

New insights into catalases in the pathogenesis of *Sporothrix schenckii* research (#77047)

1

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New insights into catalases in the pathogenesis of *Sporothrix schenckii* research

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Pathogenic fungal infection success depends on the ability to bypass the immune response. Most strategies for fungal infection control are focused on the inhibition of virulence factors and increasing the effectiveness of antifungal drugs. Nevertheless, little attention has been focused on their physiological resistance to the immune system. Hints may be found in pathogenic fungi that also inhabit the soil. In nature, the saprophyte lifestyle of fungi is also associated with predators that can induce oxidative stress upon cell damage. The natural sources of nutrients for fungi are linked to cellulose degradation, which in turn generates reactive oxygen species (ROS). Overall, the antioxidant arsenal needed to thrive both in free-living and pathogenic lifestyles in fungi is fundamental for success. In this review, recent findings regarding catalases and oxidative stress in fungi and how these can be in close relationship with pathogenesis are presented. Additionally, special focus is placed on catalases of *Sporothrix schenckii* as a pathogenic model with a dual lifestyle. It is assumed that catalase expression is activated upon exposure to H₂O₂, but there are reports where this is not always the case. Additionally, it may be relevant to consider the role of catalases in *S. schenckii* and why their study can assess their involvement in the virulence phenotype of different species of *Sporothrix* and when each of the three catalases are most needed. Additionally, studying antioxidant mechanisms in other isolates of pathogenic and free-living fungi may be linked to the virulence phenotype and be potential therapeutic and diagnostic targets. Thus, the rationale for this review to place focus on fungal catalases and their role in pathogenesis in addition to counteracting the effect of immune system reactive oxygen species. Compelling evidence indicates they are potential targets for treatment and diagnosis. Fungi that thrive in soil and have mammal hosts could shed light on the importance of these enzymes in the two types of lifestyles. We look forward to encouraging more research in a myriad of research areas on catalase biology with a focus on basic and applied objectives and to place these enzymes

as ~~potential~~ virulence determinants.

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11 **Keywords:** fungal catalase, virulence determinant, *Sporothrix schenckii*, reactive
12 oxygen species, innate immunity.

13 Abstract

14 Pathogenic fungal infection success depends on the ability to ~~bypass~~ the immune
15 response. Most strategies for fungal infection control are focused on the inhibition of
16 virulence factors and increasing the effectiveness of antifungal drugs. Nevertheless,
17 little attention has been focused on their physiological resistance to the immune system.
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20 stress upon cell damage. The natural sources of nutrients for fungi are linked to
21 cellulose degradation, which in turn generates reactive oxygen species (ROS). Overall,
22 the antioxidant arsenal needed to thrive both in free-living and pathogenic lifestyles in
23 fungi is fundamental for success. In this review, ~~recent findings regarding catalases and~~
24 oxidative stress in fungi and how these can be in close relationship with pathogenesis
25 ~~are presented~~. Additionally, special focus is placed on catalases of *Sporothrix schenckii*
26 as a pathogenic model with a dual lifestyle. It is assumed that catalase expression is
27 activated upon exposure to H₂O₂, but there are reports where this is not always the
28 case. Additionally, it may be relevant to consider the role of catalases in *S. schenckii*
29 and why their study can assess their involvement in the virulence phenotype of different
30 species of *Sporothrix* and when each of the three catalases are ~~most needed~~.
31 Additionally, studying antioxidant mechanisms in other isolates of pathogenic and free-
32 living fungi may be linked to the virulence phenotype and be potential therapeutic and
33 diagnostic targets. Thus, the rationale for this review to place focus on fungal catalases
34 and their role in pathogenesis in addition to counteracting the effect of immune system
35 reactive oxygen species. ~~Compelling evidence indicates they are potential targets for~~
36 ~~treatment and diagnosis~~. Fungi that thrive in soil and have mammal hosts could shed
37 light on the importance of these enzymes in the two types of lifestyles. We look forward
38 to encouraging more research ~~in a myriad of research areas~~ on catalase biology with a
39 focus on basic and applied objectives and to place these enzymes as ~~potential~~ virulence
40 determinants.

41

42

43 **1 Introduction**

44 When cells are exposed to oxidative stress, specifically H_2O_2 , it is assumed that
45 antioxidant enzymes are induced and perform their task to detoxify the cell milieu.
46 However, this is not always the case; sometimes, antioxidant enzymes are damaged by
47 the same molecules they should eliminate (Karakus, 2020; Nicholls, 2012).

48 Vertebrates use hydrogen peroxide as a biological weapon in combination with other
49 molecules to potentiate its effect. This is particularly efficient for damaging the
50 pathogen's DNA (Mahaseth and Kuzminov, 2017), resulting in a more complicated task
51 to survive the immune response.

