

Identification of Copper-Containing Oxidoreductases in the Secretomes of Three Colletotrichum Species with a Focus on Copper Radical Oxidases for the Biocatalytic Production of Fatty Aldehydes

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David Ribeaucourt, Safwan Saker, David Navarro, Bastien Bissaro, Elodie Drula, et al.. Identification of Copper-Containing Oxidoreductases in the Secretomes of Three Colletotrichum Species with a Focus on Copper Radical Oxidases for the Biocatalytic Production of Fatty Aldehydes. Applied and Environmental Microbiology, 2021, 87 (24), pp.e01526-21. 10.1128/AEM.01526-21. hal-03619439

HAL Id: hal-03619439 https://hal.science/hal-03619439v1

Submitted on 5 May 2022

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- 1 Identification of copper-containing oxidoreductases in the secretomes of three
- 2 Colletotrichum species with a focus on copper radical oxidases for the
- 3 biocatalytic production of fatty aldehydes
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25 Copper Radical Alcohol Oxidases (CRO-AlcOx), which have been recently discovered among 26 fungal phytopathogens are attractive for the production of fragrant fatty aldehydes. With the 27 initial objective to investigate the secretion of CRO-AlcOx by natural fungal strains, we 28 undertook time-course analyses of the secretomes of three Colletotrichum species (C. 29 graminicola, C. tabacum and C. destructivum) using proteomics. The addition of a copper-30 manganese-ethanol mixture in absence of any plant-biomass mimicking compounds to 31 Colletotrichum cultures unexpectedly induced the secretion of up to 400 proteins, 29-52% of 32 which were carbohydrate-active enzymes (CAZymes), including a wide diversity of copper-33 containing oxidoreductases from the auxiliary activities (AA) class (AA1, AA3, AA5, AA7, 34 AA9, AA11-AA13, AA16). Under these specific conditions, while a CRO-glyoxal oxidase from 35 the AA5_1 subfamily was among the most abundantly secreted proteins, the targeted AA5_2 36 CRO-AlcOx were secreted at lower levels, suggesting heterologous expression as a more 37 promising strategy for CRO-AlcOx production and utilization. C. tabacum and C. destructivum 38 CRO-AlcOx were thus expressed in *Pichia pastoris* and their preference toward both aromatic 39 and aliphatic primary alcohols was assessed. The CRO-AlcOx from C. destructivum was further 40 investigated in applied settings, revealing a full conversion of C6 and C8 alcohols into their 41 corresponding fragrant aldehydes.

42

43 IMPORTANCE

In the context of the industrial shift toward greener processes, the biocatalytic production of aldehydes is of utmost interest owing to their importance for their use as flavors and fragrances ingredients. CRO-AlcOx have the potential to become platform enzymes for the oxidation of

47 alcohols to aldehydes. However, the secretion of CRO-AlcOx by natural fungal strains has never 48 been explored, while the use of crude fungal secretomes is an appealing approach for industrial 49 application to alleviate various costs pertaining to biocatalysts production. While investigating this primary objective, the secretomics studies revealed unexpected results showing that under 50 51 the oxidative-stressful conditions we probed, Colletotrichum species can secrete a broad 52 diversity of copper-containing enzymes (laccases, sugar oxidoreductases, LPMOs) usually 53 assigned to "plant-cell wall degradation", despite the absence of any plant-biomass mimicking 54 compound, and only little amount of CRO-AlcOx were secreted, pointing out at recombinant 55 expression as the most promising path for their biocatalytic application.

56

57 KEYWORDS: Copper radical oxidase; CAZymes; Copper-containing enzymes; Alcohol
58 oxidase; Filamentous fungi; Phytopathogen; *Colletotrichum*; Secretomics; Flavors and
59 fragrances.

60

61 INTRODUCTION

62 The development of a new technological paradigm to support the shift from a fossil-63 based economy to a greener and more circular economy is at the heart of today's bioeconomic 64 challenges (1). Biotechnology is one of the main levers in this ongoing industrial transformation (2). The development of biotechnology largely relies on biocatalysis and thus require the 65 discovery, control and engineering of a variety of enzymes and microorganisms (3). The fungal 66 67 kingdom represents a vast and untapped reservoir of biocatalysts (4) but to date, the enzymatic 68 potential of filamentous fungi has mostly been studied in the frame of plant cell wall degradation 69 (5-7). Fungal secretomics is a powerful approach to study the wide diversity of enzymes 70 secreted and to formulate enzymatic cocktails with biotechnological relevance (8–10). Using

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71 suitable inducers, some fungal strains can secrete high amounts of oxidoreductases (11) 72 including copper-containing enzymes. For instance, hypersecretory fungal strains from the 73 *Pycnoporus* genus have been selected to produce laccases and use them in applied settings (12, 74 13).

75 Most of the copper-dependent enzymes are classified within the Auxiliary Activities 76 (AA) class (14) in the CAZy database (www.cazy.org) (15). The founding member of copper 77 radical oxidases (CROs), a galactose oxidase (FgrGalOx – EC 1.1.3.9), was discovered in 1959 78 from the secretome of Fusarium graminearum (16, 17). In 2013, fungal CROs have been 79 classified within the AA5 family and further classified into subfamilies AA5 1 and AA5 2. 80 AA5 1 contains glyoxal oxidases (GLOX - EC 1.2.3.15) that catalyze the oxidation of aldehydes 81 to carboxylic acids, and AA5_2 gathers enzymes that oxidize the alcohol function of diverse 82 substrates (e.g., galactose, galactose-containing polysaccharides, aromatic and aliphatic primary 83 alcohols) to generate the corresponding aldehydes. More recently, the AA5_2 subfamily was 84 shown to be more diverse than expected, encompassing notably various alcohol oxidases (CRO-85 AlcOx; EC 1.1.3.13) originating from the phytopathogen ascomycete fungi Colletotrichum and 86 Magnaporthe spp. (18-20). CRO-AlcOx are monocopper, and otherwise organic co-factor free 87 enzymes that catalyze the oxidation of alcohols into aldehydes (with the concomitant reduction of O₂ to H₂O₂). They offer appealing perspectives to produce aldehydes (21), which are 88 89 indispensable intermediates in many chemical pathways (22, 23) and valuable ingredients for the 90 flavor and fragrance industries (24, 25). In particular, saturated long-chain aldehydes (fatty 91 aldehydes) are widely used for their citrus scent (26, 27), but are currently derived from fossil-92 based chemistry (28, 29) or extracted from natural plant materials, the supply of which is

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threatened by emerging diseases (30, 31). Therefore, alternative green and/or natural production
pathways must be investigated (32).

