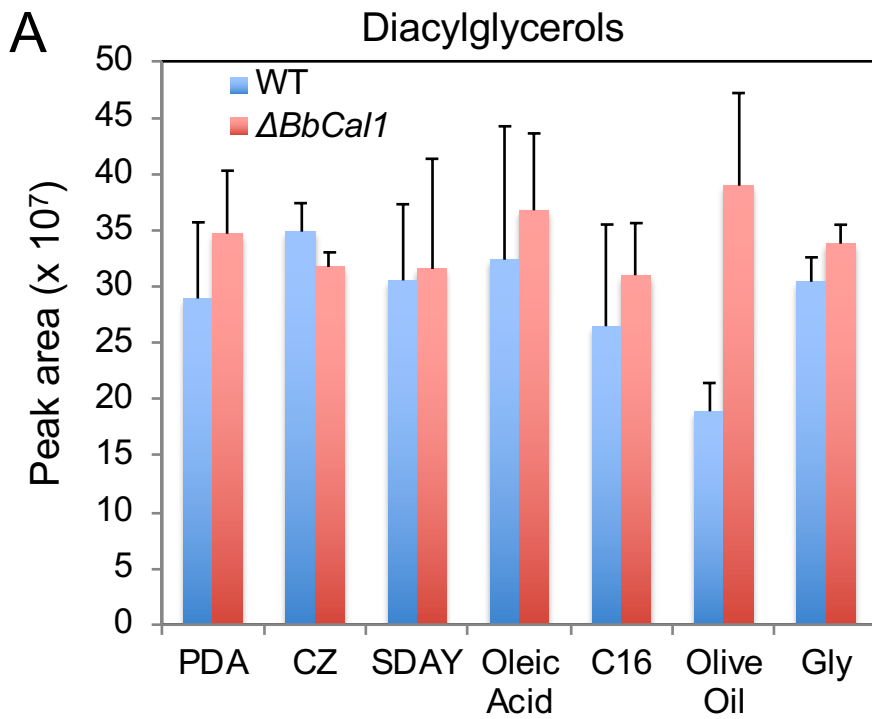


Figure 4