52 Pathogens encode various antioxidant molecules, including catalases. Catalases (EC
53 1.11.1.6) are heme-containing enzymes that catalyze the dismutation of hydrogen
54 peroxide ($2H_2O_2$) into $2H_2O$ and oxygen (O_2). These molecules are widespread in
55 aerobic organisms and have been linked to survival during oxidative stress (Karakus,
56 2020; Nicholls, 2012). Catalases are homotetrameric proteins containing a heme group
57 buried deep in the protein. The access to the catalytic domain is through a 45 Å channel
58 where H_2O_2 residence is enhanced, rendering a selectivity for this substrate
59 (Dominguez et al., 2014) and having evolved to exclude water molecules. This allows a
60 high kinetic activity (which the K_m is in the range of 20 to 200 mM) (Dominguez et al.,
61 2010; Hansberg et al., 2012).

62 The sequence and structure of catalase domains are more divergent than previously
63 thought. This feature has rendered the classifications of these enzymes in three clades
64 (Dominguez et al., 2010; Horvath and Grishin, 2001). Clade I refers to catalases from
65 plants, green algae, and Clade III to archaea, bacteria, fungi, and animals (Dominguez
66 et al., 2010). These clades are proteins with subunits of 55 to 69 kDa. Clade II belongs
67 to bacteria, archaea, and fungi and is formed by larger subunits of 75 to 86 kDa; the
68 additional residues are located in the C-terminal domain and belong to type 1 glutamine
69 amidotransferase (Horvath and Grishin, 2001).

70 Catalases have complex reaction mechanisms for a simple dismutation reaction, which
71 has been a hot research topic. Although much information is available, it mostly focuses
72 on bacteria and some examples of fungal catalases. Nevertheless, catalases are still
73 being studied due to their diversity among prokaryotic and eukaryotic organisms. One
74 example is a catalase found with phenol oxidase activities and the interchange of
75 activities between catalase and phenol oxidase in *Scytalidium thermophilum* (Sutay
76 Kocabas et al., 2008). This has been observed to be relevant in polyphenol oxidation,
77 where H_2O_2 is released (Akagawa et al., 2003), thus affecting the free-living lifestyle of
78 bacteria and fungi. These enzymes have been demonstrated to have a bacterial origin
79 (Bacteroidetes) and have been found in another Ascomycota (Kamlárová et al., 2018).

80 In the case of some parasites that do have catalases, these enzymes have been
81 demonstrated to play a key role against host defense mechanisms and survival. In
82 some cases, only one catalase gene is present, but an important arsenal of other
83 Reactive Oxygen Species (ROS) detoxifying enzymes is needed for survival (Kwok et
84 al., 2004; Staerck et al., 2017), adding to our current understanding of the pathogenesis
85 of protists.

86 In the literature, there are experimental conditions where fungal catalases are induced
87 and needed for survival, with a focus on the signal transduction pathways that regulate
88 their expression (Aguirre et al., 2006). Nevertheless, in fungal pathogens, this is not fully
89 addressed because the best-studied Ascomycete catalases are encoded in the genome
90 of *Neurospora crassa*, which have a link in morphogenesis and cell differentiation as
91 well as for contending with environmental stressors (Aguirre et al., 2005; Fountain et al.,
92 2016). Additionally, extensive structural studies have been carried out on *N. crassa*
93 catalases, showing unique features for H₂O₂ binding and recognition in a water milieu
94 (Dominguez et al., 2010) and complex inhibitory mechanisms by singlet oxygen,
95 reducing its stability and resistance to degradation (Días et al., 2005). In the case of
96 bovines, catalase possesses resistance to singlet oxygen. In turn, this is not known in
97 pathogenic fungi and may become a potential target for treatment using other inhibitors
98 (Kim et al., 2001).

99 In *Candida albicans*, the high expression of these enzymes may result in reduced
100 fitness. High expression levels in clinical isolates result in a double-edged sword; on the
101 one hand, it protects cells from stress conditions, but on the other hand, in the absence
102 of stress, it reduces cell fitness that is alleviated by iron supplementation (Pradhan et
103 al., 2017). Additionally, low expression levels impair the colonization of certain tissues in
104 a mouse model (Pradhan et al., 2017).

105 ROS production in fungal organisms varies and asexual development is closely related
106 to ROS present in the environment. When catalases are absent, the asexual cycle of
107 the cell differentiation program is enhanced (Michán et al., 2003; Zamocky et al., 2009).
108 Catalase expression, for instance, is related to redox balance control in plant
109 pathogens, such as *Sclerotinia sclerotiorum*, where this enzyme is needed for cell
110 integrity, oxidative stress resistance, pathogenicity, and antifungal resistance (Huang et
111 al., 2021). What is truly striking in *S. sclerotiorum* is that the genome encodes seven
112 catalases. Nevertheless, only one contributes to oxidative stress resistance (Huang et
113 al., 2021). The role of the other catalases remains to be explored.

