

# Regulation of dye-decolorizing peroxidase gene expression in *Pleurotus ostreatus* grown on glycerol as the carbon source

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## Abstract

Dye-decolorizing peroxidases (DyPs) (E.C. 1.11.1.19) are heme peroxidases that catalyze oxygen transfer reactions similarly to oxygenases. DyPs utilize hydrogen peroxide (H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>) both as an electron acceptor co-substrate and as an electron donor when oxidized to their respective radicals. The production of both DyPs and lignin-modifying enzymes (LMEs) is regulated by the carbon source, although less readily metabolizable carbon sources do improve LME production.

The present study analyzed the effect of glycerol on *Pleurotus ostreatus* growth, total DyP activity, and the expression of three *Pleos-dyp* genes (*Pleos-dyp1*, *Pleos-dyp2*, and *Pleos-dyp4*) via real-time RT-qPCR, monitoring the time course of *P. ostreatus* cultures supplemented with either glycerol or glucose and Acetyl Yellow G (AYG) dye.

The results obtained indicate that glycerol negatively affects *P. ostreatus* growth, giving a biomass production of 5.31 and 5.62 g/L with respective growth rates ( $\mu$ ) of 0.027 h<sup>-1</sup> and 0.023 h<sup>-1</sup> for fermentations in the absence and presence of AYG dye. In contrast, respective

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43 biomass production levels of 7.09 g/L and 7.20 g/L and growth rates ( $\mu$ ) of 0.033 h<sup>-1</sup> and 0.047  
 44 h<sup>-1</sup> were observed in equivalent control fermentations conducted with glucose in the absence  
 45 and presence of AYG dye. Higher DyP activity levels, 4043 IU/L and 4902 IU/L, were  
 46 obtained for fermentations conducted on glycerol, equivalent to 2.6-fold and 3.16-fold  
 47 higher than the activity observed when glucose is used as the carbon source.  
 48 The differential regulation of the DyP-encoding genes in *P. ostreatus* were explored,  
 49 evaluating the carbon source, the growth phase, and the influence of the dye. The global  
 50 analysis of the expression patterns throughout the fermentation showed the up- and down-  
 51 regulation of the three *Pleos-dip* genes evaluated. The highest induction observed for the  
 52 control media was that found for the *Pleos-dyp1* gene, which is equivalent to an 11.1-fold  
 53 increase in relative expression (log2) during the stationary phase of the culture (360 h), and  
 54 for the glucose/AYG media was *Pleos-dip-4* with 8.28-fold increase after 168 h. In addition,  
 55 glycerol preferentially induced the *Pleos-dyp1* and *Pleos-dyp2* genes, leading to respective  
 56 11.61 and 4.28-fold increases after 144 h. After 360 h and 504 h of culture, 12.86 and 4.02-  
 57 fold increases were observed in the induction levels presented by *Pleos-dyp1* and *Pleos-*  
 58 *dyp2*, respectively, in the presence of AYG. When transcription levels were referred to those  
 59 found in the control media, adding AYG led to up-regulation of the three *dip* genes  
 60 throughout the fermentation. Contrary to the fermentation with glycerol, where up and  
 61 down-regulation was observed.  
 62 The present study is the first report describing the effect of a less- metabolizable carbon  
 63 source, such as glycerol, on the differential expression of DyP-encoding genes and their  
 64 corresponding activity.

## 65 Introduction

66 The ligninolytic enzymes of white rot fungi are mainly produced during the activation of the  
 67 secondary metabolism, which occurs under limiting conditions, such as the concentration  
 68 and presence of bioavailable carbon and/or nitrogen sources (Alfaro et al., 2020; Aro et al.,  
 69 2005; Mikiashvili et al., 2006; Stajić et al., 2006). It has been reported that the ligninolytic  
 70 isoenzymes encoded by members of a gene family often exhibit variations in their  
 71 differential expression, catalytic properties, regulation mechanisms, and cellular location  
 72 (Fernández-Fueyo et al., 2014; Garrido-Bazán et al., 2016). Furthermore, analysis conducted  
 73 on the promoters of ligninolytic enzymes encoding genes in the *P. ostreatus* genome has  
 74 revealed the presence of different putative responsive elements (Janusz et al., 2013; Knop et  
 75 al., 2015; Piscitelli et al., 2011). These elements include carbon catabolite repressor binding  
 76 elements (CRE), nitrogen response (Nit2), xenobiotic-response elements (XRE), metal-

