

1 The molecular response of the white-rot fungus *Dichomitus squalens* to wood and non-woody  
2 biomass as examined by transcriptome and exoproteome analyses

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21 Running title: Molecular response of *D. squalens* to biomass

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27 **Significance statement**

28 White-rot fungi are commonly found on wood in nature where they have a significant role in wood  
29 decomposition. Considering earlier studies in which it was shown that the genomes of ascomycete  
30 fungi with highly defined habitats (e.g. the dung fungus *Podospora anserina* and the plant pathogen  
31 *Botrytis cinerea*) are well tailored to the carbon sources in these habitats, we aimed to evaluate if a  
32 similar correlation could be observed for the wood decaying white-rot basidiomycete fungus  
33 *Dichomitus squalens*. For this we evaluated the molecular response of *D. squalens* during growth  
34 on two (natural) wood substrates and two non-woody substrates. To our knowledge this is the first  
35 time when two natural and two non-natural substrates are compared in detail for a basidiomycete  
36 fungus. Surprisingly, *D. squalens* was able to express a well-tailored set of genes in both the wood  
37 and non-woody substrates, suggesting that the fungus apparently has preserved its ability to respond  
38 adequately to a variety of plant biomass, even to those it would not be expected to encounter in  
39 nature. It is therefore possible that the restriction of white-rot fungi to wood environments is due to  
40 being outcompeted in other environments, rather than a choice to live in wood. These finding  
41 therefore have a major impact on our understanding of the limitations of fungal habitats.

42

## 43 **Summary**

44 The ability to obtain carbon and energy is a major requirement to exist in any environment. For  
45 several ascomycete fungi (post-)genomic analyses have shown that species that occupy a large  
46 variety of habitats possess a diverse enzymatic machinery, while species with a specific habitat  
47 have a more focused enzyme repertoire that is well-adapted to the prevailing substrate. White-rot  
48 basidiomycete fungi also live in a specific habitat, as they are found exclusively in wood. In this  
49 study, we evaluated how well the enzymatic machinery of the white-rot fungus *Dichomitus*  
50 *squalens* is tailored to degrade its natural wood substrate. The transcriptome and exoproteome of *D.*  
51 *squalens* were analysed after cultivation on two natural substrates, aspen and spruce wood, and two  
52 non-woody substrates, wheat bran and cotton seed hulls. *D. squalens* produced ligninolytic enzymes  
53 mainly at the early time point of the wood cultures, indicating the need to degrade lignin to get  
54 access to wood polysaccharides. Surprisingly, the response of the fungus to the non-woody  
55 polysaccharides was nearly as good a match to the substrate composition as observed for the wood  
56 polysaccharides. This indicates that *D. squalens* has preserved its ability to efficiently degrade plant  
57 biomass types not present in its natural habitat.

58

## 59 **Introduction**

60 The natural habitats of fungi are highly diverse and strongly dependent on the biological traits of  
61 the individual species. One of these traits is the ability to obtain carbon from plant biomass, which  
62 is a complex substrate, consisting of cellulose, various hemicelluloses, pectin and the aromatic  
63 polymer lignin (Sjöström, 1993; Harris and Stone, 2008; Vogel, 2008). Depending on the plant  
64 species and tissue, the relative amounts and structure of these polymers can differ markedly. For  
65 example, wood contains higher amounts of lignin than non-woody plant biomass (Sjöström, 1993).  
66 In softwood, guaiacyl units of lignin dominate and low amounts of *p*-hydroxyphenyl units are  
67 present, whereas hardwood lignin consists mainly of guaiacyl and syringyl units and traces of *p*-

68 hydroxyphenyl units can also be detected. In non-woody plants, all the three phenylpropanoid lignin  
69 units are present in comparable amounts (Billa and Monties, 1995; Vanholme *et al.*, 2010). Also,  
70 the hemicellulose fraction differs significantly between plant biomasses (Ebringerová, 2006; Vogel,  
71 2008). Softwood contains mainly acetylated galactoglucomannan with predominatly single  
72 galactose side-chains and smaller amounts of acetylated 4-*O*-methylglucuronoxylan (Capek *et al.*,  
73 2000; Capek *et al.*, 2002). In contrast, the latter is the dominant hemicellulose in hardwood, which  
74 only contains small amounts of acetylated glucomannan without galactose side-chains (Teleman *et*  
75 *al.*, 2000; Jacobs *et al.*, 2002; Teleman *et al.*, 2003). Furthermore, structurally different lignins are  
76 connected to xylan and glucomannan via different linkages (Lawoko *et al.*, 2005; Du *et al.*, 2014;).  
77 Cotton xylan (dicot) is similar to wood xylan, it contains both glucuronic acid and 4-*O*-  
78 methylglucuronic acid as side chains (Matsuo *et al.*, 1991; Akpinar *et al.*, 2007). In contrast, cereals  
79 (monocots) contain mainly arabinoxylans with a low amount of (4-*O*-methyl-)glucuronic acid  
80 (Rumpagaporn *et al.*, 2015), but do not contain (galacto-)glucomannan. These variations indicate  
81 that while all plant cell walls are complex structures consisting of multiple components, the  
82 degradation of each type of plant biomass requires a different set of enzyme activities with different  
83 substrate specificities. For instance, the level of side-chains on the xylan polymers will affect the  
84 functionality of xylanases that require different numbers of unsubstituted residues (Kormelink *et*  
85 *al.*, 1993).