114 Determining the importance of catalases may impede the discovery of novel potential
115 uses in diagnosing and treating pathogenic fungi. One such example is the presence of
116 circulating antibodies in patients infected with *Histoplasma capsulatum* that recognize
117 catalases B and P, serving as potential targets for diagnosis kits (Almeida et al., 2020),
118 and these enzymes have been demonstrated to be required for virulence (Holbrook et
119 al., 2013; Johnson et al., 2002).

120 For all the above, this review addresses the following question: why have catalases
121 been neglected in pathogenic fungi research as both potential targets for treatment and


122 diagnosis? One important aspect that partially explains this is that these enzymes are
123 assumed to be highly conserved and functionally defined in all kingdoms of life.
124 However, oxidative stress has different outcomes in distinct organisms. Likewise, this
125 review proposes a closer look on *Sporothrix schenckii* as an example of an emerging
126 fungal pathogen with an evolutionary well-adapted saprophytic lifestyle.

127 **2 Methodology**

128 The literature was consulted through Pubmed and Google Scholar. Key words used
129 were 'Catalase', 'Pathogenic fungi', '*Sporothrix schenckii*', and the Boolean 'and' for the
130 combination of these keywords. Authors conducted independent review of the literature
131 to prevent any bias.

132 The sequence analysis was conducted using BLASTp (Altschul et al., 1990). Protein
133 structure prediction was conducted using AlphaFold2 (Jumper et al., 2021) with the
134 default options, using the API hosted at Söding lab based on MMseqs2 server (Mirdita
135 et al., 2019). Phylogenetic analysis was conducted with MEGA version 11.0.13 (Tamura
136 et al., 2021).

137 **3 The case of pathogenic fungi: *Sporothrix schenckii***

138 In the genome sequence of *S. schenckii*, three catalase coding genes were identified
139 based on homology to *Aspergillus* and *Neurospora* genes. In RedoxiBase
140 (<http://peroxibase.toulouse.inra.fr/>) (Savelli et al., 2019), only one catalase is annotated
141 for *S. schenckii* (as KatE, accession number XP_016592737.1 or SPSK1099_11725-RA
142 in the *S. schenckii* genome database). However, at least three were identified by
143 BLAST analysis and expressed in response to oxidative stress (Román-Casiano et al.,
144 2021). The work by Román-Casiano (2021) described the response of these three
145 catalases in the presence of H₂O₂ and the relative expression levels, showing that **Cat1**,
146 one of the small catalases, is highly expressed upon H₂O₂ exposure. The second
147 catalase that is highly expressed is the **large subunit catalase** (81.4 kDa)  when
148 analyzing several fungi in RedoxiBase, the repertoire found for antioxidant enzymes is
149 vast and varied in all species; this imposes a challenge when assessing their role,
150 specifically in cases where two contrasting lifestyles are found in the same organism. In
151 Ascomycota alone, catalases and catalase/oxidases are the fourth most abundant
152 antioxidant enzymes. The three front runners ahead of catalases are cytochrome C
153 peroxidase, fungi-bacteria glutathione peroxidase, and hybrid ascorbate-cytochrome C
154 peroxidase.

155 In the work by Román-Casiano and colleagues (2021), two isoforms (CAT1 and CAT 3,
156 accession numbers: ERS99939.1 and ERT00986.1, respectively) were shown to be
157 highly expressed upon exposure to oxidative stress. However, in a recent paper,
158 Saucedo-Campa and collaborators showed that this organism's landscape is more
159 complex than previously thought. Several moonlight proteins are induced by oxidative
160 stress by H₂O₂ (Saucedo-Campa et al., 2022), suggesting that the arsenal for H₂O₂
161 detoxification in this organism is complex and involves proteins previously thought to be
162 related to protein folding, lipid metabolism, or even metabolic enzymes that in the cell

163 wall may represent the first line of defense. Additionally, in the case of menadione-
164 induced oxidative stress, other moonlight proteins are present in the cell wall as
165 protection against oxidative stress (Félix-Contreras et al., 2020).

166 In the case of the catalases of *S. schenckii*, structural features can now be modeled
167 with accuracy. The sequence features of the three catalases encoded in the *S. schenckii*
168 genome suggest that these enzymes may play different roles depending on the
169 organism's morphological state as either free-living or as a pathogen. In Figure 1 Panel
170 A, BLAST analysis shows that the main homologs of *S. schenckii* catalases are
171 clustered (Figure 1 Panel B and C). The variation in catalytic residues poses the
172 question of whether the catalases of *S. schenckii* have different kinetic parameters and
173 may respond differently to oxidant agents and other molecules present in the media
174 (see below).