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92 response elements (MRE), and heat-shock elements (HSE), among others, which may be  
 93 involved in the regulation of gene expression in response to environmental conditions, such  
 94 as carbon and nitrogen sources or xenobiotics, temperature, and pH (*Jiao et al., 2018; Todd et*  
 95 *al., 2014*). Carbon catabolite repression (CCR), in combination with different signaling  
 96 pathways, plays a crucial role in the utilization of different carbon sources by *P. ostreatus*  
 97 and other Basidiomycota fungi (*Daly et al., 2019; Toyokawa et al., 2016; Yoav et al., 2018*).  
 98 Furthermore, it has been shown that Cre1, the main transcriptional regulator in the CCR  
 99 pathway, is regulated by the cAMP-dependent protein kinase A (PKA) (*de Assis et al., 2020;*  
 100 *Pareek et al., 2022*), while both Cre1 and PKA may be involved in the induction of genes  
 101 that encode lignin-modifying enzymes in *P. ostreatus* (*Toyokawa et al., 2016*). This process  
 102 can be studied utilizing carbon sources alternative to glucose, such as glycerol, and  
 103 evaluating their effect on enzyme activity and/or gene expression.

104 As part of its wood degradation system, *P. ostreatus* produces dye-decolorizing peroxidases  
 105 (DyPs (EC 1.11.1.19). These heme peroxidases can degrade several anthraquinone dyes, and  
 106 utilize the heme group as a redox cofactor to catalyze the hydrogen peroxide-mediated  
 107 oxidation of a wide range of molecules, including dyes, namely aromatic and lignin model  
 108 compounds, some of which are poorly metabolized by other heme peroxidases (*Catucci et al.,*  
 109 *2020a; Singh & Eltis, 2015; Xu et al., 2021*). Within the *P. ostreatus* genome, four DyP genes  
 110 coding for dye-decolorizing peroxidase activity have been identified: *Pleos-dyp1*; *Pleos-dyp2*;  
 111 *Pleos-dyp3*; and *Pleos-dyp4* (*Ruiz-Dueñas et al., 2011*). To date, limited reports are available  
 112 on the factors that regulate DyP production. In a previous study, our research group explored  
 113 the effect of dyes on the differential expression of *P. ostreatus* DyP-encoding genes and DyP  
 114 activity, showing that dyes had an induction effect on DyP activity (*Cuamatzi-Flores et al.,*  
 115 *2019*).

116 Additionally, an extracellular proteome analysis was conducted during *P. ostreatus* growth  
 117 on lignocellulosic material revealed the exclusive synthesis of *Pleos-DyP4* with several  
 118 versatile peroxidase (VP) and manganese peroxidase (MnP) enzymes (*Fernández-Fueyo et al.,*  
 119 *2015*). Glycerol can be a carbon and energy source for several basidiomycetes, including *P.*  
 120 *ostreatus*. Furthermore, the activity of some LMEs increases when glycerol or other less-  
 121 metabolizable carbon sources are used instead of glucose, which could imply that glycerol  
 122 mediates the carbon catabolite de-repression of LMEs. Given the physiological relevance of  
 123 DyP enzymes for several groups of organisms and their potential biotechnological  
 124 applications, the present research aims to investigate the impact of glycerol as a carbon  
 125 source on the production and differential regulation of DyPs in *P. ostreatus*.

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## Materials & Methods

### *Microorganism*

*P. ostreatus* obtained from the American Type Culture Collection (ATCC 32783) (Manassas, Virginia, U.S.A.) was used in the present research. The white rot fungus strain was grown and maintained on potato dextrose agar (PDA).

