# Novel Mutations in CYP51B from *Penicillium digitatum* Involved in Prochloraz Resistance

### Jinlong Wang<sup>†</sup>, Jinhui Yu<sup>†</sup>, Jing Liu, Yongze Yuan, Na Li, Muqing He, Ting Qi, Geng Hui, Li Xiong, and Deli Liu<sup>\*</sup>

Hubei Key Laboratory of Genetic Regulation and Integrative Biology, College of Life Science, Central China Normal University, Wuhan 430079, P. R. China

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Green mold caused by Penicillium digitatum is one of the most serious postharvest diseases of citrus fruit, and it is ubiquitous in all citrus growing regions in the world. Sterol 14 $\alpha$ -demethylase (CYP51) is one of the key enzymes of sterol biosynthesis in the biological kingdom and a prime target of antifungal drugs. Mutations in CYP51s have been found to be correlated with resistance to azole fungicides in many fungal species. To investigate the mechanism of resistance to prochloraz (PRC) in P. digitatum, the PRC sensitivity was determined in vitro in this study to assess the sensitivity of 78 P. digitatum isolates collected in Hubei province. The results showed that 25 isolates were prochloraz-resistant (PRC-R), including six high-resistant (HR) strains, twelve medium-resistant (MR) and seven low-resistant (LR) strains. A sequence analysis showed no consistent point mutations of PdCYP51A in the PRC-R strains, but four substitutions of CYP51B were found, Q309H in LR strains, Y136H and Q309H in HR strains, and G459S and F506I in MR strains, which corresponded to the four sensitivity levels. Based on the sequence alignment analysis and homology modeling followed by the molecular docking of the PdCYP51B protein, the potential correlation between the mutations and PRC resistance is proposed.

*Keywords: Penicillium digitatum*, sterol 14α-demethylase, CYP51, point mutation, prochloraz resistance, homology modeling

#### Introduction

Citrus green mold, which is caused by *Penicillium digitatum*, is well known as the most destructive postharvest fungal disease in the world (Porat *et al.*, 2000). Sterol 14 $\alpha$ -demethylase (14DM, CYP51), a microsomal cytochrome P450 in eukaryotes, is a key enzyme for the sterol biosynthesis that

<sup>†</sup>These authors contributed equally to this work.

contributes to cell membrane formation and thus is essential for the survival of many biological organisms (Lepesheva and Waterman, 2011). Currently, an important group of fungicides widely used to manage citrus green mold in agriculture and in medicine are the 14 $\alpha$ -demethylase inhibitors (DMIs), including triazoles, imidazoles, piperazines, pyrimidines, and pyridines (Hamamoto *et al.*, 2000). However, the excessive use of these chemical fungicides reduces the sensitivity to DMIs in several important plant pathogens, such as *Erysiphe graminis* (Brown *et al.*, 1992), *P. digitatum* (Eckert *et al.*, 1994; Zhu *et al.*, 2006), *P. italicum* (De Waard and Van Nistelrooy, 1984), and *Cercospora beticola* (Karaoglanidis *et al.*, 2000). The molecular basis of fungal resistance to DMIs is an important topic that needs to be addressed.