175 The other aspect to consider with catalases is the conservation of structural features. In
176 Figure 2, Panel A shows the previously high-resolution crystal structure reported for *N.*
177 *crassa* catalases, which have been studied in detail (Díaz et al., 2009). Future research
178 can be focused on structural comparisons with other fungal organisms and may
179 ultimately lead to the study of the kinetic and structural features of other fungal
180 catalases. As shown here, Cat1 and Cat2 of *S. schenckii* are small catalases, while
181 Cat3 is a member of the large catalases.

182 In the case of catalase 1, the relevant BLAST hits are with catalases from Ascomycetes
183 such as *Ophiostoma piceae*, *Diaporthe sp.*, *Valsa mali*, *Hypoxylon sp.*, among other
184 plant pathogens (Figure 1 Panel A). Here, the phylogenetic distribution is wider than
185 that observed for the other two catalases.

186 For catalase 2, the homology with BLAST hits is the lowest of the three catalases, and
187 the highest proteins showing homology are derived from *Fusarium*, *Trichoderma*,
188 *Aspergillus*, and *Penicillium* species. However, the homology found is lower than that
189 observed with the other two catalases.

190 Catalase 3, with homology to catalases from ascomycete fungi such as *Coniochaeta sp.*,
191 *Thozetella sp.*, *Podospora anserina*, and others with similar lifestyles, is strikingly similar
192 to Catalase 1 from *N. crassa*. The most distant hit is with the bioluminescent
193 basidiomycete *Mycena chlorophos*. Overall, this is consistent with the previous report of
194 Román-Cansiano on identifying these enzymes and renders a potential specific role of
195 each catalase while growing in a saprophytic stage or during the interaction with the
196 host (Román-Casiano et al., 2021).

197 One interesting feature of these catalases is that the catalytic residues are not
198 conserved, especially the catalytic triad Arg 87 (conserved), tryptophan 90 (not
199 conserved, replaced by valine), and histidine 91 (conserved) (Zámocký et al., 2009;
200 Díaz et al., 2009) (Figure 1 Panel C), which may have contrasting affinities for H₂O₂ or
201 inhibitory molecules (Karakus, 2020).

202 In *S. schenckii*, the expression patterns of the catalase genes in transcriptomic data
203 (Giosa et al., 2020) and <http://sporothrixgenomedatabase.unime.it/>) are as follows: the
204 highest expressing enzyme in the yeast form is Cat 3 (ERT00986.1) at 7.38 log₂FC. For
205 Cat1 (ERS99939.1), it is 5.44 log₂FC in the yeast form. Finally, Cat 2 (ERS95255.1)
206 was not found in the transcriptome analysis between morphologies, consistent with the
207 findings by Román-Casiano and colleagues (2021), where even in the presence of
208 H₂O₂, the expression is low. However, the zymogram analysis shown by Román-
209 Casiano (2021) suggests that the three catalases are expressed, and in high H₂O₂
210 concentrations, Cat3 loses activity completely, and a decrease in total catalase activity
211 is observed. This may impact the infection progression by limiting or blocking growth.

212 Overall, the catalase-encoding gene distribution is complex. Even with extensive
213 genomic data, these enzymes' congruent analysis and evolutionary aspects have been
214 carried out in fungi, especially in pathogenic fungi (Passardi et al., 2007). Biochemical
215 data on these enzymes are also missing, particularly regarding H₂O₂ affinity, catalytic
216 velocity, and inhibitors.


217 The structure of fungal catalases shows that the large and small subunit catalases
218 contain well-defined domains (Figure 2 Panel A). The heme is deeply buried in the
219 active site and is accessible via a 45 Å tunnel. Close inspection of the catalase models
220 from *S. schenckii* suggests that small subunit catalases are more structurally divergent
221 from *N. crassa* homologs. Overall, the conserved residues are in the vicinity of the
222 active site. Cat3 from *S. schenckii* shows a conserved structure compared to the well-
223 defined *N. crassa* large subunit catalase (Figure 2).