86

87 In ascomycete fungi, clear correlations between the plant-biomass-degrading abilities of different  
88 species and their natural habitats have been reported. For example, *Aspergillus niger* is commonly  
89 found in many habitats around the world and is able to degrade all plant biomass polysaccharides,  
90 which correlates well with genes encoding a broad range of plant-biomass-degrading enzymes in its  
91 genome (Pel *et al.*, 2007; Benoit *et al.*, 2015). In contrast, *Podospora anserina*, exclusively a late  
92 colonizer of herbivore dung, efficiently degrades cellulose and xylan, but is mostly unable to

93 degrade pectin (Espagne *et al.*, 2008). This indicates that specialization of *P. anserina* to its habitat  
94 resulted in an adaptation of its enzymatic machinery to the chemical composition of the prevalent  
95 substrate. Similarly, the genome content of *Pyricularia oryzae*, a major pathogen of rice and other  
96 grasses, corresponds well with the cell wall composition of monocots, and displays a reduced  
97 ability to degrade polysaccharides not commonly present in these plants (Battaglia *et al.*, 2011). In  
98 addition, the dicot pathogen *Botrytis cinerea* is particularly specialized to the degradation of the  
99 main components of dicots, i.e. pectin and xyloglucan (Amselem *et al.*, 2011).

100

101 White-rot basidiomycete fungi also have a highly specific habitat, as they are usually exclusively  
102 found on wood, a substrate rich in lignin. They are the only organisms that can degrade and  
103 mineralize all components of wood and therefore play an important role in the carbon cycle in  
104 woody environments. The ability of white-rot fungi to degrade wood is in part due to the production  
105 of lignin-modifying peroxidases, which are unique to this group of fungi (Martinez *et al.*, 2004,  
106 2009; Hatakka and Hammel, 2011; Floudas *et al.*, 2012). We hypothesize that the evolutionary  
107 adaptation of white-rot fungi to wood implies that they have modified their complete enzymatic  
108 machinery to match closely with the macromolecular composition of wood.

109

110 The white-rot fungus *Dichomitus squalens* is commonly found in the northern regions of Europe,  
111 Asia and North America (Andrews and Gill, 1943). Its genome possesses genes predicted to encode  
112 diverse plant cell wall-modifying enzymes, and it has been shown to produce an extensive set of  
113 lignocellulose-degrading enzymes (Floudas *et al.*, 2012; Rytioja *et al.*, 2014a, 2015; Table 1). In  
114 this study, we aimed to evaluate whether specialization of *D. squalens* to wood also resulted in a  
115 better molecular response in terms of a set of genes that fits better to the composition of wood  
116 substrates than to other plant biomass.

117

118 According to this hypothesis, the set of enzymes the fungus produces during growth on wood would  
119 better correspond to the composition of wood than the enzymes produced on other types of plant  
120 biomass. To test this hypothesis, we cultivated *D. squalens* on two wood and two non-woody plant  
121 biomasses and evaluated the response of the fungus at the transcriptome and exoproteome level.  
122 The analysis focused on genes and enzymes involved in plant biomass degradation as this is the  
123 crucial step in obtaining carbon from plant cell wall. Most of these enzymes have been catalogued  
124 in the Carbohydrate Enzyme Database (CAZy, <http://www.cazy.org/>, (Lombard *et al.*, 2014)),  
125 allowing rapid identification and function assignment. We analysed this at two levels: the number  
126 of genes expressed or proteins produced of a specific enzyme class, and the changes in gene  
127 expression and protein production per individual gene/protein. These two datasets were separately  
128 analysed to generate patterns across the samples.

129

## 130 **Results**

### 131 *Selection of the substrates*

132 In this study, we aimed to analyse the molecular response of *D. squalens* to its natural carbon  
133 source (wood) and compare it to other plant biomass types that not only have a much lower lignin  
134 content and different lignin structure, but also differ in the structure of the hemicelluloses in their  
135 cell walls. To select appropriate substrates and time points, an initial experiment was performed in  
136 which the fungus was grown on seven plant-derived biomass substrates (microcrystalline cellulose,  
137 spruce, wheat bran, cotton seed hulls, apple pectin, beech xylan and guar gum) and two control  
138 carbon sources (glucose and cellobiose) for 21 days. The pure polysaccharides were included to  
139 determine if any of them would be responsible for production of a significant number of the  
140 dominant proteins in the profile of the complex substrates. The cultures were analysed by SDS-  
141 PAGE at two to three day intervals. Extracellular proteins were observed in all culture liquids after  
142 nine days of cultivation and therefore this time point was chosen as an early phase of substrate

143 degradation (Fig. S1). After 16 days of cultivation the protein profile was visibly different from day  
144 nine profile in most substrates, and therefore this time point was selected as a later phase of  
145 substrate degradation. *D. squalens* produced the most complex set of extracellular proteins in the  
146 cultures supplemented with spruce sawdust, and powdered wheat bran and cotton seed hulls. These  
147 lignocellulosic substrates from softwood, and monocot and dicot plants were therefore selected as  
148 carbon sources for cultivation for RNA-seq and exoproteome analyses. As a representative of  
149 hardwood, aspen sawdust was also included to complete the plant biomass substrate repertoire.  
150 Substrate compositions are presented in Supplementary Table S2.

151

### 152 ***Transcriptomic and proteomic response of D. squalens to different plant biomasses***

153 In total, 297 different putative CAZyme-encoding genes showed expression levels above our cut-off  
154 (>20 RPKM) in the *D. squalens* cultures (Fig. 1A, Table S3). Of these, 135 were related to plant  
155 cell wall degradation. In addition, 12 genes distantly related to plant expansins and two genes  
156 encoding feruloyl esterases were expressed and added to the analysis. *D. squalens* expressed ten  
157 ligninolytic genes at the early phase and six at the later time point in spruce-containing medium  
158 (Fig. 2A), while in aspen cultures the number of ligninolytic genes was similar (9-10) at both  
159 phases. In contrast, in non-woody substrates only three to four ligninolytic genes were expressed.  
160 Extracellular H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> is essential for ligninolytic peroxidase activity and therefore needed for efficient  
161 lignin degradation. The number of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-production related genes was also higher in wood (20-21)  
162 than in non-woody substrates (14-15) during the cultivation. Overall, significant changes in  
163 expression were observed for a large proportion of the genes across all the samples (Supplementary  
164 Table S4).