Fungal resistance mechanisms to DMI fungicides have been intensively studied; these include the over-expression of the ATP-binding cassette (ABC) transporter protein (PMR1 and PMR5) (Nakaune et al., 1998, 2002; Hamamoto et al., 2001) and the sterol 14a-demethylase (CYP51) (Ghosoph et al., 2007). A unique 126-bp transcriptional enhancer was found to be repeated five times in tandem in the promoter region of the CYP51A gene within IMZ-resistant *P. digitatum* strains, whereas it was present only once in IMZ-sensitive isolates (Hamamoto et al., 2000). Another report described that an insertion of a 199-bp sequence was found in the 126-bp transcriptional enhancer unit of Pdcyp51A in some of the IMZ-resistant strains, but none were found in the sensitive ones (Ghosoph et al., 2007). Furthermore, a 199-bp insertion (PdMLE1) was also found in the promoter region of Pdcyp51B, which may confer DMI resistance in P. digitatum (Sun et al., 2011). Blast searching and southern blot analyses showed that this 199 bp element was unique to P. digitatum. PdMLE1 may have acted as a powerful promoter and most likely recruited the transcription factor(s) that led to the overexpression of the *PdCYP51B* gene and conferred DMI resistance to P. digitatum (Sun et al., 2013). Recently, the genome sequences of three P. digitatum strains have become available: two DMI-resistant strains, Pd1 and Pd01-ZJU, and a sensitive strain, PHI26. Comparative genomics revealed a weak relationship between the resistant phenotype and genome variations, which suggested that the insertion of PdMLE1 should be the major, if not the only reason for DMI fungicide resistance in the Pd1 strain (Marcet-Houben et al., 2012; Sun et al., 2013). Point mutations in cyp51 associated with DMI-resistance were previously reported in various types of pathogenic fungi (Fraaije et al., 2007; Canas-Gutierrez et al., 2009; Stammler et al., 2009). However, none were detected in the promoter or the coding regions of the Pdcyp51 genes.

The fungicide prochloraz (1-{N-propyl-N-[2-(2,4,6-trichlo-

<sup>\*</sup>For correspondence. E-mail: deliliu2013@163.com, ldl@mail.ccnu.edu.cn; Tel.: +86-2767865534; Fax: +86-2767861936

rophenoxy)ethyl]carbamoyl}; PRC) is an imidazole and has been used in China since 1993 as a broad spectrum antifungal compound. The initial purpose of this study was to identify the molecular mechanisms contributing to prochloraz resistance in P. digitatum isolates collected from different places in Hubei province, where prochloraz had been widely used. Because eukaryotic CYP51s are membranebound proteins and their crystal structures are difficult to determine, the resistance mechanisms related to point mutations are not easily explained. Molecular docking experiments based on the homology modeling of CYP51 from Aspergillus fumigatus (Xiao et al., 2004), Candida albicans (Xiao et al., 2004), Cryptococcus neoformans (Sheng et al., 2009), and *Mycosphaerella graminicola* (Cools et al., 2011) have been performed to explore the mechanisms of the development of azole resistance from the specific residue substitutions. To this end, a three-dimensional model of CYP51B from P. digitatum was also built via homology modeling, and the binding mode of the target enzyme with prochloraz was identified via molecular docking in this study.

#### Materials and Methods

#### Fungal collection and sensitivity test

The *P. digitatum* strains used in this study were collected from green-mold-infected citrus fruits from citrus orchards, packing houses and markets in Yichang, Jingzhou, Hankou, Jiangxia, and Wuchang of Hubei province from 2010 to 2013. All strains were cultured on potato dextrose agar (PDA) medium at 25°C for one week, maintained on PDA at 4°C and re-cultured on PDA when needed. After growing for five days, the mycelium of *P. digitatum* was cultured in liquid potato dextrose on a rotary shaker (180 rpm) at 25°C for three days, whereas the conidial suspensions were harvested from plate-cultured colonies.

The fungicide prochloraz was used for the resistance test of *P. digitatum* strains. To distinguish the sensitivity levels of the isolates to the prochloraz, their growth on PDA amended with PRC was assessed (Holmes and Eckert, 1999; Zhang *et al.*, 2009). Five different concentrations of PRC were used, with two different ranges of concentration for strains differing in sensitivity; PRC-sensitive strains were tested with 0, 0.005, 0.010, 0.015, and 0.020 mg/L; PRC-resistant strains were tested with 0, 0.05, 0.10, 0.20, 0.50, 1.0, 2.0, 5.0, and 10.0 mg/L. PRC-S phenotypes were characterized by little to no growth on PDA with 0.1 mg/L of prochloraz, while the

PRC-R strains were those growing after one week at 25°C on PDA amended with 0.5 mg/L or more prochloraz. Each of the *P. digitatum* strains was tested in triplicate.