224 Further analysis of the cumulative genomic data may shed light on the sequence and
225 structural differences of catalases related to differences in catalysis and stability,
226 subcellular localization, and turnover. A surprising role for catalases was found by
227 Nava-Ramírez and Hansberg (2020), who demonstrated that the C-terminal domain of
228 the large-size subunit catalase from *N. crassa* possesses chaperone activity that is
229 absent in small subunit catalases. When this C-terminal domain is transferred to small
230 subunit catalases, it functions as a chaperone as well, rendering a more stable enzyme
231 not only for H₂O₂ but also for other stress conditions (Hansberg et al., 2022). The C-
232 terminal domain originates from the fusion of the bacterial small subunit catalase and
233 Hsp31 chaperone (Hansberg et al., 2022). The chaperone activity is closely related to
234 the effect of ROS and the misfolding of proteins, rendering catalases a secondary tool
235 for preventing cell damage. The structural features found in catalase 3 of *S. schenckii*
236 may also possess this activity (Figure 2 Panel B, catalase 3), which is also relevant
237 during exposure to innate immune cells.

238 The biochemical features of *S. schenckii* catalases and experimental determination of
239 their structure are lacking. Additionally, their role in infection has not been studied in
240 detail. The evidence suggests that these enzymes are relevant to oxidative stress, but
241 further research is needed.

242 4 Future research

243 The study of both the free-living and the pathogenic lifestyle of *S. schenckii* is relevant
244 to understanding dissemination and zoonosis. In the case of fungi that interact with
245 plant hosts, such as *Trichoderma atroviride*, its genome encodes two catalase-
246 peroxidases (<http://peroxibase.toulouse.inra.fr/>). In the case of *T. atroviride*, the role of
247 these catalases has not been addressed, but KatG2 (TatKatG2) sequence analysis
248 suggests that it is a secreted enzyme (Zámocký et al., 2009).

249 An important feature of oxidative stress and radical detoxifying enzymes is linked to cell
250 damage in *T. atroviride*. Hernández-Oñate and colleagues (2012) described that
251 NADPH oxidase-dependent ROS production is linked to development upon physical cell
252 injury. H₂O₂ and oxylipins are signaling molecules shared in all kingdoms of life that
253 respond to damage. Moreover, Catalase 2 is downregulated in transcriptomic data,
254 suggesting that H₂O₂ is a part of the signaling for injury repair and needs to accumulate
255 in the hyphae; this remains an open question in the case of pathogenic fungi and the
256 role of ROS in the differentiation process, cell damage and the regulation of cell death
257 mechanisms. 

258 Oxidative stress is linked to cellulose degradation and involves the generation of
259 hydroxyl radicals via the Fenton reaction from the H₂O₂ produced by the lytic
260 polysaccharide monooxygenases (LPMOs) secreted by fungi (Li et al., 2021; Castaño et
261 al., 2018). ROS that are produced in this process also have a deleterious effect on
262 antioxidant enzymes such as oxidases, glutathione S-transferases, and thioredoxins,
263 which may increase cell damage by reducing antioxidant enzymes (Castaño et al.,
264 2021), while glycoside hydrolases are adapted to such conditions. Taking the data from
265 Román-Cansiano (2021) and the observation that cellulose degradation requires and
266 exacerbates ROS production and antioxidant enzymes are sensitive to this
267 environmental insult, it is tempting to test catalase activities in *Sporothrix* and other
268 pathogenic fungi growing with cellulose as a carbon source and to test which catalase is
269 more active or is resistant to oxidative stress during the free-living lifestyle of these
270 organisms. For instance, it remains to be seen whether the expression of a β-
271 glucosidase with transglycosylation and cellulase activities are involved in the in vivo
272 cellulolytic complex of *S. schenckii* (Hernández-Guzmán et al., 2016).

273 The regulatory pathways for the antioxidant response are also diverse in fungi. The
274 antioxidant counteracting transcription factors are also involved in virulence traits in
275 plant pathogens (Singh et al., 2021), which is related to the role of ROS and cell
276 damage (Hernández-Oñate et al., 2012). The varying lifestyle of *S. schenckii* poses the
277 open question of how to cope with the various ROS stress encountered in this
278 organism's two lifestyles.

279 To our surprise, little is known about the inhibition of fungal catalases. The canonical
280 catalase inhibitors are sodium azide, hydroxylamine, potassium cyanide, salicylic acid
281 (also a molecule involved in plant defense systems), metal ions, and 3-amino-1,2,3-
282 triazol, but no quantitative or structural studies have been carried out with catalases
283 from fungi. The best examples are either mammalian or bacterial purified enzymes (Ma
284 et al., 2017).

285 One concerning setting is the activation of catalases; one study showed that metformin,
286 a common anti-diabetic drug, activates catalase in a mouse model with tetrachloride-
287 induced severe oxidative liver injury (Dai et al., 2014); thus, the detailed role of
288 catalases in pathogenic fungi could lead to preventive actions in patients undergoing
289 metformin treatment. Additional evidence of catalase activation is the role of the alkaloid
290 piperine in enhancing its activity (Caceres et al., 2017). Another interesting catalase
291 activator is vanillin and vanillic acid in animal models (Salau et al., 2020), suggesting
292 that further research is needed to discover and use antifungal treatments.

