

# 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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- Identification of copper-containing oxidoreductases in the secretomes of three
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- biocatalytic production of fatty aldehydes 3
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# ABSTRACT

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Copper Radical Alcohol Oxidases (CRO-AlcOx), which have been recently discovered among fungal phytopathogens are attractive for the production of fragrant fatty aldehydes. With the initial objective to investigate the secretion of CRO-AlcOx by natural fungal strains, we undertook time-course analyses of the secretomes of three Colletotrichum species (C. graminicola, C. tabacum and C. destructivum) using proteomics. The addition of a coppermanganese-ethanol mixture in absence of any plant-biomass mimicking compounds to Colletotrichum cultures unexpectedly induced the secretion of up to 400 proteins, 29-52% of which were carbohydrate-active enzymes (CAZymes), including a wide diversity of coppercontaining oxidoreductases from the auxiliary activities (AA) class (AA1, AA3, AA5, AA7, AA9, AA11-AA13, AA16). Under these specific conditions, while a CRO-glyoxal oxidase from the AA5\_1 subfamily was among the most abundantly secreted proteins, the targeted AA5\_2 CRO-AlcOx were secreted at lower levels, suggesting heterologous expression as a more promising strategy for CRO-AlcOx production and utilization. C. tabacum and C. destructivum CRO-AlcOx were thus expressed in *Pichia pastoris* and their preference toward both aromatic and aliphatic primary alcohols was assessed. The CRO-AlcOx from C. destructivum was further investigated in applied settings, revealing a full conversion of C6 and C8 alcohols into their corresponding fragrant aldehydes.

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**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

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

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

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### INTRODUCTION

The development of a new technological paradigm to support the shift from a fossilbased economy to a greener and more circular economy is at the heart of today's bioeconomic 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 discovery, control and engineering of a variety of enzymes and microorganisms (3). The fungal kingdom represents a vast and untapped reservoir of biocatalysts (4) but to date, the enzymatic potential of filamentous fungi has mostly been studied in the frame of plant cell wall degradation (5-7). Fungal secretomics is a powerful approach to study the wide diversity of enzymes secreted and to formulate enzymatic cocktails with biotechnological relevance (8-10). Using

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

Most of the copper-dependent enzymes are classified within the Auxiliary Activities (AA) class (14) in the CAZy database (www.cazy.org) (15). The founding member of copper radical oxidases (CROs), a galactose oxidase (FgrGalOx – EC 1.1.3.9), was discovered in 1959 from the secretome of Fusarium graminearum (16, 17). In 2013, fungal CROs have been classified within the AA5 family and further classified into subfamilies AA5 1 and AA5 2. AA5 1 contains glyoxal oxidases (GLOX - EC 1.2.3.15) that catalyze the oxidation of aldehydes to carboxylic acids, and AA5\_2 gathers enzymes that oxidize the alcohol function of diverse substrates (e.g., galactose, galactose-containing polysaccharides, aromatic and aliphatic primary alcohols) to generate the corresponding aldehydes. More recently, the AA5\_2 subfamily was shown to be more diverse than expected, encompassing notably various alcohol oxidases (CRO-AlcOx; EC 1.1.3.13) originating from the phytopathogen ascomycete fungi Colletotrichum and Magnaporthe spp. (18-20). CRO-AlcOx are monocopper, and otherwise organic co-factor free 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 indispensable intermediates in many chemical pathways (22, 23) and valuable ingredients for the flavor and fragrance industries (24, 25). In particular, saturated long-chain aldehydes (fatty aldehydes) are widely used for their citrus scent (26, 27), but are currently derived from fossilbased 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).

To date, only pure recombinant forms of CRO-AlcOx have been harnessed in biocatalytic applications (18, 19, 21, 33) and no information on their secretion by natural fungal strains is available. Determining whether CRO-AlcOx encoding fungal strains can secrete these enzymes under laboratory conditions is of strong interest for enzyme selection and technological applications. Noteworthy, aside from the scope of pathogenesis (34-36), very few studies investigated the enzymatic biotechnological potential of Colletotrichum spp. (37–40). The use of natural fungal strains could be advantageous to identify and then use potential naturally secreted enzyme partners. In particular, catalase and peroxidase are both required to sustain in vitro the activity of isolated CRO-AlcOx and other AA5 (21, 33, 41, 42). Catalase acts as a H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> scavenger while peroxidase is required for CRO-AlcOx activation (20, 33).