Approximately 50  $\mu$ l of conidial suspension were spread onto PDA plates without fungicide, and this plate was used as the seed plate. A 9-mm diameter disk was cut from these seed plates with a cork borer, and one inoculum disk was placed in the center of each dish containing various concentrations of prochloraz. The colony diameter was measured after the plates were incubated at 25°C for one week. Three replicates were used for each experiment. The average colony diameter for each test was used to calculate the EC<sub>50</sub>. All isolates selected (including all of the PRC-R strains and some of the PRC-S strains) were tested and divided into different sensitivity groups based on the EC<sub>50</sub> calculation of each strain.

### DNA extraction and analysis of the *cyp51A* and *cyp51B* upstream sequences

The genomic DNA of each selected *P. digitatum* isolate was extracted from approximately 50 mg of fresh and dried mycelium cultured in PDA using the Genomic DNA Mini Kit (SBS Genetech Co., China). To detect insertions in the *Pdcyp51A* and *Pdcyp51B* promoter regions, two pairs of specific primers were designed for PCR amplification, P1/P2 for *Pdcyp51A* upstream and P3/P4 for *Pdcyp51B* upstream (Table 1; Sun *et al.*, 2011). The PCR conditions consisted of an initial denaturation at 95°C for 5 min, followed by 35 cycles of 94°C for 1 min, 58°C for 1 min and 72°C for 2 min, with a final elongation step at 72°C for 10 min. All of the amplified fragments were confirmed by agarose gel electrophoresis and subsequent DNA sequencing.

## PCR amplification and sequencing of the *cyp51A* and *cyp51B* genes

The genomic DNA of *P. digitatum* isolates was extracted using the Genomic DNA Mini Kit (SBS Genetech Co.). The *Pdcyp51A* and *Pdcyp51B* promoter regions were amplified by PCR using primers A1/A2 and B1/B2 (Sun *et al.*, 2011) (Table 1). The complete *cyp51A* and *cyp51B* genes were cloned and sequenced from the selected *P. digitatum* strains. The primers CYP51A-F/R and CYP51B-F/R (Table 1) were designed based on the published sequences (GenBank: AB-030179; Sun *et al.*, 2011) and used to amplify *Pdcyp51A* and *Pdcyp51B*. Reverse transcription (RT)-PCR was carried out as follows: the total RNA of each *P. digitatum* isolate was extracted using TRIZOL reagent (TaKaRa Biotechnology Co.,

#### Table 1. Primers used in this study

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Primer	DNA sequence $(5' \rightarrow 3')$	Purpose		
A1	TAGCTCCAAAACAAATCGTCTGCC	Amplification of PdCYP51A upstream		
A2	GGTGAAGATATTGCCGTACTAGAC			
B1	TATAGCGACATTAGTTTGGC	Amplification of PdCYP51B upstream		
B2	AGGAAAGTTGCAGAGAGACCCAT			
CYP51A-F	ATGGATCTCGTCCCATTGGTAA	Amplification of PdCYP51A		
CYP51A-R	CTATGAACGGACTTCCCAGCG			
CYP51B-F	ATGGGTCTCTCTGCAACTTTC	Amplification of PdCYP51B		
CYP51B-R	TGCCTTGACTCCACGTTTCT			

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Fig. 1. EC<sub>50</sub> value of 40 P. digitatum isolates to prochloraz.

China); first-strand cDNA was synthesized using an RNA PCR Kit (AMV) 3.0 kit (TaKaRa Biotechnology Co.). Both the genomic DNA and cDNA were used as templates to amplify the gene sequences and coding regions by PCR. The PCR conditions consisted of an initial denaturation at 95°C for 5 min, followed by 35 cycles of 94°C for 1 min, 58°C for 1 min and 72°C for 2 min, with a final elongation step at 72°C for 10 min. All amplified fragments were analyzed by agarose gel electrophoresis and purified using a DNA Gel Extraction Kit (Axygen Biosciences Co.). The amplified fragments were cloned into the pMD18-T vector (TaKaRa Biotech. Co.) and sent for sequencing (GenScript Co., China). All gene sequences of *Pdcyp51A* and *Pdcyp51B* and the derived protein sequences were aligned by DNAMAN 7.0 (http://www.lynnon.com/).