293 The inhibition of catalases may require extensive experimental analysis for each fungal
294 catalase. There are cases where catalases are inhibited with relatively harmless
295 molecules derived from natural products such as tea catechins or plant flavonoids (Pal
296 et al., 2014; Krych and Gebicka, 2013) or simply by ethanol (Temple and Ough, 1975).
297 Another relevant aspect is the inhibition of catalase by natural means, such as targeting
298 heme iron with molecules present in the respiratory burst, such as reactive nitrogen
299 species. Heme binds molecules such as nitric oxide, cyanide, and hydrogen sulfide
300 (Bieza et al., 2015; Milani et al., 2005); thus, exploring another hydrogen peroxide
301 detoxifying enzyme, such as peroxidases, is relevant to the mechanism of invasion and
302 survival by pathogenic fungi of mammalian and plant hosts.

303 Additionally, a collection of different compounds found in the plant *Jacquima macrocara*
304 that inhibit the growth and spore germination of *Fusarium verticillioides* inhibits catalase
305 activity completely at 1.25 mg/mL of the plant extract (Valenzuela-Cota et al., 2019).
306 The repercussions of finding novel antimicrobial compounds that one of its targets is the
307 antioxidant capacity of pathogenic fungi is worth exploring further, not only for human
308 pathogens but also for veterinary purposes and phytopathogenic fungi.

309 Environmental hazards can also be of interest (Asemoloye et al., 2018). Asemoloye and
310 colleagues (2018) found that crude oil induced catalases, laccases, and peroxidases in
311 fungal organisms present in the rhizosphere. These results are relevant for the
312 biodegradation of oil-derived molecules and strong selective pressure for fungi that, as
313 demonstrated, require degrading enzymes such as laccase and an arsenal of
314 antioxidant enzymes but are also strong selective pressure for pathogenic fungi with a
315 free-living stage.

316 The redox state regulates the circadian response in fungi (Wang et al., 2022).
317 Nevertheless, does this influence the pathogenic state of *Sporothrix* and other
318 pathogenic fungi, such as *Metarhizium*, in response to light? In particular, survival
319 mechanisms during UV light exposure (Brancini et al., 2022) or the role of conidia
320 formation and other biological aspects of cell differentiation, such as the outcome of
321 light of different wavelengths, have been reported in *Metarhizium* (Mas et al., 2020). On
322 the other hand, cell differentiation in fungi depends on ROS, specifically for the
323 formation of invasive structures such as the appressorium in *Magnaporthe oryzae* (Wang et al.,
324 2019). In vivo measurements of ROS during cell differentiation or invasion could
325 shed light on the role of ROS in dimorphic pathogenic fungi.

326 All questions regarding the role of catalases and the antioxidant arsenal can be first
327 assessed in alternative infection models, such as *Tenebrio molitor* (Lozoya-Pérez et al.,
328 2021; de Souza et al., 2015). Using *T. molitor* as a model, relevant information can be
329 obtained from gene knockouts or silencing of catalase genes.

330 Are other conditions relevant for catalase regulation? Recently, it was found that
331 different species of *Sporothrix* show lower survival rates due to abnormal cell-wall
332 composition during carbon and nitrogen starvation and are also linked to the virulence
333 phenotype elicited by different members of the *Sporothrix* complex (Lozoya-Pérez et al.,
334 2020). One interesting feature to explore is whether catalases and other antioxidant
335 enzymes are downregulated during starvation, which may also reduce virulence.

336 Finally, do pathogenic fungi possess bifunctional catalases, which may be involved in
337 the free-living lifestyle and have a pivotal role in host invasion? One such example is the
338 bifunctional catalase MkatG1 in the locust-specific pathogen *Metarhizium acridum*
339 (Keyhani et al., 2017). In this insect pathogen, catalase is induced during exposure to
340 the cuticle and appressorium formation. In the mutant lacking this catalase, germination
341 and appressorium formation are reduced on locust wings and quinone/phenolic
342 compounds, showing the relevance of this catalase/peroxidase enzyme in host
343 invasion.

344 Overall, catalases offer the opportunity to revisit their role and can provide potential
345 solutions for antifungal therapies. Linares and colleagues found that anticancer drugs
346 enhance the activity of catalases in *C. albicans*, which could contribute to the
347 concomitant infections of this pathogen among patients undergoing chemotherapy
348 (Linares et al., 2006).