95 To date, only pure recombinant forms of CRO-AlcOx have been harnessed in biocatalytic 96 applications (18, 19, 21, 33) and no information on their secretion by natural fungal strains is 97 available. Determining whether CRO-AlcOx encoding fungal strains can secrete these enzymes 98 under laboratory conditions is of strong interest for enzyme selection and technological 99 applications. Noteworthy, aside from the scope of pathogenesis (34-36), very few studies 100 investigated the enzymatic biotechnological potential of *Colletotrichum* spp. (37–40). The use of 101 natural fungal strains could be advantageous to identify and then use potential naturally secreted 102 enzyme partners. In particular, catalase and peroxidase are both required to sustain in vitro the 103 activity of isolated CRO-AlcOx and other AA5 (21, 33, 41, 42). Catalase acts as a H_2O_2 104 scavenger while peroxidase is required for CRO-AlcOx activation (20, 33).

105 In this context, we investigated the ability of several fungal strains from the 106 Colletotrichum genus to secrete CRO-AlcOx. While pursuing this primary goal, we observed the 107 unexpected secretion of a large panel of plant-biomass degrading oxidoreductases and chitin-108 related enzymes under oxidative stress conditions and in absence of any plant-cell wall inducers. 109 We report here an integrated study, starting from fungal time-course secretomics, analysis of 110 copper-containing oxidoreductases secretion profiles, with a final focus on the recombinant 111 CRO-AlcOx production and characterization, and biocatalytic application of these enzymes to 112 produce fatty aldehydes for the flavor and fragrance industries.

113

114 **RESULTS**

115 Selection of fungal strains and time-course secretomic study

116	To investigate the secretion of copper-containing enzymes including AA5_2 CRO-AlcOx
117	by natural fungal strains and their potential use for bioconversion of fatty alcohols to fragrant
118	aldehydes, we selected three fungal phytopathogens from the Colletotrichum genus for which
119	genomic information is available. The first obvious choice was C. graminicola because the three
120	AA5_2 it encodes have all been previously biochemically characterized (18, 43, 44), one of them
121	being the first, most studied, and to date, most active CRO-AlcOx, namely CgrAlcOx (18, 21,
122	33). By performing a BLAST analysis of the CgrAlcOx sequence against the genomes of some
123	other Colletotrichum species we had access to, we identified two genes encoding AA5_2 in both
124	C. tabacum and C. destructivum. For each strain, one gene encoded a putative AlcOx and the
125	other one a putative aryl alcohol oxidase (AAO – based on the recent discovery of an AAO in the
126	AA5_2 family (44)) (Figure S1). These enzymes will thereafter be named CtaAlcOx/CdeAlcOx
127	and CtaAAO/CdeAAO for C. tabacum and C. destructivum, respectively. Based on the few
128	studies reporting the detection in some Ascomycota fungal secretomes of a range of copper-
129	containing enzymes from the AA class including the Fgr GalOx and other AA5 (45–47), we
130	identified copper, manganese and ethanol as possible inducers of AA5. Copper is known to be
131	crucial to activate the FgrGalOx and was used previously in combination with manganese to
132	recover active FgrGalOx from fungal cultures (47). Ethanol is often used as an inducer of
133	laccases (12) (other copper-containing AAs), and we noticed the presence of CROs in some
134	secretomes induced with ethanol (45). We therefore elaborated two liquid growth media: (i)
135	"YG" (for "Yeast-extract, Glucose"), and (ii) 'YG-CME" (for "YG-Copper, Ethanol,
136	Manganese"), with the same composition as YG but supplemented with CuSO ₄ , manganese and
137	ethanol. A time-course analysis was performed on each strain in both media at three time points
138	(day 3, day 7 and day 14) and proteomic analyses were performed on the 16 secretomes

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139 generated (note that no samples were harvested at day 3 for *C. graminicola* in both YG and YG-

140 CME due to insufficient growth).

141 The quantification of total proteins revealed an increasing amount of proteins over time
142 (except for *C. destructivum*) (Figure S2) while capillary electrophoresis analysis revealed distinct
143 profiles over time and between fungal strains (Figure 1).

144 By performing proteomic analyses of the secretomes using LC-MS/MS and mass 145 matching, we detected a high number of secreted proteins (between 150 and over 400 different 146 proteins, depending on the culture conditions; Supplementary Data Set; Figure 2A) 147 encompassing a large diversity of enzymes. CAZymes accounted for ca. 29-52% of the total 148 protein abundance in each secretome (Figure S3), with a notable high diversity of enzyme from 149 the AA class (Figure 2B). Among them, a variety of laccases (AA1), peroxidases (AA2), flavo-150 oxidases (AA3) including cellobiose dehydrogenases (AA3_1-AA8), CROs (AA5), 151 oligosaccharide oxidases (AA7), lytic polysaccharide monooxygenases (LPMOs; AA9, AA11, 152 AA13, AA16) and pyrroloquinoline quinone-dependent oxidoreductase (AA12) were detected. 153 To determine whether this high number and diversity of proteins detected was the results of cell 154 lysis (7, 48), we evaluated the proportion of proteins predicted as not secreted - i.e., without 155 signal peptide - and checked more specifically the abundance of some known intracellular 156 proteins (i.e., DNA-polymerase, proteasome endopeptidase complex, citrate synthase, malate 157 dehydrogenase, transketolase and ubiquitin-protein ligase) (Figure S4). Despite the significant 158 number of proteins predicted without signal peptide, we did not observe any clear trend that 159 would account for an accumulation of intracellular proteins in the secretomes over time. Notably, 160 some proteins without signal peptide are known to be secreted through unconventional secretion 161 pathways in fungi (48, 49).

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Effect of Copper-Manganese-Ethanol supplementation on the secretome profiles

164 We then looked at the effect of supplementation with CME. At first glance, no clear 165 effect was distinguishable on CAZymes diversity (Figures 2 & S3) but when we focused on 166 copper-containing enzymes (Figure 3), a clear trend became apparent. Indeed, copper-containing 167 enzymes were generally more abundant in the CME medium with a diversity of oxidases from 168 the AA class including AA1 laccases, AA5_1 GLOX and AA9, AA11, AA13 and AA16 169 LPMOs. Furthermore, AA1_3, AA5_1 and AA9 were among the top-five most abundant 170 enzymes in YG-CME for the C. tabacum and C. destructivum secretomes, while no AA enzymes 171 were identified in the top-five ranking for the corresponding YG secretomes (Table S1). 172 Remarkably, the presence of some AA9-CBM18 was detected in both the C. tabacum and C. 173 destructivum secretomes (Figure 3). This association of a chitin-binding domain from the 174 CBM18 family (mainly found associated to chitin-active enzymes) to an AA9 domain is 175 intriguing since AA9 LPMOs have not yet been described to act on chitin substrates. Strikingly 176 AA9 LPMOs were particularly abundant at day 3 in YG medium for C. destructivum while 177 drastically decreasing at day 7 and 14 (Figure 3) as already observed in the secretomes of the 178 basidiomycete fungus Laetisaria arvalis (50). Interestingly, C. tabacum AA9 LPMOs were also 179 found in great abundancy at all time points in the YG-CME conditions.