#### Analysis of homology modeling and docking

The PdCYP51B sequence was aligned with other homologous proteins from the CYP51 family using ClustalW (Larkin *et al.*, 2007) with a gap penalty of 10 and BLOSUM series weight matrix. The structural model of PdCYP51B was constructed by employing the web server SWISS-MODEL (Arnold *et al.*, 2005) with the crystal structure of human CYP51 (PDB ID: 3LD6) (Strushkevich *et al.*, 2010) as a template. The resulting models of PdCYP51B (wild-type and mutated proteins) were assessed with the PROCHECK program (Laskowski *et al.*, 1993), and the root mean square deviation (RMSD) values of the constructed model and crystal structure were calculated using the Dali server (Holm and Rosenstrom, 2010). Prochloraz was docked into the active site of the PdCYP51B model with the AutoDock 4.2 software package (Morris *et al.*, 2009).

#### Results

### Isolation and prochloraz sensitivity assay of *P. digitatum* strains

A total of 78 *P. digitatum* strains were isolated from different locations in Hubei province during the period of 2010 to 2013. All strains were isolated using PDA, and the sensitivity phenotype to prochloraz was determined according to the tested EC<sub>50</sub> values. The results showed that 25/78 strains (about 32%) were found to be resistant to prochloraz. The PRC-R phenotype strains were detected in Yichang, Jing-zhou, Hankou, and Wuchang but not in Jiangxia.

The sensitivities of *P. digitatum* to prochloraz were determined by calculating the EC<sub>50</sub> values of the 40 *P. digitatum* isolates (containing all 25 PRC-R phenotype strains and 15 PRC-S phenotype strains) (Fig. 1), and the tested population was divided into four groups based on differences in their sensitivity level. The EC<sub>50</sub> value was 0.009–0.019 mg/L for sensitive strains (S), 0.239–0.457 mg/L for LR strains, 0.688– 1.275 mg/L for MR strains and 3.800–6.882 mg/L for HR strains. The EC<sub>50</sub> value of the most resistant isolate was more than 680-fold that of the most sensitive one.

#### Analysis of the *Pdcyp51A* and *Pdcyp51B* upstream sequences

The Pdcyp51A and Pdcyp51B upstream sequences were am-



Fig. 2. Analysis of *Pdcyp51B* upstream sequences from the different isolates. PCR products for the *Pdcyp51B* upstream sequences were derived from two PRC-S strains (1-2) and seven PRC-R strains (3-10).

plified from the 40 isolates and sequenced to detect any insertions in the PRC-R strains. The PCR products of approximately 506-bp *Pdcyp51A* upstream sequences from the selected strains were cloned and analyzed. The lengths of the fragments obtained from the PRC-R phenotypes appeared to be equal to those of the PRC-S phenotypes. There were no insertions in the *Pdcyp51A* promoter region of PRC-R strains. The sequence analysis of the Pdcyp51B promoter region showed an extra 199-bp fragment insertion in each of the PRC-R strains but not in the PRC-S strains (Fig. 2),

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which is consistent with the results described by Sun *et al.* (2011).