349 The case of the *Candida* genus is particularly relevant to the study of catalases and
350 pathogenesis. Firstly, members of the *Candida* genus contain differences in their cell
351 wall components, resulting in a differential recognition by the immune system (Navarro-
352 Arias et al., 2019). Secondly, this genus shows a geographic-dependent prevalence
353 and, thus, different phenotypes related to antifungal drugs and virulence determinant
354 production (Ziccardi et al., 2015), rendering it a hot topic to analyze with other aspects
355 such as catalase production. Finally, the relationship of some members of the *Candida*
356 genus and higher expression levels of virulence factors, resistance to polyenes, azoles,
357 and echinocandins, along with higher catalase expression, is part of the pathogenesis,
358 as demonstrated for *Candida glabrata* (Figueiredo-Carvalho et al., 2017).

359 In the case of fungal pathogens, there are still several basic physiological aspects to be
360 explored to fully assess ways of controlling fungal infections and reducing treatment
361 resistance. Also, the study of clinical or specific geographical isolates will help to
362 determine virulence and resistance to antifungal drugs (Ziccardi et al., 2015), which may
363 be favored by higher catalase expression or diversity.

364 5 Conflict of Interest

365 Bernardo Franco is an Academic Editor for Peer J. The authors declare that the
366 research was conducted without any commercial or financial relationships that could be
367 construed as a potential conflict of interest.

368 **6 Author Contributions**

369 The authors conceived the review, revised and discussed the current literature,
370 analyzed additional data, wrote the manuscript, and prepared the figures.

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377 **9 References**

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611 **Figure legends:**

612 Figure 1. Sequence and structural features of *S. schenckii* catalases. Panel **A**, BLAST
613 analysis was used to identify the closest homologs for the three catalases of *S.*
614 *schenckii*, and 100 hits were downloaded and visually represented in pairwise identity
615 2D maps with Alignment Viewer (<https://alignmentviewer.org/>). In Panel **A**, pairwise
616 identity 2D maps are shown for the three catalases. The number of hits for catalase 1
617 (ERS99939.1) was 132. For Catalase 2 (ERS95255.1), 177 hits were obtained, and for
618 Catalase 3 (ERT00986.1), 140 hits were obtained. Catalase 2 shows lower homology
619 with the cognate orthologs than Catalase 1 or 3. In Panel **B**, Sequence alignment and
620 phylogenetic analysis of the three catalases from *Neurospora crassa* and *S. schenckii*
621 (Phylogenetic analysis was conducted with MEGA version 11.0.13 (Tamura et al.,
622 2021)) In Panel **C**, Weblogo fragments representing the regions with the active site
623 residues from the sequence alignment between *N. crassa* and *S. schenckii* catalases.

624 Red arrows indicate conserved catalytic residues in all sequences, and blue arrows
625 represent residues identified from the catalytic core but are not conserved in all
626 catalases (data retrieved from Díaz et al., 2009).

627 Figure 2. Conserved structural features of *S. schenckii* catalases compared with *N.*
628 *crassa* experimentally determined structures. Panel **A**, protein dimers are represented
629 as ribbon and rainbow of *N. crassa* catalases. The PDB number is indicated. 1SY7 is
630 the large subunit catalase/oxidase, and 5WHS and 4BIM are the small subunit
631 catalases. Relevant domains are indicated in the large subunit catalase, and heme is
632 indicated with white arrows. Panel **B**, AlphaFold 2 models of the *S. schenckii* catalases
633 and structural alignment with the three *N. crassa* catalases (RMSD 1.15). In blue is
634 1SY7, in green is 4BIM, in red is 5WHS, in yellow is catalase 1 (ERS99939.1), in light
635 blue is catalase 2 (ERS95255.1), and in purple is catalase 3 (ERT00986.1). Conserved
636 residues are indicated in magenta. Structural alignment was conducted with mTM-align
637 (Dong et al., 2018)

638

639

Figure 1

Sequence and structural features of *S. schenckii* catalases.

Panel **A**, BLAST analysis was used to identify the closest homologs for the three catalases of *S. schenckii*, and 100 hits were downloaded and visually represented in pairwise identity 2D maps with Alignment Viewer (<https://alignmentviewer.org/>). In Panel A, pairwise identity 2D maps are shown for the three catalases. The number of hits for catalase 1 (ERS99939.1) was 132. For Catalase 2 (ERS95255.1), 177 hits were obtained, and for Catalase 3 (ERT00986.1), 140 hits were obtained. Catalase 2 shows lower homology with the cognate orthologs than Catalase 1 or 3. In Panel **B**, Sequence alignment and phylogenetic analysis of the three catalases from *Neurospora crassa* and *S. schenckii* (Phylogenetic analysis was conducted with MEGA version 11.0.13 (Tamura et al., 2021)) Panel **C**, Weblogo fragments representing the regions with the active site residues from the sequence alignment between *N. crassa* and *S. schenckii* catalases. Red arrows indicate conserved catalytic residues in all sequences, and blue arrows represent residues identified from the catalytic core but are not conserved in all catalases (data retrieved from Díaz et al., 2009).