165

166 The number of expressed cellulolytic genes increased from eight to 27 and seven to 17 in spruce  
167 and aspen, respectively, in the course of the cultivation. In wheat bran the number of expressed

168 cellulolytic genes decreased slightly (from 18 to 13), while this stayed the same (17-18) in cotton  
169 seed hulls. In both softwood and hardwood, the number of expressed xylanolytic genes increased  
170 from four up to 24 during the cultivation, but slightly decreased in wheat bran and cotton seed hulls  
171 (from 17 to 14 and from 21 to 19, respectively). The number of expressed mannanolytic genes (6-8)  
172 was more similar among all the substrates and time points than that of the xylanolytic genes.  
173 Pectinolytic genes increased in wood from the early to the later phase (from 4 to 18), whereas  
174 roughly the same number of genes were expressed at both time points for non-woody substrates (11  
175 in wheat bran and 17-18 in cotton seed hulls). Most of the expansin-like genes (8-12 out of 13) were  
176 expressed in all the studied cultivation conditions.

177 When the CAZyme and expansin-like protein encoding genes expressed on all the substrates at the  
178 two time points were analysed, the time point representing early degradation of spruce and aspen  
179 clustered together, while the later time point of spruce and aspen clustered with the non-woody  
180 substrates, with aspen being more similar to the non-woody substrates than spruce (Fig. 3). The  
181 larger distance for the late spruce samples could be due to some clusters (G, K and R) of CAZyme-  
182 encoding genes that had higher expression levels in this sample compared to all other samples.

183

184 In the *D. squalens* cultures, 175 different CAZymes were secreted (>0.02% of total exoproteome),  
185 of which 120 were related to plant cell wall degradation (Fig. 1B, Table S5). The number of  
186 extracellular enzymes was lower at the early degradation phase in spruce compared to other  
187 substrates (Fig. 2B). The number of different ligninolytic enzymes increases from the early to later  
188 degradation phase in spruce (from 5 to 11) and aspen (from 10 to 15). In contrast, their number  
189 decreased in wheat bran (from 11 to 7) and remained similar in cotton seed hulls (5-6). Similarly,  
190 the number of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-production related enzymes increased in wood but stayed at the same level in  
191 non-woody substrates.

192



193 The number of cellulolytic enzymes found in the extracellular media increased in spruce (from 10  
194 to 23), but was similar (between 19 to 24) in the other substrates at both time points. Similar  
195 patterns were detected for xylanolytic, mannanolytic and pectinolytic enzymes (Fig. 2B).

196

197 Transcriptome and exoproteome data correlated well with respect to the CAZyme-encoding  
198 transcripts and enzymes (Fig. 4, Fig. S2, Table 1). However, despite the high expression level of  
199 several expansin-like genes, only two expansin-like proteins were present in the *D. squalens*  
200 exoproteome from aspen cultures and one in wheat bran. In contrast, some other enzymes were  
201 detected that lacked expression above our cut-off (>20 RPKM) of their corresponding genes (e.g.  
202 three GH27  $\alpha$ -galactosidases (AGLs) and four AA5\_1 copper radical oxidases (CROs)).

203

#### 204 ***Molecular response to wood***

205 In accordance with the high lignin content of spruce and aspen (25-33% and 20-25%, respectively;  
206 (Sjöström, 1993)), AA2 lignin-modifying peroxidases and AA1\_1 laccases were expressed on these  
207 substrates. Overall, the majority (68%) of the ligninolytic genes showed the highest expression at  
208 the early time point of the wood cultures (Fig. 4A, Figs. S3A, S4A). Genes encoding extra-long  
209 manganese peroxidases (MnPs) and the corresponding enzymes were expressed and produced more  
210 abundantly than short MnPs or versatile peroxidases (VPs) in both wood substrates. However,  
211 several short MnP and VP isoenzymes were present in the exoproteomes for which the  
212 corresponding genes were not detected in the transcriptomes, especially in aspen cultures. Three  
213 laccase-encoding genes were highly expressed in aspen and two in spruce. Laccases were also the  
214 most abundant proteins, representing up to 31% and 26% of all the detected proteins at day 16 in  
215 spruce and aspen, respectively.

216

217 H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-supply related gene expression was similar in both wood substrates. The genes encoding  
218 AA3\_3 alcohol/methanol oxidases (AOX/MOX) oxidoreductases and AA5\_1 CROs were among  
219 the highest expressed genes in both softwood and hardwood (Fig. S2AB, Fig. S5). Several CROs  
220 were produced in wood, while only one AOX/MOX was secreted in aspen. AA3\_2 glucose-  
221 methanol-choline (GMC) oxidoreductase-encoding genes showed low or moderate expression and  
222 most of them (58%) displayed reduced expression at the later time point on both softwood and  
223 hardwood. Ten out of 24 putative GMC oxidoreductases were secreted at low level.

224

225 In contrast with ligninolytic genes, transcript levels encoding most cellulases were significantly  
226 higher at day 16 compared to day nine in spruce and aspen (Fig. S2B, Figs. S3B, S4B). However,  
227 GH7 cellobiohydrolase I enzymes (CBHs) were present at high level at both time points and were  
228 the second most abundant proteins detected in the wood cultures (6-10% in spruce and 8-16% in  
229 aspen). Endoglucanases and  $\beta$ -glucosidases represented a smaller proportion of the total proteins  
230 than CBHs. Expression of AA9 lytic polysaccharide monoxygenase (LPMO)-encoding genes was  
231 also higher at day 16 compared to day nine of growth. Eight and six out of 15 LPMO isoenzymes  
232 were produced at low level in spruce and aspen, respectively.