#### Sequence analysis of Pdcyp51A and Pdcyp51B

To explore the possibility of new mechanisms associated with prochloraz resistance, the 1,760-bp *Pdcyp51A* gene and the 1,751-bp *Pdcyp51B* gene of *P. digitatum* were amplified with genomic DNA as the template and sequenced. Both of the *Pdcyp51A* genes and the cDNA fragments from 25 *P.* 

Table 2. Amino acid substitutions in PdCYP51B and corresponding prochloraz susceptibility phenotypes of P. digitatum							
	Isolate number <sup>a</sup>	Location	Source <sup>b</sup>	Sensitivity level <sup>c</sup>	Amino acid substitution(s)		
	HSPd-D11	Wuchang	Navel orange	HR	Ү136Н, Q309Н		
	HSPd-E11	Hankou	Navel orange		Y136H, Q309H		
	HSPd-F6	Yichang	Navel orange		Y136H, Q309H, I440V		
	HSPd-F10	Yichang	Navel orange		Y136H, Q309H		
	HSPd-G13	Yichang	Navel orange		Y136H, Q309H		
	HSPd-K3	Hankou	Navel orange		Y136H, Q309H		
	HSPd-B5	Yichang	Navel orange	MR	G459S, F506I		
	HSPd-B9	Yichang	Citrus dellciosa		G459S, F506I		
	HSPd-B10	Yichang	Citrus dellciosa		G459S, F506I, M144T		
	HSPd-C4	Wuchang	Citrus dellciosa		G459S, F506I, V55A, R462H		
	HSPd-C7	Wuchang	Citrus dellciosa		G459S, F506I, E331A		
	HSPd-C12	Wuchang	Citrus dellciosa		G459S, F506I		
	HSPd-D19	Wuchang	Citrus dellciosa		G459S, F506I, K449R		
	HSPd-E9	Hankou	Navel orange		G459S, F506I		
	HSPd-E14	Hankou	Citrus dellciosa		G459S, F506I, K253E, T432		
	HSPd-F9	Hankou	Navel orange		G459S, F506I		
	HSPd-G16	Yichang	Navel orange		G459S, F506I		
	HSPd-K16	Hankou	Navel orange		G459S, F506I		
	HSPd-C5	Wuchang	Navel orange	LR	Q309H		
	HSPd-C14	Wuchang	Navel orange		Q309H		
	HSPd-C15	Wuchang	Navel orange		Q309H		
	HSPd-D4	Wuchang	Citrus dellciosa		Q309H		
	HSPd-E8	Hankou	Navel orange		Q309H, G511S		
	HSPd-G1	Yichang	Citrus dellciosa		Q309H, S507P, K508R		
	HSPd-W1	Jinzhou	Navel orange		Q309H		
	HSPd-22	Wuchang	Citrus dellciosa	S	WT		
	HSPd-31	Wuchang	Citrus dellciosa		$\mathrm{WT}^{\mathrm{d}}$		
	HSPd-32	Wuchang	Citrus dellciosa		$\mathrm{WT}^{\mathrm{d}}$		
	HSPd-B1	Yichang	Citrus dellciosa		$\mathrm{WT}^{\mathrm{d}}$		
	HSPd-B2	Yichang	Citrus dellciosa		WT		
	HSPd-B7	Yichang	Navel orange		WT		
	HSPd-C6	Wuchang	Citrus dellciosa		$\mathrm{WT}^{\mathrm{d}}$		
	HSPd-D5	Wuchang	Citrus dellciosa		WT		
	HSPd-D10	Wuchang	Citrus dellciosa		WT		
	HSPd-E3	Hankou	Navel orange		$\mathrm{WT}^{\mathrm{d}}$		
	HSPd-E4	Hankou	Navel orange		$\mathrm{WT}^{\mathrm{d}}$		
	HSPd-G3	Yichang	Navel orange		WT		
	HSPd-H1	Jingzhou	Citrus dellciosa		WT		
	HSPd-H3	Jingzhou	Citrus dellciosa		WT		
	HSPd-H6	Jingzhou	Citrus dellciosa		WT		
	GU124588			-	Q309H		
	HO724323			_	WT		

<sup>a</sup> GU124588 and HQ724323, GenBank accession nos. for *Pdcyp51B* nucleotide sequences

<sup>b</sup> Source, the host source of the isolates.

<sup>c</sup>Four sensitivity levels = LR, low resistant; HR, high resistant; MR, medium resistant; S, sensitive.