In addition, a diversity of Glycoside Hydrolases (GH), Polysaccharide Lyases (PL), Carbohydrate Esterase (CE) and AAs were detected exclusively in the CME medium (Figure 4). Among these enzymes, we noticed the intriguing presence of hydrolases (GH18, GH18-CBM18), oxidases (AA7, AA11) and esterases (CE4-CBM18) potentially active on chitin or chito-oligosaccharides. Remarkably, a multimodular protein with five consecutive CBM50

chitin-binding domains ("CBM50 (x5)" in Figure 4) but without any catalytic domain was
detected in both the *C. tabacum* and *C. destructivum* secretomes. This protein is analogous to
other chitin-binding proteins (i.e., LysM effector proteins) (see discussion).

188

Presence of AA5 in the secretomes

189 We next focused our analysis on AA5 CROs. Interestingly, a putative GLOX from the 190 AA5_1 subfamily was detected in C. destructivum secretomes (Figure 5), being the most 191 abundant protein in the YG-CME secretome at day 7 (and the second most abundant at day 14; 192 Table S1). The C. tabacum AA5_1 putative GLOX was also the third most abundant protein in 193 the YG-CME secretome at day 14 (Table S1). We could also detect the occurrence of putative 194 AlcOx and AAO from the AA5 2 subfamily in both C. graminicola and C. tabacum secretomes 195 (Figure 5). However, their relative abundance was quite low (between 0.05-0.13% of the total 196 Protein Abundance Index (PAI)) and they did not accumulate over time. No correlation with the 197 presence of CME in the medium was seen except for the C. graminicola AAO. CROs are known 198 to be activated by peroxidases (41, 51, 52). More specifically, the peroxidase partner responsible 199 for the activation of CRO-AlcOx has been recently unveiled in fungal pathogens (20). Both 200 genes occur as a tandem in the genomes of the Colletotrichum and Magnaporthe species 201 harboring an AlcOx, and are co-expressed in vivo prior to the plant-penetration stage (20). While 202 some peroxidases from the AA2 family (see Figure 2) were found in some of the secretomes, the 203 specific peroxidase partner of the AlcOx was not detected reinforcing the authors claims that 204 interaction with plant is needed for genes co-expression (20).

Together, these data provide unexpected information on the induction of secreted copperenzymes in *Colletotrichum* species. However, the low level (or even the absence for *C*. *destructivum*) of AA5_2 detected under these experimental conditions indicates that the direct

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208 implementation of such secretomes for the bioconversion of fatty alcohols is not a viable 209 strategy. This was confirmed by preliminary conversion assays we carried out using the 210 secretomes directly on a range of primary alcohols (data not shown). These tests were 211 inconclusive, most likely due to the low level of AA5 2 secreted and were difficult to interpret 212 given the complexity of the secretome samples (hundreds of enzymes, including various 213 oxidases such as AA3 enzymes - Figure 2B). These results prompted us to produce the 214 Colletotrichum CRO-AlcOx enzymes recombinantly in Pichia pastoris and to test their ability to 215 convert alcohols of interest for the flavor and fragrance industries. The objective was to find 216 CRO-AlcOx with potential interesting traits not predictable by sequence analysis such as (i) 217 activity on unactivated fatty alcohols, (ii) minimized requirement in accessory enzymes or (iii) 218 reduced overoxidative activity.

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Recombinant production and substrate specificity of CdeAlcOx and CtaAlcOx

220 Detailed examination of the CdeAlcOx and CtaAlcOx sequences showed that the two 221 AlcOx amino acid sequences share 90% identity with the CgrAlcOx and likewise comprise a 222 single catalytic module, as with all other characterized CRO-AlcOx from Colletotrichum spp. 223 (Figure S1). The two AAO share 85% identity with the recently characterized CgrAAO (44) and 224 possess a N-terminal PAN_1 domain, in addition to the catalytic module, similarly to the PAN_1 225 domain observed in the CgrAAO (Figure S1). The function of the PAN_1 domain in AA5_2-226 AAOs is unclear but such modules are known to mediate protein-protein or protein-carbohydrate 227 interactions (53). We successfully produced both CRO-AlcOx in P. pastoris (Figure S5) with high titers for CtaAlcOx in flask culture (200 mg of purified enzyme per liter of culture) 228 compared to CdeAlcOx (75 mg.L⁻¹) and CgrAlcOx (35 mg.L⁻¹). Activity screening using the 229 230 ABTS/HRP assay, with benzyl alcohol (BnOH - often use as benchmark with CRO-AlcOx (18,

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231 21, 44)) used as reference, confirmed that both enzymes are indeed AlcOx and that they show 232 similar substrate specificities compared to the canonical CgrAlcOx (Figure 6). However, 233 CdeAlcOx displayed a slightly higher specific activity on the secondary alcohol butan-2-ol, and 234 on the longer aliphatic substrate decan-1-ol. This latter observation could be related to the 235 M173L substitution compared to CgrAlcOx, that could create a slightly more hydrophobic 236 environment in the active site, favoring the accommodation of bulky alcohol substrates (Figure 237 S6). The pH-rate profiles determined for CdeAlcOx and CtaAlcOx (Figure S7), revealed pH 238 optima around 7.5 - 8 for both enzymes. For subsequent conversion assays and comparison with 239 CgrAlcOx, only CdeAlcOx was retained because CtaAlcOx exhibited no noticeable differences 240 in terms of substrate specificity. Nevertheless, CtaAlcOx remains attractive from a 241 biotechnological point of view, being 5.7-fold more highly expressed than the CgrAlcOx in flask 242 cultures.

Biocatalytic production of odorant aldehydes using CdeAlcOx

244 *Cde*AlcOx was subsequently probed for the conversion of hexan-1-ol and octan-1-ol (two 245 precursors of fragrant aldehydes) using CgrAlcOx as a benchmark. For these experiments, we 246 tested the impact of the reaction time (15 minutes versus 16 hours conversion) and the addition 247 of accessory enzymes (HRP and catalase) according to the parameters determined in a previous 248 study (21). Conversion results showed that CdeAlcOx behave similarly to CgrAlcOx with all the 249 tested substrates (Figure 7). As previously observed with CgrAlcOx (21, 33), CdeAlcOx alone 250 was unable to promote full alcohol conversion. However, when both HRP and catalase were 251 added to the reaction mixture, full conversion was readily achieved in 15 minutes. Strikingly, the 252 sole addition of catalase to the reaction mixture resulted in a significant improvement in substrate

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conversion that probably cannot be attributed only to its protective effect against H_2O_2 . This may suggest an activating effect of catalase on CRO-AlcOx, similar to that of HRP.