### *Dye Decolorization on Agar Plate*

Petri dishes containing agar 15g/L, glucose (Glu), or glycerol (Gly) as the carbon source and 500 ppm of either Acetyl yellow G (AYG) (dye content 95%) (SIGMA-ALDRICH 250309), RBBR (Remazol brilliant blue R dye, dye content 50%, SIGMA-ALDRICH R8001), or AB129 (Acid blue 129, dye content 25%, SIGMA-ALDRICH 306495) were inoculated with 0.4 cm<sup>2</sup> mycelia plugs taken from the periphery of a *P. ostreatus* colony growing on PDA at 25 °C and then incubated for seven days. The inoculum was placed, mycelium facing down, on the center of the plate. The plates were then incubated at 25 °C for eight days. The fungal colony growth and the effect on the dyes were documented using daily photographs throughout the incubation period. The mycelium growth rates (*kr*) were calculated by fitting the linear growth function  $y = kr \cdot x + c$  (where *y* is the distance and *x* is the time), expressed in mm/d (Zervakis et al., 2001), and monitored by carbon source and dye type, with any changes then statistically compared using the Kruskal-Wallis test with the R statistical software, version 4.3.0 (R Development Core Team, 2023). The experiments were conducted on two independent replicates.

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### *Submerged Culture Conditions and Characterization of Growth Kinetics*

The composition of the medium and the conditions for the submerged cultures were established in line with those described by (Cuamatzi-Flores et al., 2019). The Acetyl yellow G dye was selected based on the positive outcome reported for the use of this dye on total peroxidase activity and expression profiles (Cuamatzi-Flores et al., 2019; Garrido-Bazán et al., 2016). The present study conducted four types of *P. ostreatus* cultures, using either glucose or glycerol as the carbon source and then adding 500 ppm of Acetyl yellow G (GAYG and GlyAYG) (dye content 95%) (SIGMA-ALDRICH 250309). Each flask out of three per fermentation type was inoculated with three mycelial plugs (4 mm in diameter) taken using a steel punch from the periphery of *P. ostreatus* colonies grown for 7 d at 25°C in Petri dishes containing PDA. The cultures were incubated at 25°C for 23 days on a rotary shaker (SEV-PRENDO 650M) set for constant shaking at 120 rpm. Three flasks were taken as samples every 24 h from 120 h (5 d) to 552 h (23 d) of fermentation. The supernatant was obtained by

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filtering the cultures, using Whatman No. 4 filter paper, and then stored at -20°C. The glucose level was determined via the DNS Method (Miller, 1959), while glycerol consumption was assessed as described by (Kuhn et al., 2015). The carbon consumption rate was determined by applying the equation  $q_s = Y_{xs} \cdot \mu$ , where  $Y_{xs}$  denotes the yield of a gram of biomass per gram of substrate and  $\mu$  represents the growth-specific rate (Dietzsch et al., 2011). The yield coefficient  $Y_{xs}$  was computed by assessing the ratio of the maximum attained biomass to the corresponding maximum quantity of the carbon source used. Subsequently, the carbon source consumption rate  $q_s$  was obtained by multiplying  $Y_{xs}$  by  $\mu$  under the prevailing experimental conditions. Dye-decolorizing peroxidase activity was measured by monitoring the degradation of ABTS (Salvachúa et al., 2013), while the percentage of dye decolorization was determined at fixed time intervals, as proposed by (Upadhyay & Przystal, 2023). The mycelium was rinsed with 0.9% NaCl and stored at -70°C until subjected to total RNA extraction or dry weight measurement (X, g/L). The specific growth rate ( $\mu$ ) was obtained for each replicate from the logistic equation ( $X = X_{\max}/(1 + (X_{\max} - X_0/X_0) \cdot e^{-\mu t})$ ) using 100 permutations in the R software, version 4.3.0 (R Development Core Team, 2023). The decolorization of the AYG dye was monitored spectrophotometrically at  $\lambda_{\max}$  (390 nm). All experiments were performed in triplicate. The growth curves were established using the dry biomass measurements obtained from each fermentation.

#### **RNA Extraction and RT-qPCR**

The total RNA was isolated from frozen mycelia harvested at different time points during the fermentation, using NTES (100 mM NaCl, 10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 1mM EDTA, and 1% SDS) extraction buffer and a protocol modified from that proposed by (Holding et al., 2007). The mycelium was ground in a mortar with liquid nitrogen, with approximately 100 mg of the mycelium, then placed in 1.5 mL Eppendorf RNase-free tubes, to which 500  $\mu$ l of NTES and 500  $\mu$ l of phenol/chloroform (1:1) were added and stirred until homogenization was complete. The aqueous phase was separated via centrifugation at 10,000 rpm and 4 °C for 10 min and then re-extracted using phenol/chloroform. The nucleic acids were precipitated using two volumes of ethanol and 1/10 volume of 2 M sodium acetate, pH 5.3, incubated at -20 °C for 2 h, and then resuspended in 250  $\mu$ l of RNase-free deionized water. The RNA was precipitated using one volume of 4 M LiCl at -20 °C overnight and then resuspended in the appropriate volume of RNase-free water. The concentration was quantified spectrophotometrically, while the purity was determined using the absorbance ratio at OD 260/280 nm. The RNA was treated with RNase-free DNase I (Invitrogen). The final RNA