<sup>d</sup> Contains one or more amino acid substitutions also seen in fully susceptible isolates





Fig. 3. Sequence alignment of 12 CYP51 family members. The alignment was performed using ClustalW and prepared in ESPript 2.0 programs. The residues conserved in more than 99% sequences are shaded in black. The four mutations in this study are marked with triangles below the alignment. Assignment of secondary structure elements is based on the 3D model of PdCYP51B constructed in this study. Sequences include those from *P. digitatum* (Pd\_B: obtained in this study), *A. fumigatus* (Af: AAF32372), *B. graminis* f. sp. *hordei* (Bgh: AAC97606), *B. graminis* f. sp. *triticii* (Bgt: CAC85624), *C. albicans* (Ca: BAB03399), *Homo sapiens* (Hs: Q16850), *P. triticina* (Pt: ACS37521), *M. graminicola* (Mg: ABO93366), *M. fijiensis* (Mf: EF581093), *U. necator* (Un: AAC49801), *C. neoformans* (Cn: AEX20236), *T. brucei* (Tbb: Q385E8).



Fig. 4. Overall structure and active site of PdCYP51B. (A) Ribbon representation and putative substrate entrance of PdCYP51B. The amino acid residues Y136, Q309, G459, and F506 are shown in red. The putative access channel for PdCYP51B (identified by the CAVER program) is shown as green mesh. (B) The docking conformation of prochloraz with Pd CYP51B. Prochloraz, heme and key residues are shown, with carbon atoms colored magenta, salmon, and cyan respectively. Hydrogen bonds are shown in black dashed lines.

*digitatum* strains (including 20 PRC-R strains and five PRC-S strains) were cloned and sequenced. The *Pdcyp51A* gene (1,760 bp) was found to have three introns and four exons, with 1,551 bp encoding the corresponding PdCYP51A protein (516 amino acids). The alignment of all 25 PdCYP51A genes with two sequences from GenBank (GenBank: AB-030179, DQ355161) showed a total of 31 variable nucleotide positions in the gene-coding regions compared with that of the sensitive isolates, which resulted in 15 amino acid substitutions. However, all amino acid substitutions appear to be random and no consistent mutations between PRC-S stains and PRC-R strains were found (data not shown).

The Pdcyp51B genes and cDNA fragments from 25 PRC-R strains and 15 PRC-S strains were cloned and sequenced. The *Pdcyp51B* gene contains four exons and three introns, and the coding regions had 1575 nucleotide base pairs. The reported 42 Pdcyp51B genes (including GenBank: GU124588, HQ724323), which were classified into two major sub-groups, were aligned by DNAMAN 7.0. The results indicated that 47 nucleotide mutations occurred in the coding regions and resulted in 26 amino acid substitutions in the translated protein sequences (Table 2). Most of the alterations occurred haphazardly in different strains, and these changes might not contribute to the resistance of the isolates. However, one or two of four consistent substitutions (Y136H, Q309H, 459S, and F506I) present in the PRC-R strains seemed to be associated with different PRC-sensitivity levels. All LR strains had an identical change in Q309H in the PdCYP51B protein; the HR strains had two substitutions of Y136H and Q309H; the MR strains had another two substitutions of G459S and F506I (Table 2).

#### Homology modeling and docking analysis of PdCYP51B

The PdCYP51B sequence was aligned with the other 11 proteins from the CYP51 family using ClustalW. The results showed that the mutations in PdCYP51B were highly conserved in the CYP51 family, including Y136 in the B'/C loop, H309 in the middle of  $\alpha$ -helix I, G459 in the  $\alpha K' \cdot \eta K''$ loop and F506 in the  $\beta$ 4 hairpin (Fig. 3). In Fig. 3, the residues conserved in more than 99% of the sequences are shaded in black, and the four mutations found in this study are marked with triangles at the specific sites.