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

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### RESULTS

# Selection of fungal strains and time-course secretomic study

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To investigate the secretion of copper-containing enzymes including AA5\_2 CRO-AlcOx by natural fungal strains and their potential use for bioconversion of fatty alcohols to fragrant aldehydes, we selected three fungal phytopathogens from the Colletotrichum genus for which genomic information is available. The first obvious choice was C. graminicola because the three AA5 2 it encodes have all been previously biochemically characterized (18, 43, 44), one of them being the first, most studied, and to date, most active CRO-AlcOx, namely CgrAlcOx (18, 21, 33). By performing a BLAST analysis of the CgrAlcOx sequence against the genomes of some other Colletotrichum species we had access to, we identified two genes encoding AA5\_2 in both C. tabacum and C. destructivum. For each strain, one gene encoded a putative AlcOx and the other one a putative aryl alcohol oxidase (AAO – based on the recent discovery of an AAO in the AA5 2 family (44)) (Figure S1). These enzymes will thereafter be named CtaAlcOx/CdeAlcOx and CtaAAO/CdeAAO for C. tabacum and C. destructivum, respectively. Based on the few studies reporting the detection in some Ascomycota fungal secretomes of a range of coppercontaining enzymes from the AA class including the FgrGalOx and other AA5 (45-47), we identified copper, manganese and ethanol as possible inducers of AA5. Copper is known to be crucial to activate the FgrGalOx and was used previously in combination with manganese to recover active FgrGalOx from fungal cultures (47). Ethanol is often used as an inducer of laccases (12) (other copper-containing AAs), and we noticed the presence of CROs in some secretomes induced with ethanol (45). We therefore elaborated two liquid growth media: (i) "YG" (for "Yeast-extract, Glucose"), and (ii) 'YG-CME" (for "YG-Copper, Ethanol, Manganese"), with the same composition as YG but supplemented with CuSO<sub>4</sub>, manganese and ethanol. A time-course analysis was performed on each strain in both media at three time points (day 3, day 7 and day 14) and proteomic analyses were performed on the 16 secretomes

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generated (note that no samples were harvested at day 3 for C. graminicola in both YG and YG-CME due to insufficient growth).

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

By performing proteomic analyses of the secretomes using LC-MS/MS and mass matching, we detected a high number of secreted proteins (between 150 and over 400 different proteins, depending on the culture conditions; Supplementary Data Set; Figure 2A) encompassing a large diversity of enzymes. CAZymes accounted for ca. 29-52% of the total protein abundance in each secretome (Figure S3), with a notable high diversity of enzyme from the AA class (Figure 2B). Among them, a variety of laccases (AA1), peroxidases (AA2), flavooxidases (AA3) including cellobiose dehydrogenases (AA3\_1-AA8), CROs (AA5), oligosaccharide oxidases (AA7), lytic polysaccharide monooxygenases (LPMOs; AA9, AA11, AA13, AA16) and pyrrologuinoline quinone-dependent oxidoreductase (AA12) were detected. To determine whether this high number and diversity of proteins detected was the results of cell lysis (7, 48), we evaluated the proportion of proteins predicted as not secreted – i.e., without signal peptide - and checked more specifically the abundance of some known intracellular proteins (i.e., DNA-polymerase, proteasome endopeptidase complex, citrate synthase, malate dehydrogenase, transketolase and ubiquitin-protein ligase) (Figure S4). Despite the significant number of proteins predicted without signal peptide, we did not observe any clear trend that would account for an accumulation of intracellular proteins in the secretomes over time. Notably, some proteins without signal peptide are known to be secreted through unconventional secretion pathways in fungi (48, 49).