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209 concentration was set to 300 ng/μl, after which 3 μg of total RNA was reverse-transcribed  
210 into cDNA in a volume of 20 μl, using M-MuLV reverse transcriptase (Fermentas), following  
211 the manufacturer's protocol.

212 The RT-qPCR reactions were performed in a StepOne Plus thermal cycler (Applied  
213 Biosystems), using Maxima SYBR Green/ROX qPCR Master Mix (ThermoFisher) to detect  
214 amplification. Specific primers were designed to amplify the transcripts of the three *Pleos-*  
215 *dyp* genes identified in the genome (Table 1). The reaction mixture, amplification program,  
216 melting curve, and selection of the reference genes applied adhered to that previously  
217 described by (Garrido-Bazán et al., 2016). According to their expression stability under the  
218 culture conditions of interest and the reference index, consisting of the geometric mean of  
219 the best-performing housekeeping genes, the peptidase (*pep*) gene was used for RT-qPCR  
220 data normalization. The RT-qPCR reactions were carried out in triplicates with a template-  
221 free negative control performed in parallel.

222

### 223 Promoter Sequence Analysis

224 The analysis of regulatory cis-elements in the promoter regions of *Pleos-dyp* genes  
225 (Supplementary Table 1) involved analyzing 2000-bp upstream genomic DNA sequences of  
226 the start codon of each *Pleos-dyp* gene using MEME (Multiple Expectation Maximization for  
227 Motif Elicitation, <http://meme-suite.org/>) based on default parameters. The cis-elements  
228 identified were then annotated using SMART (<http://smart.embl-heidelberg.de/>).

229

## 230 Results

### 231 Effect of Carbon Source on *P. ostreatus* Growth and Dye Decolorization in Plate Assays

232 Figure 1A shows the growth and decolorization capacity of *P. ostreatus* on glucose and  
233 glycerol agar plates supplemented with 500 ppm of AYG, RBRR, or AB129 dyes. Although *P.*  
234 *ostreatus* grew on both glucose and glycerol media, a higher growth rate is observed on  
235 glucose, either alone or supplemented with the dyes. A statistically significant overall  
236 reduction in mycelial growth rates (*kr*) was observed on the plates containing either glucose  
237 or glycerol as the primary carbon source (Kruskal-Wallis chi-squared = 4.1325, df = 1, *p*-  
238 value = 0.04207). Moreover, adding dyes increased the growth rates on both carbon sources,  
239 except for applying AB129 on glycerol, wherein the *kr* level decreased from 2.53 to 1.89  
240 (Figure 1B and Supplementary Table 2).

241 This differential growth pattern led to the development of a larger fungal colony over the 192 h  
242 of incubation. The oxidation or transformation of all the dyes tested occurred simultaneously,  
243 along with the appearance of the mycelium, and varied by carbon source and type of dye, with  
244 the RBRR and AB129 dyes the most susceptible to decolorization, and the AYG dye the least

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susceptible. Furthermore, a range of changes in the color of all the dyes was observed during the experiment. In the glucose media, the AYG dye transitioned from yellow to reddish hues over time, whereas such color alterations were not evident in the glycerol-supplemented medium. The changes observed in the RBBR and AB129 dyes were more evident than those observed for the AYG dye on both carbon sources. While AYG is a mono-azo dye with a complex structure and low redox potential, RBBR and AB129 are anthraquinone dyes. These latter dyes have a high redox potential and a less complex structure, which makes them more susceptible to decolorization. These findings suggest a significant influence of the carbon source and chemical nature of the dyes on both the growth kinetics of *P. ostreatus* and dye oxidation, thus highlighting the role of the carbon substrate in shaping fungal metabolism.