The PdCYP51B model in this study shared 40% identity with human CYP51 and was structurally similar to the template protein, with the 0.5Å RMSD calculated by the DaliLite

v.3 server. Figure 4A shows twelve major helices, four antiparallel  $\beta$ -sheets and the linking loops in the 3D-structure of PdCYP51B; the heme was surrounded by the highly conserved a-helices E, I, J, K, and L. In addition, the putative substrate entrance to PdCYP51B contained the A', F" helices and  $\beta$ 4 strands (Fig. 4A). Based on the PROCHECK program evaluation, the Ramachandran plots for the local backbone residue conformation of the constructed PdCYP51B models suggested that the conformations of 85.9% of the residues were in favored core regions, 12.6% in allowed regions, 0.0% in generously allowed regions and 1.5% in disallowed regions. This finding further confirmed the quality of the predicted enzyme structures. Based on the homolog models, the mutated PdCYP51B proteins were highly similar to the wildtype PdCYP51B at different structural levels and also shared a similar binding mode with prochloraz, as determined by the subsequent docking analysis.

In the docking analysis (Fig. 4B), the trichlorophenyl ring of prochloraz was observed to be orientated in parallel with the plane of the hydroxyphenyl group of Y122 and located within the active site of wild-type PdCYP51B, i.e., the large hydrophobic pocket composed of Y112, Y136, F234, L125, and F229. Additionally, I373, A307, and A303 were in van der Waals contact with the remaining parts of the prochloraz molecule (Fig. 4B). As shown in Fig. 4B, a sixth ligand, generated between the imidazole N3 of prochloraz and the heme, was involved in the inhibitor binding, and the Y136 side chain participated in the H-bond formation with the prochloraz O11, rather than with the D-ring propionate of the heme.

#### Discussion

The molecular mechanisms of fungal resistance to azoles have been reported in many fungal species. This resistance can be acquired by either a specific mutation(s) in CYP51 or by the up-regulation of the target protein expression. In this study, a 199-bp insertion was detected in all PRC-R strains in the promoter region of PdCYP51B (as reported by Sun *et al.*, 2011), which indicated that the overexpression of PdCYP51B in resistant strains was widely spread in Hubei. Moreover, a sequence analysis of CYP51A and CYP51B showed four consistent amino acid changes in CYP51B in PRC-R strains, which corresponded to the four different levels of PRC-sensitivity among the study population, whereas no point mutations in CYP51A were found to be associated with resistance.

According to this study, a Y136H point mutation in Pd-CYP51B is a critical substitution contributing to prochloraz resistance, which agrees with previous reports. Previously, *in vitro* experiments documented that resistance to azoles was tightly related to amino acid substitutions in CYP51 that are consistent with 136 in PdCYP51B, such as Y132H and Y132F in Candida albicans (Marichal et al., 1999; Morio et al., 2010), Y136F in Mycosphaerella fijiensis (Canas-Gutierrez et al., 2009), Y137F in Blumeria graminis (Wyand and Brown, 2005), Y136F in Uncinula necator (Delye et al., 1997) and Y137F in Mycosphaerella graminicola (Leroux et al., 2007; Cools et al., 2011). As reported by Kelly et al. (1999), a Y132H mutation in C. albicans CYP51 led to a loss of interaction between the aromatic groups of fluconazole and Y132 in the wild-type protein, which explained enhanced resistance to fluconazole. For human CYP51, the Y145H substitution shortened the side chain and generated a hydrogen bond with the fluconazole-bound water molecule, which participated in the hydrogen-bond network between fluconazole and the heme A-ring propionate and thus promoted the binding affinity of fluconazole to the hCYP51 mutant (Strushkevich et al., 2010). However, based on the present orientation analysis (Fig. 4B), we propose that the O11 and O7 atoms, which are potential H-bond donors in prochloraz, were farther from the N atoms of 136H in the imidazole ring than the -OH group of fluconazole. Hence, the water-mediated hydrogen-bond network between prochloraz and the heme D-ring propionate may not exist in the PdCYP51B mutant. Therefore, the absence of the hydrophobic interaction of the aromatic ring of prochloraz with Y136 and/or the hydrogen bonding of Y136 with the prochloraz present in wild-type protein could account for the resistance phenotype of strains that contain this mutation.