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

We then looked at the effect of supplementation with CME. At first glance, no clear effect was distinguishable on CAZymes diversity (Figures 2 & S3) but when we focused on copper-containing enzymes (Figure 3), a clear trend became apparent. Indeed, copper-containing enzymes were generally more abundant in the CME medium with a diversity of oxidases from the AA class including AA1 laccases, AA5\_1 GLOX and AA9, AA11, AA13 and AA16 LPMOs. Furthermore, AA1\_3, AA5\_1 and AA9 were among the top-five most abundant enzymes in YG-CME for the C. tabacum and C. destructivum secretomes, while no AA enzymes were identified in the top-five ranking for the corresponding YG secretomes (Table S1). Remarkably, the presence of some AA9-CBM18 was detected in both the C. tabacum and C. destructivum secretomes (Figure 3). This association of a chitin-binding domain from the CBM18 family (mainly found associated to chitin-active enzymes) to an AA9 domain is intriguing since AA9 LPMOs have not yet been described to act on chitin substrates. Strikingly AA9 LPMOs were particularly abundant at day 3 in YG medium for C. destructivum while drastically decreasing at day 7 and 14 (Figure 3) as already observed in the secretomes of the basidiomycete fungus Laetisaria arvalis (50). Interestingly, C. tabacum AA9 LPMOs were also 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

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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).

### Presence of AA5 in the secretomes

We next focused our analysis on AA5 CROs. Interestingly, a putative GLOX from the AA5\_1 subfamily was detected in C. destructivum secretomes (Figure 5), being the most abundant protein in the YG-CME secretome at day 7 (and the second most abundant at day 14; Table S1). The C. tabacum AA5\_1 putative GLOX was also the third most abundant protein in the YG-CME secretome at day 14 (Table S1). We could also detect the occurrence of putative AlcOx and AAO from the AA5 2 subfamily in both C. graminicola and C. tabacum secretomes (Figure 5). However, their relative abundance was quite low (between 0.05-0.13% of the total Protein Abundance Index (PAI)) and they did not accumulate over time. No correlation with the presence of CME in the medium was seen except for the C. graminicola AAO. CROs are known to be activated by peroxidases (41, 51, 52). More specifically, the peroxidase partner responsible for the activation of CRO-AlcOx has been recently unveiled in fungal pathogens (20). Both genes occur as a tandem in the genomes of the Colletotrichum and Magnaporthe species harboring an AlcOx, and are co-expressed in vivo prior to the plant-penetration stage (20). While some peroxidases from the AA2 family (see Figure 2) were found in some of the secretomes, the specific peroxidase partner of the AlcOx was not detected reinforcing the authors claims that 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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implementation of such secretomes for the bioconversion of fatty alcohols is not a viable strategy. This was confirmed by preliminary conversion assays we carried out using the secretomes directly on a range of primary alcohols (data not shown). These tests were inconclusive, most likely due to the low level of AA5 2 secreted and were difficult to interpret given the complexity of the secretome samples (hundreds of enzymes, including various oxidases such as AA3 enzymes - Figure 2B). These results prompted us to produce the Colletotrichum CRO-AlcOx enzymes recombinantly in Pichia pastoris and to test their ability to convert alcohols of interest for the flavor and fragrance industries. The objective was to find CRO-AlcOx with potential interesting traits not predictable by sequence analysis such as (i) activity on unactivated fatty alcohols, (ii) minimized requirement in accessory enzymes or (iii) reduced overoxidative activity.

## Recombinant production and substrate specificity of CdeAlcOx and CtaAlcOx

Detailed examination of the CdeAlcOx and CtaAlcOx sequences showed that the two AlcOx amino acid sequences share 90% identity with the CgrAlcOx and likewise comprise a single catalytic module, as with all other characterized CRO-AlcOx from Colletotrichum spp. (Figure S1). The two AAO share 85% identity with the recently characterized CgrAAO (44) and possess a N-terminal PAN\_1 domain, in addition to the catalytic module, similarly to the PAN\_1 domain observed in the CgrAAO (Figure S1). The function of the PAN\_1 domain in AA5\_2-AAOs is unclear but such modules are known to mediate protein-protein or protein-carbohydrate 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) compared to CdeAlcOx (75 mg.L<sup>-1</sup>) and CgrAlcOx (35 mg.L<sup>-1</sup>). Activity screening using the ABTS/HRP assay, with benzyl alcohol (BnOH - often use as benchmark with CRO-AlcOx (18,