We have previously demonstrated that upon long reaction times (16 hours), partial overoxidation of fatty aldehydes >C6 was observed due to HRP, most likely through a nonenzymatic mechanism (Figure 7A) (21). Carboxylic acids are undesired products in the frame of the F&F application targeted here, but are valuable molecules in other fields (54). In agreement with our previous study (21), we observed here that carboxylic acid was not noticeable with hexan-1-ol as substrate (Figure 7B), but was observed after 16 hours of conversion of octan-1-ol, only when HRP was present in the reaction (Figure 7C).

262 We also observed previously (21) that in the case of benzaldehyde derivatives (i.e. 4-263 NO_2 -benzyl alcohol) some overoxidation was detected but mediated by the CgrAlcOx itself 264 (Scheme S1) and dependent according to the propension of the aldehyde product to undergo 265 hydration. To probe whether CdeAlcOx behave in the same way as CgrAlcOx with 4-NO₂-266 benzyl alcohol, we included this substrate in the panel of compounds assayed (Figure S8). The 267 conversion of 4-NO₂-benzyl alcohol indeed led to the corresponding acid after 16 hours of 268 reaction even when HRP is omitted from the reaction (Figure S8). Altogether, these results 269 confirm that the behavior observed for the CgrAlcOx regarding accessory enzymes and 270 overoxidation (21) applies to other CRO-AlcOx enzymes.

271 272

273 **DISCUSSION**

The time-resolved proteomic analyses performed here on *Colletotrichum* secretomes revealed interesting and unexpected results. We detected up to ca. 400 individual enzymes in the secretomes, with the maximum number found in the YG-CME medium, while former studies by

277 our group usually yielded ca. 80 - 250 secreted proteins (8, 10, 55, 56). The high proportion of 278 CAZymes in the secretomes is surprising considering the absence of any inducer to mimic plant 279 cell walls. Strikingly, the addition of CME to the medium seemed to boost the secretion of AA 280 enzymes. Moreover, our finding that some LPMOs (especially AA9) preferentially accumulated 281 in the CME medium, in the absence of any plant biomass raises questions about the molecular 282 basis of the regulatory pathways driving their production, and possibly their true biological 283 function (57). In line with this observation, recent work suggests that some fungal LPMOs and 284 LPMO-like proteins may be involved in biological functions distinct from plant biomass 285 conversion, i.e., copper homeostasis and pathogenicity (58, 59) as well as fungal cell fusion (60). 286 Other copper-containing AA enzymes exhibited higher accumulation in YG-CME cultures. 287 Induction of the secretion of laccases could either be due to the addition of ethanol to the 288 medium (12), or a response to oxidative stress (61). Indeed, it is known that at high 289 concentrations, copper contributes to generate reactive oxygen species by Fenton chemistry (62, 290 63).

291 The proteins secreted exclusively in YG-CME medium revealed a range of chitin-active 292 enzymes, as well as non-enzymatic chitin-binding proteins (LysM proteins) some of which are 293 released by fungal cells upon interaction with their plant hosts, to conceal their presence from the 294 host immune system by preventing fungal chitin recognition by the plant or protecting fungal 295 hyphae against plant chitinases (64–66). In the absence of the host or of any plant biomass, this 296 observation suggests that the high concentration of CME in the medium could trigger some 297 pathways related to pathogenesis. The presence of chitin active enzymes may also be indicative 298 of a nutrient recycling in older senescing portions of the mycelium or of some fungal cell wall 299 remodeling activity (67).

The relatively high abundance of GLOX from the AA5_1 subfamily in some YG-CME secretomes and the low secretion levels of AA5_2 AlcOx suggest distinct biological functions for these two types of CRO. AA5_1 GLOX are often described as enzymes acting on lignin in cooperation with some peroxidases in wood-decaying fungi (68). However, their high abundance here, under CME conditions, despite the absence of lignin points toward a possible additional biological function of GLOX in Ascomycota, related to filamentous growth or pathogenicity, as already demonstrated for the AA5_1 GLOX from the maize pathogen *Ustilago maydis* (69).

307 The primary objective of this study was to investigate the secretion of CRO-AlcOx by 308 natural fungal strains with bioconversion potential. Under our experimental conditions, CRO-309 AlcOx are only sporadically secreted. Of note, a separate study very recently investigated the 310 biological function of these enzymes and showed that they are co-secreted at low levels, over a 311 short period of time during penetration of the plant host cuticle, and spatially restricted to the 312 puncturing site (20). Thus, with hindsight, the secretion of large amount of CRO-AlcOx might be 313 difficult to achieve without a proper signal to mimic the presence of plant host. Another option 314 would be to identify and engineer the promotor region controlling co-expression of the genes 315 encoding both the AlcOx and the associated peroxidase. However, for biocatalytic purposes, the 316 recombinant expression of CRO-AlcOx remains the most promising alternative. We here 317 confirmed that the knowledge gathered on sequence-structure-function of AA5 2 (18, 21, 44), 318 can predict an AlcOx activity based on bioinformatic analysis and that various CRO-AlcOx can 319 be easily produced heterologously using the yeast P. pastoris as host. CtaAlcOx was produced to 320 high yield, which is promising for future upscaled production. The conversion assays performed 321 with CdeAlcOx revealed that this enzyme can be used as a biocatalyst for the conversion of fatty 322 alcohols. The behavior of CdeAlcOx in terms of overoxidation and accessory enzyme

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requirements suggests that the traits observed here and previously (20, 21, 33) are probably validfor all CRO-AlcOx.

325 In conclusion, the work carried out in this study highlights that Colletotrichum species 326 can secrete a range of copper-containing oxidoreductases from the AA class without any plant 327 cell wall inducer. While CRO-AlcOx were detected in some of the secretomes, the direct 328 utilization of fungal strains for bioconversion of fatty alcohols will require further efforts to 329 achieve a high secretion yield of CRO-AlcOx and a deeper understanding of the factors 330 controlling their secretion. The recombinant pathway therefore represents the most promising 331 approach to develop their use in biocatalytic applications for the production of fragrant fatty 332 aldehydes.

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334 MATERIAL AND METHODS

335 General information

All chemicals used for cultivation of fungi and microorganisms were reagent grade or higher. All chemicals used for biochemical assays were $\geq 95\%$ purity. HRP type II and catalase from bovine liver were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (Hamburg, Germany). Molar concentrations of HRP (MW: 33.89 kDa) and catalase (MW of monomer: 62.5 kDa) were estimated by Bradford assay using BSA as standard. Pre-cast 10% polyacrylamide gel Mini-PROTEAN TGX were purchased from Bio-Rad (USA).

342 Data availability

The protein sequences of the *Cde*AlcOx and *Cta*AlcOx were deposited in GenBank under
the accession numbers MZ269520 and MZ269521 respectively.