The EC<sub>50</sub> values determined in this study indicate that G459S and F506I also contribute to drug resistance. The G459S-corresponding substitutions, G464S mutation in C. albicans CYP51 (CaCYP51) and G484S in Cryptococcus neoformans CYP51 (CnCYP51), are reportedly associated with azole resistance (Löffler et al., 1997; Marichal et al., 1999; Sheng et al., 2009). The G484 in CnCYP51 is a residue that forms part of the conserved heme-binding domain and is conserved in all eukaryotic CYP51s and bacterial CYP51s (Rodero et al., 2003; Lepesheva and Waterman, 2011). The substitution of G484, which is important for the conformation of the heme environment, might decrease the flexibility required for interdomain conformational changes upon inhibitor or substrate binding (Sheng et al., 2009). Conversely, as a conserved amino acid residue in the CYP51 family, F506 (PdCYP51) plays an important role in the structure and function of CYP51s. Consistent with the F506, V461 in Trypanosoma brucei CYP51 (TbCYP51) was predicted to form the surface of the substrate binding cavity, while the I488 in human CYP51 (HsCYP51) was hypothesized to act as a determinant of the sterol side-chain structure (Strushkevich et al., 2010; Lepesheva and Waterman, 2011). In Aspergillus fumigatus, the F495I substitution of CYP51 (corresponding to F506I in PdCYP51B) was recently reported to be involved in the resistance to azole antifungals. However, this substitution does not occur alone but arises with the TR/L98H or S297T mutation (Mellado *et al.*, 2007; Snelders *et al.*, 2008; Lockhart *et al.*, 2011). Therefore, we hypothesize that the MR phenotype of strains depends on the simultaneous substitutions of G459S and F506I, which change the conformation of the heme environment and/or block the entry of prochloraz into the heme pocket via steric hindrance.

To the best of our knowledge, this study is the first to report the Q309H mutation in LR strains. According to the sequence alignment, Q309 is located in the CYP51 I-helix signature sequence (-aGQHtS-), which is most likely involved in the proton delivery route. The mutation of the corresponding QHT and S has been experimentally proven to significantly affect the activity of rat CYP51 (Nitahara et al., 2001; Lepesheva et al., 2010; Lepesheva and Waterman, 2011). Hence, the Q309H substitution may contribute to the LR phenotype of strains that contain this mutation, such as by changing the active pocket environment or binding pattern with drugs targeting PdCYP51B. To further confirm the relationship between amino acid changes and resistance level of *P. digitatum* towards triazole drugs, the minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) of imazalil (another triazole antifungal drug) for the strains in this study were also tested (data not shown). The result demonstrated that the resistance distribution of these strains was similar towards imazalil and prochloraz, and strains carrying the same mutations (classified in this study) demonstrated a similar resistance level, which indicates that mutations in the coding region of CYP51B found in this study were highly related with the resistance level of *P. digitatum* towards triazole drugs. However, the 199-bp insert sequence in the promoter regions of *Pdcyp51B* from R strains should also be taken into consideration. Thus, it is suggested that the observed azole resistance might be attributed to a combination of transcriptional and activity control.

Various hypotheses have been proposed based on CYP51 protein modeling and structural biology evidence. Nevertheless, the influences of the target enzyme mutations on the fungal resistances remain unclear. The PdCYP51B crystal structure data and further interaction analysis of the mutated azole-bound enzyme(s) will elucidate this mechanism. However, useful information on the human CYP51 crystal structure that allows for the homology modeling and docking analysis of the point mutations that result in different levels of PRC-resistance discussed in this study can provide a possible strategy for virtual screening based on a structurally optimized azole molecule and the *de novo* inhibitor design for the discovery of new antifungal agents.

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