## Effect of Glycerol on *Pleurotus ostreatus* Growth, Dye Peroxidase Activity and Acetyl Yellow G Dye Decolorization in Submerged Fermentation

### Characterization of Growth Kinetics and AYG Decolorization

Submerged cultures were conducted to analyze the changes observed in the plate assays quantitatively. Figure 2 compares *P. ostreatus* growth in submerged fermentation using either glucose or glycerol as the single carbon source or as one supplemented with AYG dye. The variation in the maximal biomass ( $X_{max}$ ) obtained was higher for both the glucose and glucose/AYG cultures (7.09 g/L and 7.20 g/L, respectively) than the glycerol or glycerol/AYG cultures evaluated (5.31 g/L and 5.62 g/L, respectively). The same differences were observed for growth rate ( $\mu$ ), with  $\mu$  values of 0.033 h<sup>-1</sup> and 0.047 h<sup>-1</sup> obtained for the glucose and glucose/AYG-media, values which are higher than the 0.027 h<sup>-1</sup> and 0.023 h<sup>-1</sup> observed for the glycerol and glycerol/AYG media, respectively. Interestingly, adding the AYG dye did not significantly affect biomass production ( $X_{max}$ ), as no substantial differences were observed when the cultures with and without the presence of dye were compared. The highest carbon consumption rate ( $q_c$ ) was found in the presence of the AYG dye when glucose was used as the carbon source (Figure 3). In effect, glucose depletion was observed at 240 h of culture, compared to 336 h for the fermentation conducted without dye, an expected finding considering the higher growth rate already reported. However, although the specific growth rates were similar in the fermentations with glycerol as a carbon source, glycerol depletion was delayed when the dye was added (400 h), compared to 312 h for the fermentation conducted without the AYG dye. These findings suggest that with glucose, *P. ostreatus* can metabolize the carbon source more efficiently in the presence of the dye, leading to accelerated carbon source depletion. This effect was not observed in the fermentations with glycerol, possibly due to a more complex glycerol uptake and the catabolic pathways.

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303 Furthermore, the decolorization percentage observed during glucose fermentations increased  
304 gradually throughout the fermentation, reaching percentages of 100 % after 552 h. This  
305 finding contradicts the glycerol fermentation, wherein 10.8 % decolorization was observed  
306 after only 48 h, and a maximum of 22 % decolorization was found after 552 h (Figure 4). The  
307 UV/Vis changes in the absorption spectra found for the AYG dye coincided with the  
308 decolorization percentages observed for each fermentation (Figure 5). The carbon source had  
309 a markedly discernible impact on the rate of dye decolorization.

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### 311 **Effect of Glycerol and AYG Dye on DyP Production**

312 The effect of glycerol and AYG dye on dye peroxidase production by *P. ostreatus* is shown in  
313 Figure 6. The highest titers of dye peroxidase activity (4043 and 4903 UI/L) were observed  
314 when glycerol and glycerol with AYG were used as a carbon source, reaching maximum  
315 levels at 408 h and 360 h, respectively. On the other hand, the lowest activity levels were  
316 obtained for the glucose and glucose with AYG cultures (1551 and 2882 UI/L, at 312 and 288  
317 h, respectively). Notably, irrespective of the carbon source, the addition of AYG dye  
318 consistently induced the production of DyP, as can be concluded from the higher activity  
319 levels observed early in the fermentation process. However, the highest DyP activity levels  
320 were mainly observed during the stationary growth phase (288 h to 408 h). This finding does  
321 not concur with the decolorization percentages observed from 48 h to 248 h, which may  
322 indicate the participation of other oxidases, such as laccase, manganese peroxidase, and  
323 versatile peroxidase, that are also produced by *P. ostreatus* and have oxidative potential for  
324 dyes.

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### 326 ***Pleos-dyp* Genes Expression and Differential Regulation in Response to Glycerol and 327 AYG Dye**

328 The transcriptional response of *Pleos-dyp* genes to the use of glycerol as a carbon source and  
329 the addition of a synthetic dye (AYG) was also evaluated. Figures 7-8 show the influence of  
330 the carbon source and the AYG dye on the expression patterns of *dyp* genes, revealing a  
331 dynamic up-/down-regulation pattern throughout the fermentation process for the three *dyp*  
332 genes evaluated (*Pleos-dyp1*, *Pleos-dyp2*, and *Pleos-dyp4*).