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

### Biocatalytic production of odorant aldehydes using CdeAlcOx

CdeAlcOx was subsequently probed for the conversion of hexan-1-ol and octan-1-ol (two precursors of fragrant aldehydes) using CgrAlcOx as a benchmark. For these experiments, we tested the impact of the reaction time (15 minutes versus 16 hours conversion) and the addition of accessory enzymes (HRP and catalase) according to the parameters determined in a previous study (21). Conversion results showed that CdeAlcOx behave similarly to CgrAlcOx with all the tested substrates (Figure 7). As previously observed with CgrAlcOx (21, 33), CdeAlcOx alone was unable to promote full alcohol conversion. However, when both HRP and catalase were added to the reaction mixture, full conversion was readily achieved in 15 minutes. Strikingly, the 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<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. 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).

We also observed previously (21) that in the case of benzaldehyde derivatives (i.e. 4-NO<sub>2</sub>-benzyl alcohol) some overoxidation was detected but mediated by the CgrAlcOx itself (Scheme S1) and dependent according to the propension of the aldehyde product to undergo hydration. To probe whether CdeAlcOx behave in the same way as CgrAlcOx with 4-NO<sub>2</sub>benzyl alcohol, we included this substrate in the panel of compounds assayed (Figure S8). The conversion of 4-NO<sub>2</sub>-benzyl alcohol indeed led to the corresponding acid after 16 hours of reaction even when HRP is omitted from the reaction (Figure S8). Altogether, these results confirm that the behavior observed for the CgrAlcOx regarding accessory enzymes and overoxidation (21) applies to other CRO-AlcOx enzymes.

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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

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

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

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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).

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

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

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

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# MATERIAL AND METHODS

### **General information**

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All chemicals used for cultivation of fungi and microorganisms were reagent grade or higher. All chemicals used for biochemical assays were > 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).

## Data availability

The protein sequences of the CdeAlcOx and CtaAlcOx were deposited in GenBank under the accession numbers MZ269520 and MZ269521 respectively.

### Natural and recombinant strains

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

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

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#### Fungal cultures and secretomes harvesting

Fungal strains were grown and let sporulated on Potato Dextrose Agar medium (PDA) plates in closed Petri dishes, at 23°C for seven days under natural solar light, without controlling the humidity and were stored at 4°C before utilization. Inocula were prepared by aseptically homogenizing the content of a 90 mm petri dish cultures of Colletotrichum (containing fungal biomass (both mycelia and spores) and PDA medium) using an Ultra Turrax T25 homogenizer (IKA, Germany) for 1 min at 9,500 rpm in 80 mL of the culture medium (see below). 200 µL of this homogenate was used to inoculate 100 mL of liquid medium placed in 500 mL baffled flask.

Liquid cultures were grown in two different media, namely: "YG" and "YG-CME". YG medium was composed of glucose (10 g.L<sup>-1</sup>), ammonium tartrate (2 g.L<sup>-1</sup>), yeast extract (1 g.L<sup>-1</sup>), K<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub> (1 g.L<sup>-1</sup>), MgSO<sub>4</sub> •7H<sub>2</sub>O (0.5 g.L<sup>-1</sup>), KCl (0.5 g.L<sup>-1</sup>) and 0.5 mL.L<sup>-1</sup> of trace elements stock solution composed of (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>6</sub>Mo<sub>7</sub>O<sub>24</sub>•4H<sub>2</sub>O (20 mg.mL<sup>-1</sup>), FeSO<sub>4</sub>•7H<sub>2</sub>O (100 mg.mL<sup>-1</sup>),  $ZnSO_4 \cdot 7H_2O$  (140 mg.mL<sup>-1</sup>),  $B_4O_7Na_2 \cdot 10H_2O$  (200 mg.mL<sup>-1</sup>). Glucose was autoclaved separately as a 10X stock solution. The trace elements stock solution was sterilized by filtration through a 0.22 µm polyether sulfone membrane (Merck-Millipore, Germany). Note that insoluble elements present in this solution were removed by the filtration step. YG-CME medium was prepared exactly as YG but was further supplemented with CuSO<sub>4</sub>•5H<sub>2</sub>O (500 μM), MnCl<sub>2</sub> (500 μM) and 9 g.L<sup>-1</sup> ethanol, filtered sterilized (except for ethanol).