345 Natural and recombinant strains

346 The following fungal strains were used: C. graminicola (M1.001, CBS 130836, (35)), C. 347 destructivum (LARS 709, CBS 520.97, (70)) and C. tabacum (N150, CPC 18945, (70)). The 348 DNA sequences of CdeAlcOx and CtaAlcOx were obtained by blasting against the "raw" 349 unannotated genomes of C. destructivum and C. tabacum and further intron prediction was done 350 using Augustus web tool (http://bioinf.uni-greifswald.de/augustus/). DNA cloning and 351 transformation of *P. pastoris* X33 with codon-optimized genes (for expression in *P. pastoris*) 352 encoding CdeAlcOx and CtaAlcOx was carried out as described previously for other 353 constructions (71). The recombinant Pichia pastoris X33 strains containing CgrAlcOx gene 354 (GenBank EFQ30446.1) was recovered from previous work (18, 21). The selection of the most 355 productive recombinant transformants was done through culture and expression in 24-deepwell

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356 plates with subsequent purification from supernatant by affinity chromatography on Ni-NTA 357 resin using an in-house automated procedure (71).

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359 Fungal cultures and secretomes harvesting

360 Fungal strains were grown and let sporulated on Potato Dextrose Agar medium (PDA) 361 plates in closed Petri dishes, at 23°C for seven days under natural solar light, without controlling 362 the humidity and were stored at 4°C before utilization. Inocula were prepared by aseptically 363 homogenizing the content of a 90 mm petri dish cultures of Colletotrichum (containing fungal 364 biomass (both mycelia and spores) and PDA medium) using an Ultra Turrax T25 homogenizer 365 (IKA, Germany) for 1 min at 9,500 rpm in 80 mL of the culture medium (see below). 200 µL of 366 this homogenate was used to inoculate 100 mL of liquid medium placed in 500 mL baffled flask. 367 Liquid cultures were grown in two different media, namely: "YG" and "YG-CME". YG medium was composed of glucose (10 g.L⁻¹), ammonium tartrate (2 g.L⁻¹), yeast extract (1 g.L⁻¹), 368 K_2 HPO₄ (1 g.L⁻¹), MgSO₄ •7H₂O (0.5 g.L⁻¹), KCl (0.5 g.L⁻¹) and 0.5 mL.L⁻¹ of trace elements 369 stock solution composed of $(NH_4)_6Mo_7O_{24} \cdot 4H_2O$ (20 mg.mL⁻¹), FeSO₄ $\cdot 7H_2O$ (100 mg.mL⁻¹), 370 $ZnSO_4 \cdot 7H_2O$ (140 mg.mL⁻¹), $B_4O_7Na_2 \cdot 10H_2O$ (200 mg.mL⁻¹). Glucose was autoclaved 371 372 separately as a 10X stock solution. The trace elements stock solution was sterilized by filtration 373 through a 0.22 µm polyether sulfone membrane (Merck-Millipore, Germany). Note that 374 insoluble elements present in this solution were removed by the filtration step. YG-CME 375 medium was prepared exactly as YG but was further supplemented with $CuSO_4 \bullet 5H_2O$ (500 μ M), 376 MnCl₂ (500 μ M) and 9 g.L⁻¹ ethanol, filtered sterilized (except for ethanol).

377 The inoculated cultures were placed in an Innova 42R incubator (New Brunswick, USA) 378 and let grown at 25°C under natural light and shaking (at 150 rpm for C. destructivum and 105

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rpm for C. tabacum and C. graminicola). The secretomes were harvested at day 3, day 7 and day 379 380 14 after inoculation. All samples were prepared in triplicates which were pooled upon 381 harvesting. Each harvested secretome was submitted to several filtration steps: (i) Miracloth (22-382 25 µm pore size) (Merck-Millipore), (ii) several glass microfiber filters used sequentially: 47 383 mm Whatman® grade GF/D, A and F (GE Healthcare, USA), (iii) 0.45 and 0.22-µm polyether 384 sulfone membranes (Merck -Millipore) and finally diafiltered onto a polyether sulfone 385 membrane with a 10kDa cut-off (Vivaspin, Sartorius, Göttingen, Germany) with 50 mM sodium 386 phosphate buffer pH 7.0 to a final volume of 1-7 mL. The secretomes were stored at 4°C until 387 use. Their total protein concentration was evaluated by the Bradford method (Protein Assay, 388 BioRad, France) using a bovine serum albumin (BSA) standard protein.

389

390 Microfluidic capillary gel electrophoresis

391 The concentrated secretomes samples were diluted so that 87.5 μ L of the initially 392 harvested secretomes (before concentration) were submitted to electrophoresis, except for C. 393 tabacum YG-CME day 14 which was further diluted by 1/3 to avoid too high protein 394 concentration. Samples were prepared in a 96-well plate using the manufacturer "HT Protein 395 Express Assay Sample Buffer" (PerkinElmer, USA) supplemented with 36.4 mM (final 396 concentration) of dithiothreitol. The samples were heated at 95°C for 10 min and subjected 397 directly to LabChip GX II capillary gel electrophoresis (PerkinElmer) according to the 398 manufacturer's instructions. The electropherograms were analyzed using the LabChip GX II 399 software (PerkinElmer).

400

401 LC–MS/MS protein identification

402	For each secretome, 15 µg of proteins were loaded on a 10% Tris-glycine precast SDS-
403	PAGE gel (Mini-PRO-TEAN TGX, BioRad). After a short migration (0.5 cm) in the stacking
404	gel, the gels were stained with Coomassie blue (BioRad) and each electrophoresis track was cut
405	into two 2-mm-wide strips. Proteomic identification was performed at the Plateforme d'Analyse
406	Protéomique de Paris Sud-Ouest (PAPPSO, INRA, Jouy-en-Josas, France; http://pappso.inra.fr/),
407	according to the protocol described in (72). Briefly, the digestion of the proteins contained in the
408	gel strips was carried out according to a standard trypsinolysis process, using modified trypsin
409	(Promega, France). Peptide analysis was performed by a NanoLC Ultra 2D system (Eksigent
410	Technologies, United States) coupled to a Q-exactive mass spectrometer (Thermo Fisher
411	Scientific, France) using electro-spray ionization. Peptide attribution and protein annotation were
412	performed by comparing mass spectrometry data to predicted proteins in the genomes of
413	Colletotrichum graminicola M1.001 (https://mycocosm.jgi.doe.gov/Colgr1/Colgr1.home.html)
414	and <i>Colletotrichum higginsianum</i> IMI 349063
415	(https://mycocosm.jgi.doe.gov/Colhig2/Colhig2.home.html) for both C. destructivum and C.
416	tabacum strains. The internal contaminant database X!TandemPipeline software
417	(X!TandemPipeline version 0.2.30, France) was also used. The protein annotation was
418	completed manually using the CAZy database for the CAZymes annotation and using the BlastP
419	tool from the NCBI database (https://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov) for other proteins.