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333 The exploratory analysis of the global expression is shown in Figure 7. The aim was to obtain  
334 an expression map of *P. ostreatus dyp* genes under the study conditions. The highest  
335 induction levels found for the control media were for the *Pleos-dyp1* and *Pleos-dyp4* genes,  
336 with 11.12 and 8.28-fold increases observed in the relative expression levels ( $\log_2$ ) after 360 h  
337 and 168 h, respectively. Additionally, gene expression profiles indicated that glycerol

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345 induced *Pleos-dyp1* and *Pleos-dyp2* genes, with a 11.61- and 4.28-fold increase observed  
346 after 144 h, respectively. On the other hand, the addition of AYG resulted in a respective  
347 6.69 and 3.59-fold increase in the induction of glucose after 504 h for *Pleos-dyp4* and *Pleos-*  
348 *dyp1*, respectively, and a 12.86 and 4.02-fold increase in induction levels for glycerol, after  
349 360 h and 504 h of culture for *Pleos-dyp1* and *Pleos-dyp2*, respectively. Interestingly, in the  
350 fermentations with glycerol, the expression of *Pleos-dyp4* was not detected.  
351 The effects of the different carbon sources, AYG dye, and fermentation times on the dye  
352 peroxidase expression were also analyzed by referring to the transcriptional levels observed  
353 to those obtained under the control media (glucose) (Figure 8). Adding AYG led to  
354 upregulation (an increase of the enzymatic activity) of the three dyp genes throughout the  
355 fermentation with glucose. The highest induction was found for *Pleos-dyp2* and *Pleos-dyp1*  
356 genes, equivalent to 12.85 and 10.29 fold-increase at 144 h and 120 h, respectively. This  
357 effect was also observed in fermentation with glycerol, but to a lesser extent. After 120 h and  
358 144 h of culture, 4.41 and 4.20 fold increases were observed in the induction levels presented  
359 by *Pleos-dyp1* and *Pleos-dyp2*, respectively. Concerning the glycerol effect, in those  
360 fermentations, the expression levels showed up and down regulation, with similar expression  
361 patterns observed for *Pleos-dyp1* and *Pleos-dyp2*.  
362 These findings underscore the intricate dynamics of gene expression in response to different  
363 carbon sources and the presence of AYG dye, shedding light on the regulatory mechanisms  
364 governing dye peroxidase production in *P. ostreatus*.

## 366 Discussion

367 Within the *P. ostreatus* genome, four dye-decolorizing peroxidase genes have been identified  
368 (*Ruiz-Dueñas et al., 2011*). According to *Fernández-Fueyo et al., (2015)*, only two out of four  
369 Pleos-DyPs were found to be phylogenetically divergent (*Pleos-DyP1* and *Pleos-DyP4*).  
370 However, Pleos-DyPs isoenzymes differ phylogenetically and in terms of their dye redox  
371 potential. Limited reports on factors regulating DyP synthesis are available in the literature.  
372 For instance, the effect of a less-metabolizable carbon source, such as glycerol, on the  
373 differential expression of DyP-encoding genes and the corresponding activity produced is  
374 relevant to understanding the mechanisms involved in DyP production. The high number of  
375 genes in the *P. ostreatus* genome encoding DyP and other oxidase isoenzymes indicates  
376 diversity in their properties and differential regulation, as discussed below.

## 379 Effect of Carbon Source on Growth

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399 Glycerol can be used as a carbon and energy source for several groups of fungi; however, its  
400 utilization efficiency varies among fungi and, compared to glucose, the glycerol metabolism  
401 is often less efficient (*Klein et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2012; Urek & Pazarlioglu, 2007*). The  
402 present research first evaluated the effect of glycerol as a carbon source on *P. ostreatus*  
403 growth, in both plate assays and submerged fermentation. Glycerol showed lower efficiency  
404 as a carbon source than glucose, significantly affecting both growth rate and biomass  
405 production. The findings of the present study confirm that previous research demonstrated  
406 that *P. ostreatus* growth is affected by using a complex carbon source. such as glycerol,  
407 resulting in reduced biomass production and altered growth rates (*Mikiashvili et al., 2006;*  
408 *Sarris et al., 2020; Tinoco et al., 2011*). Glycerol may undergo a more complex catabolic  
409 process than glycolysis, the catabolic process undergone by glucose. The phosphorylative  
410 glycerol catabolic pathway is widespread among fungi and requires the formation of L-  
411 glycerol 3-phosphate and dihydroxyacetone phosphate before glycolysis or gluconeogenesis  
412 can proceed (*Klein et al., 2017*).