233

234 Expression of the majority of hemicellulolytic CAZyme-encoding genes was higher at day 16 than  
235 at day 9 in wood (Fig. 4B, C, Figs. S3C, D, S4C, D). The hemicelluloses in spruce consist of  
236 galactomannan and glucuronoxyln, with similar amounts of mannose and xylose residues  
237 (Supplementary Table S2). Aspen contains less mannan (5 mol%) but more xylan (29 mol%) than  
238 spruce (17 and 12 mol%, respectively). Despite these structural differences, no clear correlation of  
239 the *D. squalens* transcriptome or exoproteome was found to the composition of the softwood and  
240 hardwood substrates.

241

242 Pectin is a minor component of wood, and expression of most of pectinolytic genes was higher at  
243 day 16 than at day 9 in *D. squalens* wood cultures (Fig. 2C, Figs. S3F, S4F). Enzymes acting on the  
244 side-chains of pectin, such as GH43 endoarabinanase (ABN) and GH35  $\beta$ -galactosidase (LAC),  
245 were expressed at high level at day 16. LACs were also the most abundantly secreted pectinases.  
246  
247 Transcripts corresponding to 12 out of 13 expansin-like genes were detected in *D. squalens* wood  
248 cultures and of these six were highly expressed (Fig. S2E). In aspen, most of the expansin-like  
249 transcripts had higher values at the later time point, while in spruce their pattern was more variable  
250 including one gene with significantly lower expression at day 16. In contrast, only two expansin-  
251 like proteins were detected in the aspen exoproteome.

252

### 253 ***Molecular response to non-woody substrates***

254 The expression profiles of the genes related to plant cell wall decomposition during early and later  
255 degradation of wheat bran and cotton seed hulls were highly similar (Fig. 4). In accordance with the  
256 low lignin content of wheat bran and cotton seed hulls, the amount of expressed AA2 and AA1\_1  
257 ligninolytic genes in these cultures was lower than in the wood cultures (Fig. 4A, Figs. S6A, S7A).  
258 Short MnP-encoding genes were the most highly expressed ligninolytic genes, and low protein  
259 levels of extra-long MnPs, short MnPs and VPs were detected in the non-woody cultures. No  
260 expression above our cut-off (>20 RPKM) of laccase-encoding genes was detected on wheat bran,  
261 and only low or moderate amounts of up to four laccase isoenzymes were produced in both non-  
262 woody substrates. *D. squalens* expressed and produced most of the AA3\_2 GMC oxidoreductase  
263 genes and corresponding enzymes at low level in the non-woody substrates (Fig. S2A, Fig. S5).  
264 Interestingly, transcript and exoproteome patterns of other putative H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-producing enzymes were  
265 similar in wood and non-woody substrates.

266

267 Similar to the wood cultures, a complete set of cellulase-encoding genes was expressed and the  
268 corresponding enzymes produced during the growth of *D. squalens* in non-woody substrates (Fig.  
269 S2B, Figs. S6B, S7B). However, in contrast to wood substrates, expression of most of the GH  
270 cellulase-encoding genes (64%) was higher at day 9 than at day 16 in wheat bran and half of them  
271 in cotton seed hulls. GH7 CBHIs were the most highly secreted proteins by *D. squalens* in non-  
272 woody substrates (up to 15% and 16% in wheat bran and cotton seed hulls, respectively). LPMO-  
273 encoding genes were either expressed at the same level in both time points or at lower levels at day  
274 16 in non-woody cultures. They were also the second most abundant secreted proteins (6%) at the  
275 early phase of degradation in wheat bran cultures. In cotton seed hulls, LPMOs were present in  
276 lower amounts.

277

278 Xylan is present in both wheat bran and cotton seed hulls and resulted in the expression of a  
279 complete set of xylanolytic genes (Fig. 4B, Figs. S6D, S7D). During the early degradation, the  
280 highest transcript level was detected for a GH10 endoxylanase (XLN), and it represented 2.8% and  
281 2.4% of total proteins in wheat bran and cotton seed hulls, respectively. Despite the low mannan  
282 content of wheat bran (1 mol%) and cotton seed hulls (3 mol%) (Table S2), several mannanolytic  
283 genes were expressed in non-woody substrates and one of the six AGL genes was highly expressed  
284 at both time points in cotton seed hulls (Fig. 4C, Figs. S6C, S7C). In addition, the amount of  
285 mannanolytic enzymes was relatively high (3-7%) in non-woody substrates.

286

287 Pectinolytic genes showed variable expression patterns in the non-woody cultures of *D. squalens*  
288 (Fig. S2C, Figs. S6F, S7F). In both substrates, the highest amount of transcripts was detected for a  
289 GH43 ABN at day 16. Furthermore, genes encoding GH28 endopolygalacturonase and CE8 pectin  
290 methyl esterase were highly expressed in cotton seed hull cultures. Despite the higher pectin content

291 of cotton seed hulls, the overall set of secreted pectinases was similar for both non-woody  
292 substrates.

293

294 High-level constant expression was observed for up to five out of the ten detected expansin-like  
295 genes in the non-woody cultures, but only one expansin-like protein was detected in the  
296 exoproteome in wheat bran (Fig. S2E).