420 421

Heterologous expression and purification

422 Recombinant *P. pastoris* X33 strains were streaked on yeast extract peptone dextrose 423 (YPD) agar plates containing Zeocin (100 μ g.mL⁻¹) and incubated 3 days at 30°C. Five mL of 424 YPD broth, in 50-mL sterile conical tubes, were inoculated with a *P. pastoris* transformant and

425	incubated for five hours (30°C, 160 rpm in an orbital shaker). The preculture was used to
426	inoculate 0.2% (ν/ν) of 500 mL buffered complex glycerol medium (BMGY) in a 2-liter flask,
427	incubated (16 hours) until the OD600 nm reached 4-6. Then, the biomass was harvested by
428	centrifugation (10 minutes, 16° C, 5,000 x g), resuspended in 100 mL of buffered complex
429	methanol medium (BMMY) supplemented with CuSO4 (500 μM) and methanol (1% $\textit{v/v})$ in a
430	500 mL flask, and shaken for 3 days in an orbital shaker (200 rpm, 16°C) with daily feeding of
431	methanol (1% v/v). The culture was then centrifuged (10 minutes, 4°C, 5,000 x g) and the
432	supernatant containing the secreted proteins, filtrated on a 0.45-µm cut-off membrane (Millipore,
433	USA) followed by buffer exchange with Tris-HCl (50 mM, pH 8.5), performed by ultrafiltration
434	through a 10 kDa cut-off polyether sulfone membrane (Vivacell 250, Sartorius Stedim Biotech
435	GmbH, Germany). The buffered supernatant was loaded on a DEAE-20 mL HiPrep FF 16/10
436	anion exchange chromatography column (GE Healthcare), equilibrated with Tris-HCl buffer (50
437	mM, pH 8.5) and connected to an Äkta Xpress system (GE Healthcare). Elution was performed
438	by applying a linear gradient from 0 to 500 mM NaCl (in Tris-HCl buffer 50 mM, pH 8.5) with a
439	flow rate set to 5 mL.min ⁻¹ . The collected fractions were analyzed by SDS-PAGE (10%
440	polyacrylamide precast gel, Bio-Rad) stained with Coomassie blue. Fractions containing the
441	recombinant enzyme were pooled, concentrated and exchanged to sodium phosphate buffer (50
442	mM, pH 7.0). The CgrAlcOx ($\mathcal{E}^{280} = 101,215 \text{ M}^{-1}.\text{cm}^{-1}$), CdeAlcOx ($\mathcal{E}^{280} = 94,225 \text{ M}^{-1}.\text{cm}^{-1}$) and
443	CtaAlcOx ($\mathcal{E}^{280} = 94,225 \text{ M}^{-1}.\text{cm}^{-1}$) concentration was determined by UV absorption at 280 nm
444	using a Nanodrop ND-200 spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Final solutions (3-5.5
445	mg.mL ⁻¹) were flash-frozen using liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C for long-term storage or
446	stored at 4°C for immediate use.
447	

448 Spectrophotometric enzyme activity assays

449 AlcOx initial rates were determined by monitoring H₂O₂ released during AlcOx oxidation 450 of various substrates, using the coupled ABTS/HRP assay. Routine assays were performed in 96-451 wells transparent microtiter plates (Flat bottom, Polystyrene - Greiner Bio One, Austria) in 200 µL final volume containing 0,25 mg/mL ABTS powder, 0,1 mg.mL⁻¹ HRP powder (as provided 452 453 by the supplier), 3 mM substrate (unless indicated otherwise) and 1 nM AlcOx in sodium 454 phosphate buffer (50 mM, pH 8.0), at 23°C. Reactions were initiated by the addition of substrate 455 to a premix containing all other reagents. Evolution of the absorbance at 414 nm (ABTS cation 456 radical) was measured over time with a Tecan Infinite M200 (Tecan, Switzerland) plate reader. 457 Oxidation of 1 mole of substrate by AlcOx consumes 1 equivalent of O₂ and generates 1 458 equivalent of H_2O_2 which is in turn used by HRP as co-substrate to oxidize 2 equivalents of 459 ABTS. Insoluble substrates were prepared in acetone so that the final acetone concentration in 460 the enzyme assay did not exceed 1% (v/v). Standard curve of know concentrations of H₂O₂ (1 to 40 µM) were made and used to quantify H2O2 production. One unit of AlcOx activity was 461 462 defined as the amount of enzyme necessary to produce 1 μ mole of H₂O₂ per minute.

463

464 **Bioconversion assays**

Bioconversions were carried out in 4 mL-clear borosilicate glass vials closed by screw caps with PTFE septum for a total reaction volume of 500 μ L. Routine assay contained 3 mM substrate (prediluted in acetone), 1 μ M AlcOx, various amounts of catalase (0-8 μ M) and/or HRP (0-12 μ M), in sodium phosphate buffer (50 mM, pH 8.0). Final reaction contained 1% (ν/ν) acetone. Reactions were run at 23°C, under stirring at 190 *rpm* in an Innova 42R incubator (New Brunswick, USA). Vials were placed lying down in the incubator. The reaction mixture was then

471 acidified by addition of 10 µL HCl (12 M) and products and possible remaining substrate were 472 extracted by adding 500 µL of cyclohexane/ethyl acetate mixture (1:1), followed by shaking and 473 centrifugation for 5 minutes at 1.500 x g. The organic layer was transferred into a new vial by 474 pipetting and analyzed with a GC-2014 apparatus (Shimadzu, Japan) equipped with a flame 475 ionization detector (FID) and an Optima- σ -3 GC capillary column (30 m x 0.25 mm x 0.25 μ m -476 Macherey-Nagel GmbH & Co, Germany). Nitrogen (200 kPa) was used as carrier gas. The 477 injector and detector temperatures were set at 250°C and temperature programs are described in 478 Table S2. Heptanal or guaiacol were used as internal standards for either aliphatic or aromatic 479 products analyses, respectively.

480

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS 481

482 D.R. carried out most of the experimental work, analyzed the data. S.S. was involved in 483 the culture of fungi and production of the secretomes. L.O.C. and D.N. performed proteomics 484 and analysed data, E.D. and B.H. performed expert annotation of CAZymes, M.H. contributed to 485 enzyme production in Pichia pastoris. S.G. performed the microfluidic capillary gel 486 electrophoresis experiments. R.J.O. and N.L. provided the Colletotrichum strains and access to 487 the associated genomic data. M.L. and J-G.B conceptualized the study. F.L., B.B., M.L. and J-488 G.B. supervised the work. D.R. and J-G.B. drafted the manuscript. All authors approved the final 489 version of the manuscript.