The inoculated cultures were placed in an Innova 42R incubator (New Brunswick, USA) 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 14 after inoculation. All samples were prepared in triplicates which were pooled upon harvesting. Each harvested secretome was submitted to several filtration steps: (i) Miracloth (22-25 µm pore size) (Merck-Millipore), (ii) several glass microfiber filters used sequentially: 47 mm Whatman® grade GF/D, A and F (GE Healthcare, USA), (iii) 0.45 and 0.22-um polyether sulfone membranes (Merck -Millipore) and finally diafiltered onto a polyether sulfone membrane with a 10kDa cut-off (Vivaspin, Sartorius, Göttingen, Germany) with 50 mM sodium phosphate buffer pH 7.0 to a final volume of 1-7 mL. The secretomes were stored at 4°C until use. Their total protein concentration was evaluated by the Bradford method (Protein Assay, BioRad, France) using a bovine serum albumin (BSA) standard protein.

# Microfluidic capillary gel electrophoresis

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

LC-MS/MS protein identification

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

Heterologous expression and purification

Recombinant P. pastoris X33 strains were streaked on yeast extract peptone dextrose (YPD) agar plates containing Zeocin (100 μg.mL<sup>-1</sup>) and incubated 3 days at 30°C. Five mL of YPD broth, in 50-mL sterile conical tubes, were inoculated with a P. pastoris transformant and

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

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# Spectrophotometric enzyme activity assays

AlcOx initial rates were determined by monitoring H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> released during AlcOx oxidation of various substrates, using the coupled ABTS/HRP assay. Routine assays were performed in 96wells 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<sup>-1</sup> HRP powder (as provided by the supplier), 3 mM substrate (unless indicated otherwise) and 1 nM AlcOx in sodium phosphate buffer (50 mM, pH 8.0), at 23°C. Reactions were initiated by the addition of substrate to a premix containing all other reagents. Evolution of the absorbance at 414 nm (ABTS cation radical) was measured over time with a Tecan Infinite M200 (Tecan, Switzerland) plate reader. Oxidation of 1 mole of substrate by AlcOx consumes 1 equivalent of O2 and generates 1 equivalent of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> which is in turn used by HRP as co-substrate to oxidize 2 equivalents of ABTS. Insoluble substrates were prepared in acetone so that the final acetone concentration in the enzyme assay did not exceed 1% (v/v). Standard curve of know concentrations of  $H_2O_2$  (1 to 40 μM) were made and used to quantify H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> production. One unit of AlcOx activity was defined as the amount of enzyme necessary to produce 1 µmole of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> per minute.

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 µL. Routine assay contained 3 mM substrate (prediluted in acetone), 1 µM AlcOx, various amounts of catalase (0-8 µM) and/or HRP (0-12  $\mu$ M), in sodium phosphate buffer (50 mM, pH 8.0). Final reaction contained 1% ( $\nu/\nu$ ) 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

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

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

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

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### **COMPETING INTEREST**

505 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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FIGURE LEGENDS

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- Figure 1. Analysis by capillary electrophoresis of the Colletotrichum secretomes samples. Concentrated secretomes samples were diluted so that the equivalent of 87.5 µL (prior to 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.
- 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.
- 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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(independent experiments, n = 3).