297

## 298 **Discussion**

299 In this study, we aimed to evaluate whether *D. squalens*, as a reference basidiomycete white-rot  
300 species, has an enzymatic machinery that is ideally suited for the degradation of the substrate it is  
301 commonly found on in nature, i.e. wood. This phenomenon has been demonstrated in ascomycetes  
302 in that species with a broad habitat range (e.g. *Aspergillus*) harbour a large variety of polymer-  
303 degrading enzymes encoded in their genome (Benoit *et al.*, 2015). In contrast, fungi with narrower  
304 habitats possess a less extensive set of different enzymes, although they often have a higher number  
305 of isoenzymes that target the prevalent substrates in their natural environment (Espagne *et al.*, 2008;  
306 Battaglia *et al.*, 2011). Even though basidiomycete white-rot fungi also have a highly defined  
307 habitat, the topic of molecular response to their natural substrate and correlation of their enzyme  
308 sets with wood composition has not been addressed in detail before. Considerable focus has been  
309 placed on their unique lignin-modifying enzymatic machinery including peroxidases, but less  
310 attention has been given to their arsenal of (hemi-)cellulose-acting enzymes (Rytioja *et al.*, 2014b).  
311 Genomic studies revealed that the white-rot genomes contain fewer genes for enzymes targeting  
312 polymers less commonly present in wood biomass (Floudas *et al.*, 2012; Rytioja *et al.*, 2014b), e.g.  
313 the enzyme set related to xylan degradation. Wood xylan contains significantly less arabinose than  
314 monocot xylan and white-rot fungi typically lack many of the arabinose-releasing enzymes found in  
315 ascomycetes, such as family GH54 and GH62 enzymes (Ebringerová, 2006; Floudas *et al.*, 2012).

316 Interestingly, the genome of the coprophilic basidiomycete *Coprinopsis cinerea* contains three  
317 GH62 enzyme-encoding genes, which correlates well with its habitat that also includes meadows  
318 (Stajich *et al.*, 2010). Wood xylans can be abundantly acetylated and contain significant amounts of  
319 (4-*O*-methyl-)glucuronic acid (Ebringerová, 2006). This likely explains why white-rot genomes  
320 typically contain more GH10 than GH11 XLNs, as the latter group is more inhibited by such  
321 substitutions (Paës *et al.*, 2012). This is again different for *C. cinerea* as its genome contains six  
322 GH11 XLNs (Stajich *et al.*, 2010), which are more suitable for monocot xylans. In addition, white-  
323 rot fungi also contain less pectin- and starch-degrading enzymes, targeting polysaccharides that are  
324 minor components of wood (Timell, 1967).

325

326 *D. squalens* is a typical white-rot basidiomycete and its genome contains all the features mentioned  
327 above (Floudas *et al.*, 2012). To evaluate in more detail how this fungus is able to respond to its  
328 natural and non-natural substrates, we analysed its transcriptome and exoproteome during growth  
329 on two wood and two non-woody substrates, focusing on the genes and enzymes required to  
330 degrade the polymeric carbon sources present in these substrates. Overall, the transcriptome and  
331 exoproteome results were consistent, although differences were detected for expansins, AGLs and  
332 CROs. We also did not detect several starch-related enzymes in some of the proteomics samples,  
333 even though their corresponding genes were expressed. Interestingly, the same phenomenon has been  
334 observed in a previous study for the *A. niger* glucoamylase-encoding gene (*glaA*), where expression  
335 was high on several substrates, but protein and enzyme activity was only observed on a subset of  
336 them (R.P. de Vries *et al.*, unpublished). This can be due to various reasons, such as translation and  
337 secretion, the rate of the transcription and translation, stability of mRNA and protein, and  
338 biochemical characters of the protein (Vogel and Marcotte, 2012; Patyshakuliyeva *et al.*, 2015). It is  
339 also possible that the expansin-like proteins are bound to either the fungal cell wall or to the  
340 biomass (Quiroz-Castañeda *et al.*, 2011; Veneault-Fourrey *et al.*, 2014; Tovar-Herrera *et al.*, 2015).

341

342 Interestingly, only a very small set of genes was highly expressed in the early time point (Fig. 3,  
343 clusters A, B, C, E and F), putatively encoding one AOX/MOX, seven expansin-like proteins, one  
344 LPMO, three laccases, two CROs, one MnP and one  $\beta$ -1,4-galactosidase (LAC). Several of these  
345 enzymes are involved in the degradation of lignin (laccases, MnP, AOX/MOX, CROs), which  
346 would fit well with the rapid degradation of lignin reported for *D. squalens* grown on spruce wood  
347 lignin (Fackler *et al.*, 2006). Several *D. squalens* strains have been reported to selectively remove  
348 the lignin-rich middle lamella from wood cell walls (Blanchette, 1984), but in long term cultivation  
349 other white-rot species have been shown to be more selective in terms of lignin degradation (Hakala  
350 *et al.*, 2004). While the role of the expansin-like proteins has not been functionally described,  
351 expansins in plants mediate cell wall loosening during growth (Marowa *et al.*, 2016), so it could be  
352 speculated that these proteins from fungi have a similar role during plant wall degradation. The role  
353 of LPMO could be in initial cleavage of either cellulose or hemicellulose, to open these structures  
354 for the hydrolytic enzymes. The role of LAC is more difficult to speculate upon, as this enzyme  
355 mainly removes D-galactose side-chains from xylan, pectin, galactomannan and xyloglucan and it  
356 is surprising to see this gene highly expressed already at the early time point, whereas no other  
357 genes involved in degradation of these polymers were detectable.

358

359 In general, the repertoire of the expressed CAZyme encoding genes and secreted CAZymes by *D.*  
360 *squalens* was comparable in softwood and hardwood corresponding to typical white-rot degradation  
361 of lignocellulose reported e.g. from the white-rot fungus *Pycnoporus coccineus* (Riley *et al.*, 2014;  
362 Couturier *et al.*, 2015) and *Phlebia radiata* (Kuuskeri *et al.*, 2016). Abundant expression and  
363 production of ligninolytic genes and enzymes on both wood substrates, especially in the early phase  
364 of degradation, fits well with the white-rot decay mechanism in which lignin depolymerisation  
365 precedes cellulose degradation. The same has been observed for instance with production of

366 laccases during the initial response to wood by the white-rot fungus *P. coccineus* (Couturier *et al.*,  
367 2015) and production of ligninolytic enzymes in compost by the litter-decomposing fungus  
368 *Agaricus bisporus* (Patyshakuliyeva *et al.*, 2015). Ligninolytic enzymes have also been  
369 overproduced in poplar and wheat bran cultures of *P. ostreatus* (Fernández-Fueyo *et al.*, 2016). The  
370 barrier that lignin forms to impede the utilization of cellulose at the onset of wood degradation was  
371 also evident from the results of our study as expression of polysaccharide-hydrolysing CAZyme-  
372 and LPMO-encoding genes increased in time in wood. As reported previously (Rytioja *et al.*,  
373 2014a), *D. squalens* expressed all three genes encoding CBHI isoenzymes and the gene encoding  
374 CBHII in all the studied conditions. LPMO expression clustered with different sets of CAZymes  
375 and expansin-like proteins, which is in line with their multifunctional nature in the degradation of  
376 various lignocellulose polymers (Westereng *et al.*, 2015).