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491 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

492 This study was supported by the French National Agency for Research ("Agence 493 Nationale de la Recherche") through the "Projet de Recherche Collaboratif International" ANR-494 NSERC (FUNTASTIC project, ANR-17-CE07-0047). We are grateful to MANE & Fils and the

495 "Association Nationale Recherche Technologie" (ANRT) for funding the PhD fellowship of 496 D.R. entitled "Discovery and structure-function study of new fungal copper radicals oxidases 497 used as biocatalysts for the valorisation of alcohols and plant biomass". This Convention 498 Industrielle de Formation par la RecherchE (CIFRE) grant no. 2017/1169 runs from 1 April 499 2018 to 1 April 2021. Fungal genome sequencing was supported by funding to R.J.O. (grant 500 ANR-17-CAPS-0004-01).

501 We are grateful to Renaud Vincentelli (AFMB - CNRS - Marseille, France) for providing access 502 to the microfluidic capillary gel electrophoresis apparatus.

503

504 **COMPETING INTEREST**

505 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

506

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- 736
- 737 FIGURE LEGENDS
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729 Figure 1. Analysis by capillary electrophoresis of the Colletotrichum secretomes samples.

730 Concentrated secretomes samples were diluted so that the equivalent of 87.5 µL (prior to 731 concentration) of each secretome sample was injected, except for C. tabacum YG-CME day 14 732 that was further diluted 3-fold to avoid a too high protein concentration. The molecular weights 733 (in kDa) of the protein ladder are displayed on the left- and right-hand sides of the image. A darker 734 color corresponds to a higher concentration of protein.

735

736 Figure 2: Overview of (A) the total number of proteins secreted over time in different media 737 and (B) diversity of AA enzymes detected in the secretomes.

738

739 Figure 3: Abundance of copper-containing AAs in fungal secretomes from (A) C. 740 graminicola, (B) C. destructivum and (C) C. tabacum. The Y-axis legend on panel A applies to 741 all panels likewise (note the different scale for C. tabacum). For each enzyme family, the bar is 742 subdivided according to the number of enzymes identified; for instance, C. tabacum at day 3 in 743 YG-CME displayed six different AA9. PAI: Protein Abundance Index.

744 Figure 4. Abundance of CAZymes identified exclusively in the YG-CME media from (A) C. 745 graminicola, (B) C. destructivum and (C) C. tabacum. The Y-axis legend on panel A applies to 746 all panels likewise (note the different scale for C. tabacum). For each enzyme family, the bar is 747 subdivided according to the number of enzymes identified. PAI: Protein Abundance Index.

748 Figure 5. Heatmap of the abundance of AA5 detected in the fungal secretomes.

749 Figure 6: Comparative activity profiles of the three Colletotrichum AA5 2 AlcOx, (A)

750 Relative activity of the recombinant AlcOx measured by ABTS/HRP coupled assay on 3 mM

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BnOH. (B) Relative activity profiling of the recombinant AlcOx enzymes on a set of substrates, determined by ABTS/HRP coupled assay, with activity on BnOH set as reference (activity on BnOH set as 100%). Substrate concentrations were as follows: 1% (w/v) xyloglucan, 50 mM for D-glucose, D-galactose, D-raffinose, 3 mM for butan-2-ol, butan-1-ol, benzyl alcohol, cinnamyl alcohol, octan-1-ol, decan-1-ol, and glycolaldehyde dimer. Reactions were performed with 1 nM of CgrAlcOx and CtaAlcOx, and 2 nM CdeAlcOx. Error bars show s.d. (independent experiments, 757 n = 3).

758 Figure 7: CgrAlcOx and CdeAlcOx mediated oxidation of some fatty alcohols. (A) Reaction 759 scheme proposed (based on (21)) (B) conversion of hexan-1-ol (C) Conversion of octan-1-ol. 760 Reactions were incubated for either 15 minutes or 16 hours. All reaction mixtures contained: 3 761 mM substrate and 1 µM AlcOx, in phosphate sodium buffer (50 mM, pH 8.0) and 23°C. Reactions 762 varied as follows: no accessory enzyme added, addition of catalase (8 μ M final), addition of HRP 763 (12 μ M final), addition of both catalase (0.5 μ M) and HRP (12 μ M final). Legend in panel A 764 applies for panel B likewise. Conversion products were analyzed by GC-FID. Error bars show s.d. 765 (independent experiments, n = 3).

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	C. graminicola					C. tabacum						
		Y	G	YG-	CME		YG		Ň	YG-CN	1E	
ental		d7	d14	d7	d14	d3	d7	d14	d3	d7	d14	d3
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l Env obiolo	119 -		_		-		_	_		_		
anc Nicre	69 -						_	_				
≥ ied	48 -						_				_	
Appl	29 - 20 - 16 -				_						_	_
					_						_	
	1										_	

C. destructivum

d3

d14

YG-CME

d7

d14

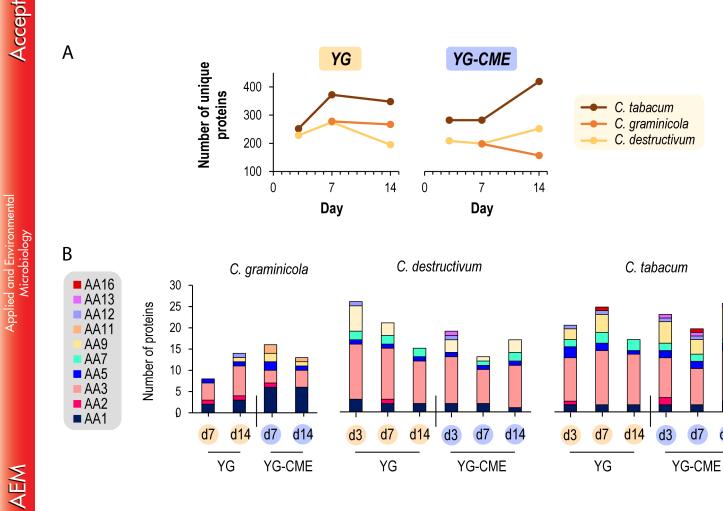
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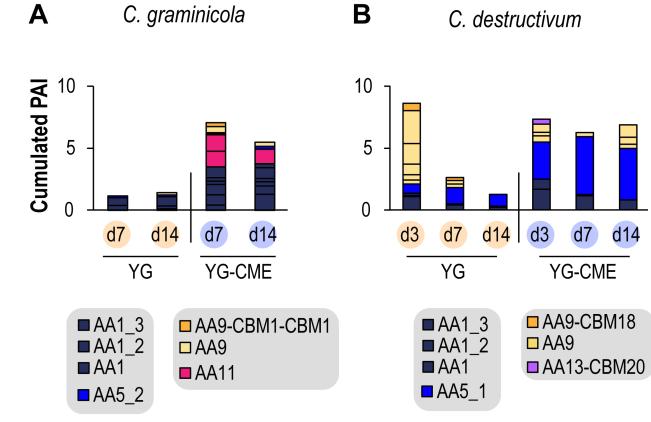
YG