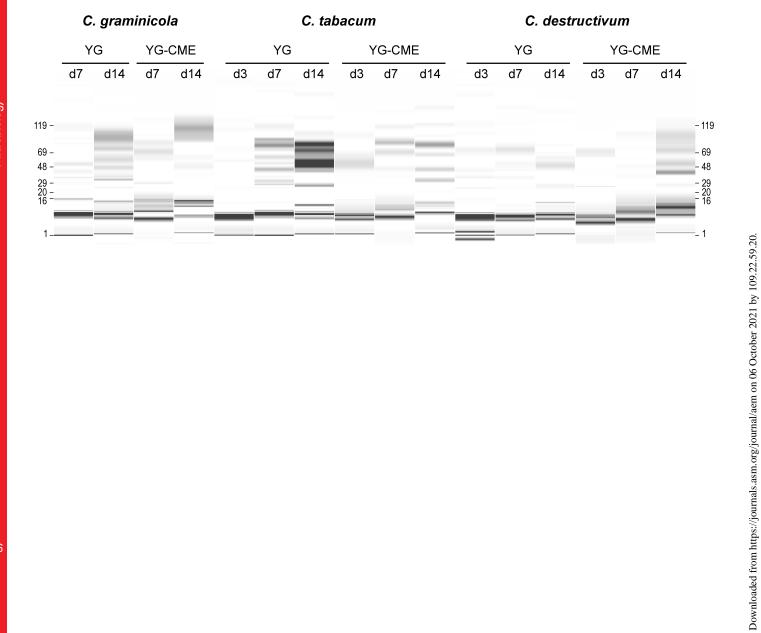
BnOH. (B) Relative activity profiling of the recombinant AlcOx enzymes on a set of substrates, determined by ABTS/HRP coupled assay, with activity on BnOH set as reference (activity on BnOH set as 100%). Substrate concentrations were as follows: 1% (w/v) xyloglucan, 50 mM for D-glucose, D-galactose, 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, n = 3). Figure 7: CgrAlcOx and CdeAlcOx mediated oxidation of some fatty alcohols. (A) Reaction scheme proposed (based on (21)) (B) conversion of hexan-1-ol (C) Conversion of octan-1-ol. Reactions were incubated for either 15 minutes or 16 hours. All reaction mixtures contained: 3 mM substrate and 1 μM AlcOx, in phosphate sodium buffer (50 mM, pH 8.0) and 23°C. Reactions

varied as follows: no accessory enzyme added, addition of catalase (8 µM final), addition of HRP

(12 µM final), addition of both catalase (0.5 µM) and HRP (12 µM final). Legend in panel A

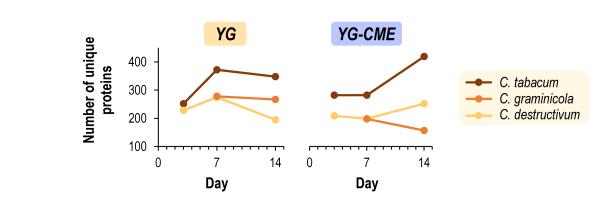
applies for panel B likewise. Conversion products were analyzed by GC-FID. Error bars show s.d.

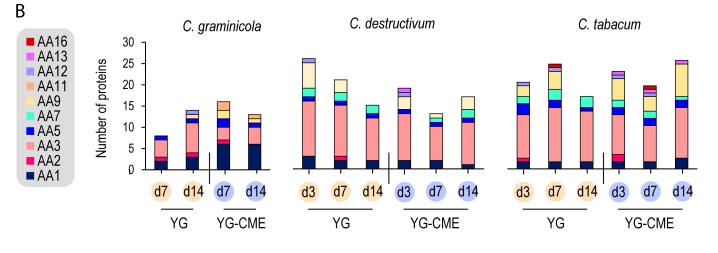
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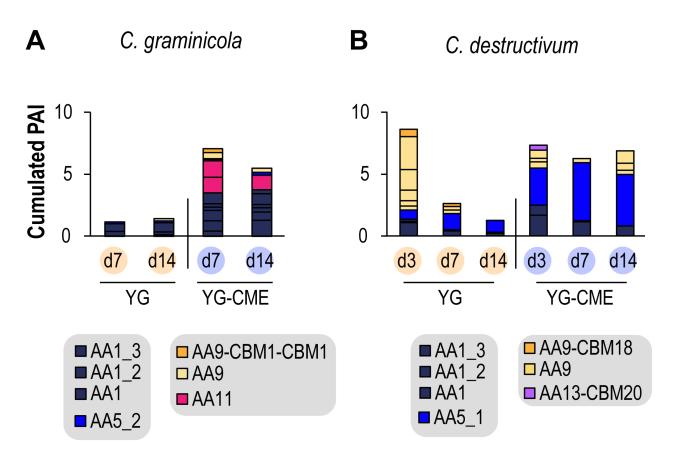
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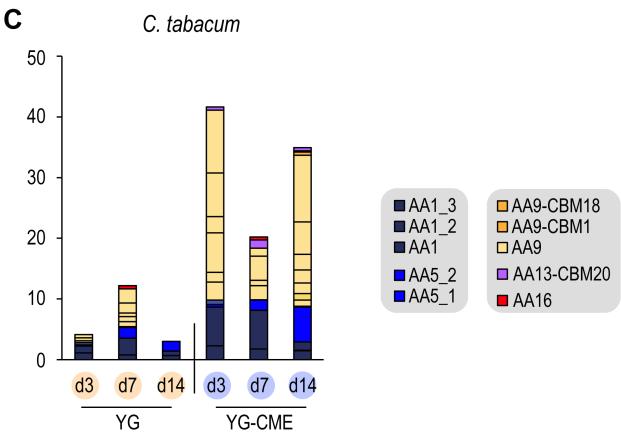