377 The change in expression profile of some genes between the two time points in all substrates likely  
378 reflects the ability of the fungus to respond to the changes in substrate composition as the  
379 degradation proceeds and provides insight into which components are being degraded. This would  
380 imply that the later time point is mainly a reflection on the changes to the substrate due to partial  
381 conversion by *D. squalens*. However, this does not mean that there is no effect of the natural  
382 substrate composition on the gene expression at 16 days. These substrates not only contain different  
383 polymers, but also the exact structure and composition of shared polymers (e.g. xylan) is different  
384 between them (Matsuo *et al.*, 1991; Teleman *et al.*, 2000; Jacobs *et al.*, 2002; Ebringerová *et al.*,  
385 2006). Therefore, even after partial degradation, the resulting carbohydrates will still reflect, at least  
386 in part, the original difference in the fine-structure of the plant cell walls.

387

388 A low number of produced extracellular proteins was observed during the early phase of  
389 degradation in the *D. squalens* spruce cultures. While it cannot be excluded that the differences



390 between the substrates are in part due to differences in growth, we did not see significant  
391 differences in growth between the substrates on plates (data not shown).

392 The softwood lignin consisting of guaiacyl subunits has also been suggested to be more resistant to  
393 enzymatic degradation than the guaiacyl-syringyl lignin in hardwoods (Ramos *et al.*, 1992;  
394 Sjöström, 1993; Mooney *et al.*, 1998). However, this did not change the overall pattern of the  
395 response of *D. squalens* to wood. Highest production level of extra-long MnPs of *D. squalens* was  
396 detected in spruce. Extra-long MnPs have been reported to be extraordinary stable proteins due to  
397 the polar tail structure (Li *et al.*, 1999, 2001) which may be beneficial in the degradation of  
398 softwood lignin.

399

400 A lower number of ligninolytic genes and enzymes was detected during growth of *D. squalens* on  
401 the non-woody than on the wood substrates. This indicates that the expression of ligninolytic genes  
402 is specifically induced by the presence of lignin and not part of a general response to the presence  
403 of plant biomass. However, genes encoding H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-producing enzymes from AA3\_3 and AA5\_1  
404 were expressed at similar level in all substrates, thus suggesting that in addition to supporting  
405 peroxidase catalysis these enzymes may also have other functions in plant biomass decay such as to  
406 act in the electron transfer system together with LPMOs attacking lignocellulose (Kracher *et al.*  
407 2016). Interestingly, the absence of lignin also resulted in an earlier expression of (hemi-  
408 )cellulolytic genes on the non-woody substrates, suggesting that the presence of lignin prevents  
409 their induction. This would imply a mechanism in which *D. squalens* initially devotes most of its  
410 energy to (partially) degrading lignin to ensure good access to the polysaccharides, before  
411 producing high amounts of the polysaccharide-degrading enzymes. The energy required for this  
412 initial stage of wood colonization is probably generated by the release of sugars from hemicellulose  
413 by the small number of enzymes that is produced and target these polymers (Hori *et al.*, 2014). The  
414 decreased expression of ligninolytic genes at the later time point shows that the need for lignin

415 degradation reduces once sufficient access is obtained, which is in line with earlier observations  
416 (MacDonald and Master, 2012).

417

418 The hemicellulose and pectin fractions of the four substrates differ remarkably in their composition  
419 as indicated in Supplementary Table S2. In summary, spruce contains mainly galactoglucomannan  
420 and to a lesser extent glucuronoxylans, while the opposite is the case for aspen. Cotton seed hulls  
421 contain significant amounts of pectin and xyloglucan, but also glucuronoxylan and  
422 galactoglucomannan, while wheat bran contains mainly arabinoxylan. The number of  
423 hemicellulolytic and pectinolytic genes expressed by *D. squalens* was in general uniform in both  
424 spruce and aspen. However, in line with the higher mannan content of softwood, three  
425 mannanolytic genes were highly expressed only in spruce. Similarly, endomannanases and AGL  
426 were highly expressed in pine cultures of the white-rot fungus *Phlebiopsis gigantea* (Hori *et al.*,  
427 2014). *D. squalens* displayed increased expression of xylanolytic genes in time in wood substrates.  
428 Although in the cluster analysis the transcriptomes obtained from the wood cultures were all clearly  
429 different from the transcriptomes obtained from the non-woody cultures, the later time point of  
430 aspen was more similar to the transcriptomes from the non-woody cultures than to the other  
431 transcriptomes from wood cultures. This is likely caused by the higher xylan content of aspen  
432 compared to spruce. Surprisingly, the transcriptome and proteome profiles of wheat bran and cotton  
433 seed hulls also corresponded well with the composition of these substrates, suggesting that *D.*  
434 *squalens* has preserved its ability to respond adequately to these plant biomasses, even though they  
435 are not part of its natural habitat. This indicates a much less specific match of the plant cell wall  
436 degrading enzyme repertoire of this white-rot basidiomycete to the prevalent polymers in its natural  
437 habitat than was previously observed for several ascomycete fungi, such as *P. anserina* and *M.*  
438 *oryzae* (Espagne *et al.*, 2008; Battaglia *et al.*, 2011).