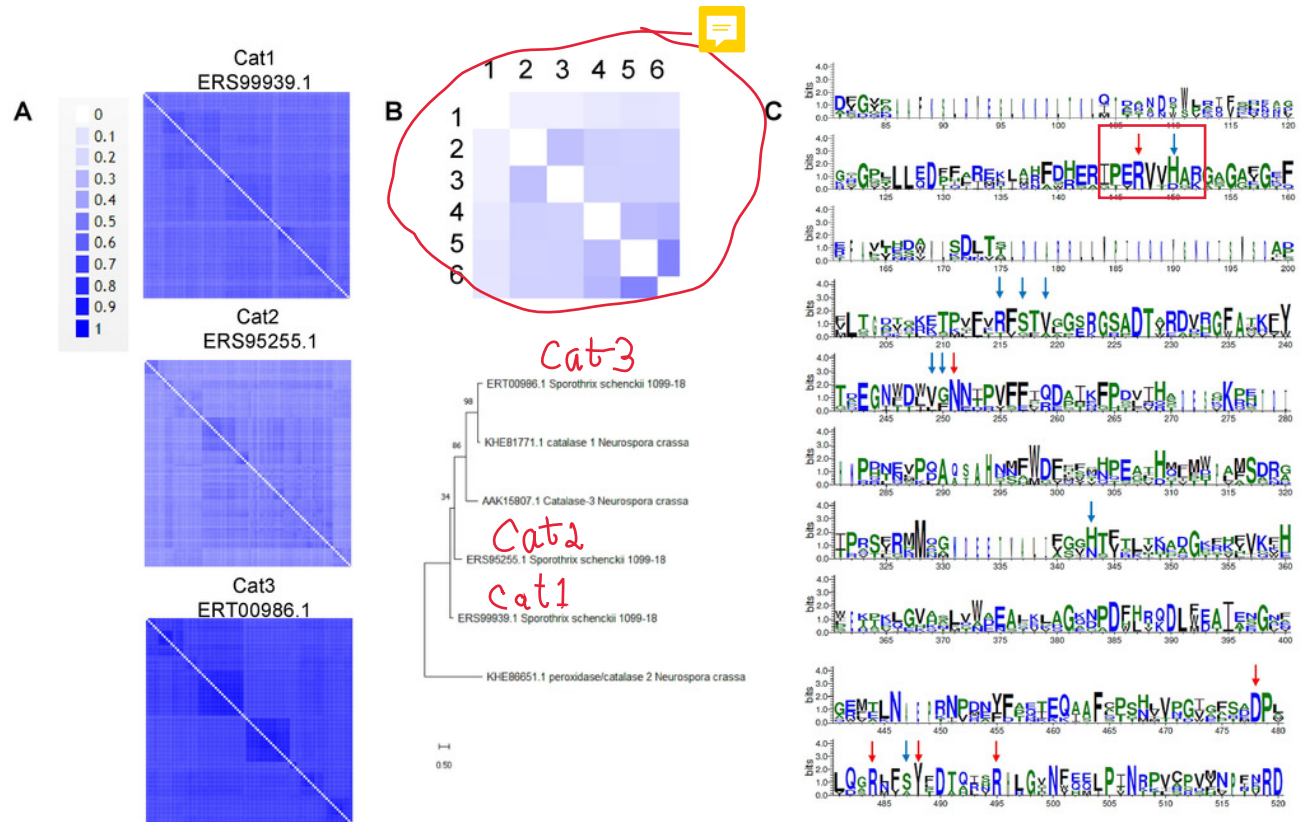


Figure 2

Conserved structural features of *S. schenckii* catalases compared with *N. crassa* experimentally determined structures.

Panel **A**, protein dimers are represented as ribbon and rainbow of *N. crassa* catalases. The PDB number is indicated. 1SY7 is the large subunit catalase/peroxidase, and 5WHS and 4BIM are the small subunit catalases. Relevant domains are indicated in the large subunit catalase, and heme is indicated with white arrows. Panel **B**, AlphaFold 2 models of the *S. schenckii* catalases and structural alignment with the three *N. crassa* catalases (RMSD 1.15). In blue is 1SY7, in green is 4BIM, in red is 5WHS, in yellow is catalase 1 (ERS99939.1), in light blue is catalase 2 (ERS95255.1), and in purple is catalase 3 (ERT00986.1). Conserved residues are indicated in magenta. Structural alignment was conducted with mTM-align (Dong et al., 2018)