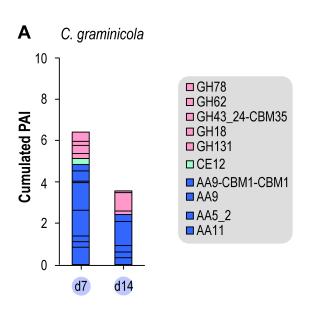


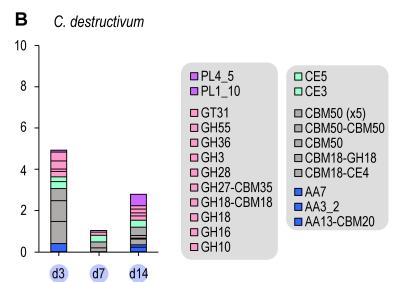


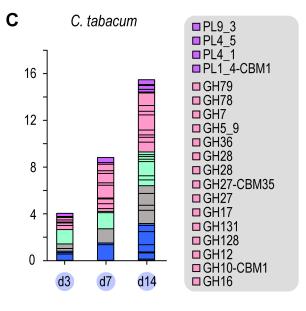


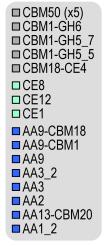












	Enzyme	d3	d7	d14	d3	d7	d14
	AA5_1	nd	-	-	nd	-	_
C. graminicola	AA5_2-AlcOx	nd	0.1	0.1	nd	0.1	0.2
	AA5_2-AAO	nd	-	-	nd	0.1	-
	<b>AA5_1</b>	0.7	1.3	1.0	3.0	4.7	4.2
C. destructivum	AA5_2-AlcOx	-	-	-	-	-	-
	AA5_2-AAO	-	-	-	-	-	-
	<b>AA5_1</b>	0.1	1.8	1.6	0.5	1.7	5.7
C. tabacum	AA5_2-AlcOx	0.1	0.1	-	-	-	-
	AA5_2-AAO	0.4	-	-	0.7	0.1	0.1
(nd", not determined							

d3

YG

d7

d14

2.9 **PAI** 

0

5.7

"-": PAI=0

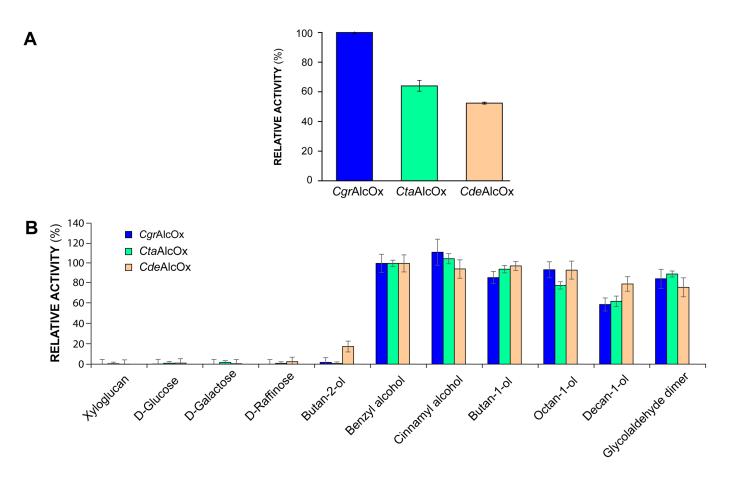
YG-CME

d7

d3

d14

<sup>&</sup>quot;nd": not determined



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