439

440 Another interesting feature is the presence of genes that are only expressed on specific substrates,  
441 suggesting a highly fine-tuned regulatory system in *D. squalens*. A particularly high number of  
442 genes were specifically expressed at the later time point on spruce, including a GH7 CBHI, an AA9  
443 LPMO and a GH51 arabinofuranosidase. The genes specifically expressed on (one of the) non-  
444 woody substrates include an AA2 MnP, a CE12 rhamnogalacturonan acetyl esterase and a GH10  
445 XLN. While many transcriptional regulators of genes encoding plant-biomass-degrading enzymes  
446 have been described in ascomycetes (Kowalczyk *et al.*, 2014), most of these lack orthologs in  
447 basidiomycetes (Todd *et al.*, 2014). This suggests that basidiomycetes possess a separately evolved  
448 regulatory systems for plant biomass degradation, which based on the results presented in this study  
449 appears to be equally complex as the ascomycete system.

450

451 Our study indicates that *D. squalens* expressed and secreted a variable and efficient enzymatic  
452 repertoire for conversion of softwood, hardwood and non-woody plant-derived biomasses. These  
453 enzyme sets corresponded well with the composition of wood substrates, especially regarding  
454 lignin, but also with the non-woody substrates. *D. squalens* therefore has a much less obvious  
455 preference for the polymers available in its natural habitat than has been observed in ascomycetes  
456 and should in fact be able to also live in non-woody substrates, based on its ability to use different  
457 carbohydrates. Restriction of *D. squalens* to wood is therefore likely the result of other factors, such  
458 as competition with other fungi. Ability to degrade lignin provides *D. squalens* with a competitive  
459 edge in wood over other (not wood-rotting) fungi, which does not benefit its survival in non-woody  
460 habitats. The dominant role of lignin on the expression of genes encoding plant biomass active  
461 enzymes is very well consistent with the white-rot lifestyle of *D. squalens* and would suggest that  
462 this is its main mechanisms to tackle the variation in composition of different wood types.

463

464 **Experimental Procedures**

465 ***Fungal strains and cultures***

466 *Dichomitus squalens* FBCC312 was obtained from the Fungal Biotechnology Culture Collection  
467 (FBCC), Department of Food and Environmental Sciences, University of Helsinki, and maintained  
468 on 2% (w/v) malt extract agar (MEA) plates (Biokar, France). The fungus was cultivated for 4 days  
469 at 28°C in 75 ml liquid low-nitrogen-asparagine-succinate medium (LN-AS) (pH 4.5) (Hatakka and  
470 Uusi-Rauva, 1983) supplemented with 6.8 mM glycerol in 250 ml Erlenmeyer flasks inoculated with  
471 five mycelium-covered plugs (diameter 7 mm) from MEA plates. These cultures were homogenized  
472 with a Waring Blender (USA) and four millilitres of homogenized mycelial suspension (Mäkelä *et*  
473 *al.*, 2002) was used to inoculate 100 ml LN-AS medium containing 0.25% (w/v) Tween20 (Sigma  
474 Aldrich, Germany) and supplemented with 1 g of spruce wood (*Picea abies*) sawdust (1-2 mm in  
475 diameter), aspen wood (*Populus tremula*) sawdust (1-2 mm in diameter), powdered wheat bran  
476 (Windkorenmolen De Vlijt, Wageningen, The Netherlands) or powdered cotton seed hulls (a gift  
477 from Garold Gresham, Interfacial Chemistry Idaho National Laboratory, Idaho Falls, ID). The  
478 agitated (120 rpm) cultivations were performed as two biological replicate cultures in 250 ml baffled  
479 Erlenmeyer flasks and incubated for 9 and 16 days at 28°C. Materials and methods for pre-test  
480 cultures and substrate composition analysis are provided in Supplementary material.

481

482 ***Transcriptome analysis***

483 Total RNA was extracted from mycelia originated from two biological replicate cultures that were  
484 ground in liquid N<sub>2</sub> with the N-cetyl-N,N,N-trimethylammonium bromide (CTAB, Sigma,  
485 Germany) method (Chang *et al.*, 1993) and purified with RNeasy Plant Mini kit (Qiagen,  
486 Germany). RNA quantity and integrity were determined spectrophotometrically (NanoDrop ND-  
487 1000, NanoDrop Technologies Inc., USA) and with RNA6000 Nano Assay (Agilent 2100  
488 Bioanalyzer, Agilent Technologies, USA). Purification of mRNA, synthesis of cDNA library and  
489 sequencing reactions were conducted in the BGI Tech Solutions Co., Ltd. (Hong Kong, China) as

490 described previously (Patyshakuliyeva *et al.*, 2015). On average, 51 bp sequenced reads were  
491 constituted, producing approximately 500 MB raw yields for each sample.

492

493 RNA-seq data was analysed and statistically treated as described previously (Patyshakuliyeva *et al.*,  
494 2015). Raw reads were produced by base calling from the original image data. After that, data  
495 filtering was performed. Adaptor sequences, reads with unknown bases (N) >10% and low quality  
496 reads (more than 50% of the bases with quality values < 5%) were removed. Clean reads were  
497 mapped to the genome sequence of *D. squalens* LYAD-421 SS1 (v1.0 annotation, the Joint Genome  
498 Institute (JGI)) using SOAPALIGNER/SOAP2 (Li *et al.*, 2009) with two mismatches allowed in  
499 the alignment. In average, 80% of the clean reads mapped to the genome. RNA-seq results were  
500 quantified using RPKM method (Mortazavi, *et al.*, 2008). Genes with RPKM value from 20-100  
501 were considered as lowly, 100-300 as moderately and over 300 as highly expressed (approximately  
502 top 4% of the genes). Genes with RPKM value lower than 20 under all conditions were considered  
503 as not expressed and filtered out of the cluster analysis. Differential expression was identified by  
504 CyberT BayesianANOVA algorithm (Kayala and Baldi, 2012). A cut-off of fold change of >1.5  
505 and *P*-value (corrected by multiple test) of <0.05 were used to identify differentially expressed  
506 genes between the time points. The RT-qPCR results verified the RNA-seq data by showing similar  
507 trends of expression for the selected genes (Supplementary information, Table S1, Figs. S9, S10).