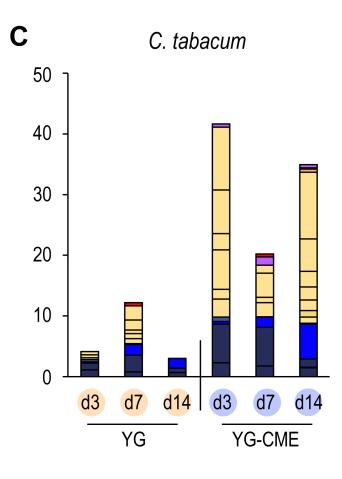
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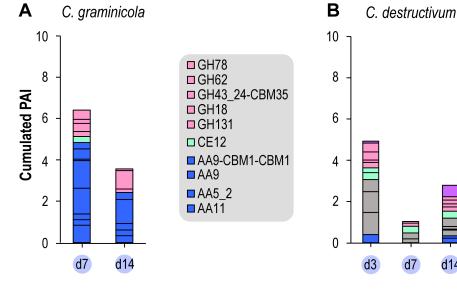
d14





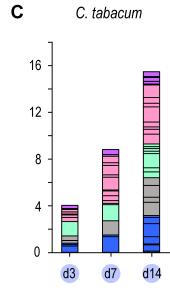
■ AA1_3	AA9-CBM18
■ AA1_2	AA9-CBM1
■AA1	AA9
AA5_2	□ AA13-CBM20
■ AA5_1	AA16





 PL4_5 PL1_10 GT31 GH55 GH36 GH3 GH28 GH27-CBM35 GH18-CBM18 GH18 GH16 GH10 	□ CE5 □ CE3 □ CBM50 (x5) □ CBM50-CBM50 □ CBM50 □ CBM18-GH18 □ CBM18-CE4 ■ AA7 ■ AA3_2 ■ AA13-CBM20

d14



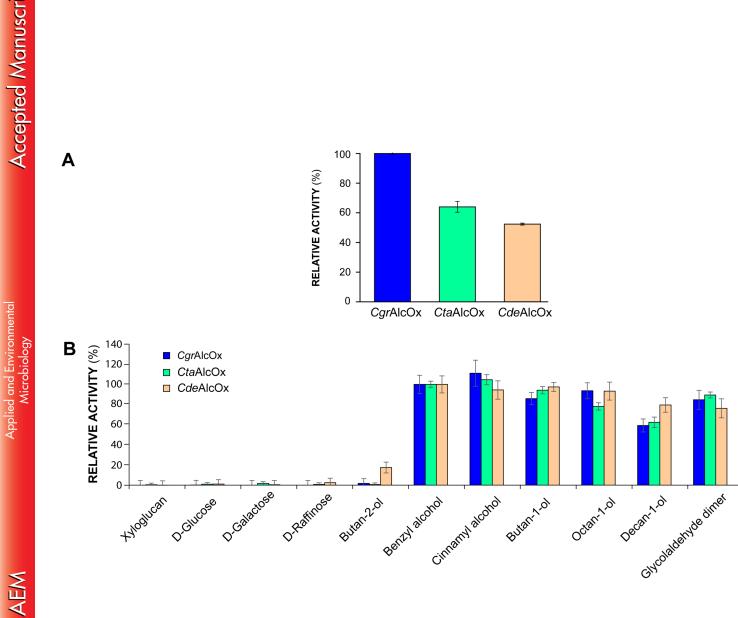
 PL9_3 PL4_5 PL4_1 PL1_4-CBM1 GH79 GH78 GH7 GH5_9 GH36 GH28 GH28 GH27-CBM35 GH27 GH17 	□ CBM50 (x5) □ CBM1-GH6 □ CBM1-GH5_7 □ CBM1-GH5_5 □ CBM18-CE4 □ CE8 □ CE12 □ CE1 □ AA9-CBM18 ■ AA9-CBM1 ■ AA9 ■ AA3_2 ■ AA3 ■ AA2
GH17 GH131	AA2
GH128	 AA13-CBM20 AA1_2
□ GH12 □ GH10-CBM1 □ GH16	

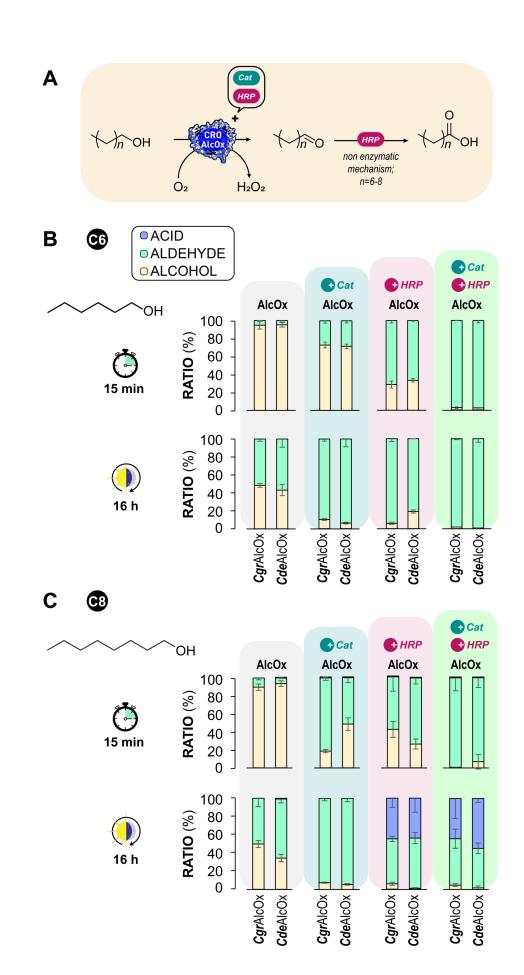
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0 2.9 5.7 PAI			YG	, ,	YG-CME		
	Enzyme	d3	d7	d14	d3	d7	d14
	AA5_1	nd	-	-	nd	-	-
C. graminicola	AA5_2-AlcOx	nd	0.1	0.1	nd	0.1	0.2
	AA5_2-AAO	nd	-	-	nd	0.1	-
	AA5_1	0.7	1.3	1.0	3.0	4.7	4.2
C. destructivum	AA5_2-AlcOx	-	-	-	-	-	-
	AA5_2-AAO	-	-	-	-	-	-
	AA5_1	0.1	1.8	1.6	0.5	1.7	5.7
C. tabacum	AA5_2-AlcOx	0.1	0.1	-	-	-	_
	AA5_2-AAO	0.4	-	-	0.7	0.1	0.1

"nd": not determined "-": PAI=0

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