508 The RNA-seq data were deposited to the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI)  
509 Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) database (Edgar *et al.*, 2002) with accession number: GSE79674.

510

511 The clustering of the CAZyme-encoding genes based on the RNA-seq data was performed using  
512 Genesis (Sturn *et al.*, 2002) with the Euclidean distance and complete linkage, using the expression  
513 levels as the entry file.

514

515 ***Protein extraction and LC-MS/MS-based protein identification***

516 For exoproteome analysis, fungal culture liquid was filtered through Miracloth (Millipore, Billerica,  
517 MA) and centrifuged at 4°C for 15 min at 2500×g after which the supernatant was re-centrifuged for  
518 1 h at 10000×g (SL16R-centrifuge, Thermo-Scientific, Waltham, MA). Proteins in the supernatant  
519 were precipitated with 20% trichloroacetic acid, 20 mM dithiothreitol and 80% acetone solution for  
520 1 h on ice. Precipitated proteins were resuspended and reprecipitated with 20 mM DTT and 80%  
521 acetone solution overnight at -20°C. Ten micrograms of protein resuspended in 0.25% Anionic Acid  
522 Labile Surfactant I (AALS I, Progenta™, Protea Biosciences, Inc., USA) detergent prepared in 200  
523 mM ammonium bicarbonate buffer (pH 7.8) was loaded and separated on 12% SDS-PAGE gels for  
524 subsequent in-gel trypsin digestion as previously described (Mahajan *et al.*, 2016). Protein separation  
525 was stopped as soon as the 250 kDa marker could be seen entering the separating gel. The complete  
526 lane, delimited by the bromophenol blue front at the bottom and the start of the separating gel at the  
527 top (about 1.5 cm), was cut and processed for in-gel digestion as a whole.

528

529 In-gel digested peptide extracts from two biological replicate cultures were analysed on LTQ-  
530 Velos-Orbitrap mass spectrometer (Thermo-Scientific, San Jose, CA) and the acquired MS-MS data  
531 were searched against the *D. squalens* database from JGI containing 12290 protein sequences for  
532 peptide/protein identification as previously reported (Ozturkoglu Budak *et al.*, 2014). Total  
533 normalized ion profiles from the top three identified peptides for each protein as determined in  
534 Scaffold (Proteome Software, Portland, OR) was used to quantify relative levels of secreted  
535 proteins. The amount of protein was defined as percentages of total identified secreted proteins  
536 within individual samples.

537

538 For analysis, secreted proteins representing higher than 0.02% of the total exoproteome were  
539 considered as significantly produced and lower than that were removed. Proteins accumulated to

540 0.02-1% level of total exoproteome were considered low and 1-5% moderate while those  
541 accumulated >5% were deemed high.

542

### 543 **Conflict of Interest**

544 Authors confirm that there are no competing interests.

545

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554

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738 **Table and Figure Legends**

739 **Table 1.** List of abbreviations of selected *D. squalens* plant-biomass-degrading enzymes and  
740 corresponding CAZy families.

741 **Fig. 1.** Total number of CAZy (A) transcripts and (B) extracellular proteins detected from *D.*  
742 *squalens* cultivations on spruce wood, aspen wood, wheat bran and cotton seed hulls. CAZy  
743 transcripts and proteins related to plant cell wall degradation are divided by their corresponding  
744 substrates. PCWDE, plant cell wall-degrading enzymes; Xylan, heteroxylan; Man, heteromannan;  
745 Xg, xyloglucan S, starch; AA, auxiliary activities; GH, glycoside hydrolases; CE, carbohydrate  
746 esterases.

747 **Fig. 2.** Total amount of plant cell wall degradation-related (A) transcripts (RPKM>20) and (B)  
748 extracellular proteins (total>0.02%) from the plant biomass cultures of *D. squalens*. Spr, spruce  
749 wood; Asp, aspen wood, WB, wheat bran; CSH, cotton seed hulls.

750 **Fig. 3.** Cluster analysis of expression profiles of CAZyme- and expansin-like protein encoding  
751 genes in spruce wood (Spr), aspen wood (Asp), wheat bran (WB) and cotton seed hull (CSH)  
752 cultures. RPKM value  $\geq 300$  was considered as highly expressed and RPKM value  $< 20$  was not  
753 included in to the cluster analysis (black). Gene abbreviations are presented in Table 1. NA; CAZy  
754 classification not available.

755 **Fig. 4.** Transcripts and extracellular proteins divided by their predicted function towards (A) lignin,  
756 and (B) heteroxylan and xyloglucan, and (C) heteromannan from spruce wood (Spr, green circles),  
757 aspen wood (Asp, blue circles), wheat bran (WB, orange circles) and cotton seed hull (CSH, grey  
758 circles) cultures of *D. squalens* after nine and 16 days of cultivation. Transcripts and extracellular  
759 proteins, which putatively function in H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-supply and degradation of cellulose, pectin and starch,  
760 as well as expansin-like proteins are provided in Supplementary material. Difference in gene  
761 expression is significant (fold change>1.5,  $p < 0.05$ ) if the size of the circles corresponding to one



762 gene varies; otherwise significant upregulation is marked with + or no change with =. ID numbers  
763 for the gene and predicted protein model are according to the Protein ID numbers of JGI. LCC,  
764 laccase. Other enzyme abbreviations are presented in Table 1. Circles were drawn with iTol  
765 (Letunic and Bork, 2011).