413 Additionally, it has been suggested that the deficient regulation of the enzymes involved in  
414 the primary steps of glycerol catabolism negatively influences the growth of several types of  
415 fungi when glycerol is used as the sole carbon source (*Papanikolaou et al., 2017; Sarris et al.,*  
416 *2020*). The results obtained by the present study show that, particularly with glucose used as  
417 the carbon source, the addition of the dyes increased both growth and carbon-source-  
418 consumption rates. This finding concurs with other reports in the literature, which found  
419 that the addition of exogenous aromatic compounds to white-rot basidiomycetes has been  
420 shown to induce the production of glycolytic enzymes within other enzymes involved in  
421 sugar metabolism, thus resulting in the activation of glucose consumption (*Shimizu et al.,*  
422 *2005*).

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425 **Effect of Glycerol and AYG Dye on the Production of DyP activity and Dye**  
426 **Decolorization**

427 The present study found that using glycerol instead of glucose resulted in a three-fold  
428 increase in DyP activity. Similar observations were reported by *Roch et al., (1989)*, who  
429 found that *Phanerochaete chrysosporium* could grow under carbon limitation with glycerol  
430 used as a carbon source, thus both affecting *P. chrysosporium* growth and increasing lignin  
431 peroxidase activity. Many studies on the effects of medium composition on lignin-modifying  
432 enzyme (LME) production have focused on optimizing laccase activity or global LME  
433 induction, rather than specifically examining DyPs. *Tinoco et al., (2011)* optimized a culture

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445 medium for laccase production by *P. ostreatus*, using copper and lignin as inducers. In  
 446 contrast to the findings presented here, they did not observe the significant influence of  
 447 glucose or glycerol on laccase production. Various reports have indicated that the production  
 448 of LMEs in basidiomycetes is dependent on the carbon and nitrogen sources used, as well as  
 449 the presence of aromatic compounds in the culture medium (*Elisashvili et al., 2018; Stajić et*  
 450 *al., 2006; Thiribhuvanamala et al., 2017*). For instance, *Elisashvili et al., (2002)* demonstrated  
 451 the effect of different carbon sources and aromatic compounds on the lignocellulolytic  
 452 enzyme activity of different edible and medicinal basidiomycetes, concluding that it is  
 453 possible not only to increase lignocellulolytic activity substantially, but also to trigger their  
 454 preferential synthesis by supplementing the culture medium with nutritional compounds.  
 455 According to *Jiao et al., (2018)*, adding small aromatic molecules to the culture medium could  
 456 increase the laccase yield, thus activating laccase gene transcription by binding onto the  
 457 target gene's xenobiotic response element (XRE). The present study found that the  
 458 production of DyP activity was primarily observed during the stationary phase (268-552 h) of  
 459 the *P. ostreatus* culture. At the same time, adding AYG dye (an azoic dye whose chemical  
 460 composition includes aromatic rings, azoic linkages, and amino and sulphonic groups)  
 461 increased maximum activity levels. Ligninolytic enzymes are generally produced as secondary  
 462 metabolites (*Elisashvili et al., 2020; Thiribhuvanamala et al., 2017*). It is assumed that the  
 463 metabolized substrate is essential for fungi not only for synthesizing lignin-degrading enzymes  
 464 but also for producing peroxide and the effectors of the ligninolytic system (*Shimizu et al.,*  
 465 *2005*). According to *Buswell et al., (1984)*, growing *Phanerochaete chrysosporium* on glycerol  
 466 leads to carbon limitation, which can affect the onset of the secondary metabolism, a condition  
 467 reported to favor the carbon catabolite de-repression of both CAZ and ligninolytic enzymes  
 468 (*Peng et al., 2021; Suzuki et al., 2008*). *Aro et al., (2005)* reported that the depletion of nutrient  
 469 nitrogen, carbon, or sulfur generally triggers the expression of gene encoding ligninolytic  
 470 enzymes. Furthermore, the addition of AYG increased the carbon source consumption rate. It is  
 471 known that, in the presence of a primary carbon source, the co-metabolism of different  
 472 pollutants, such as dyes, is widely observed in fungi and other microorganisms. The co-  
 473 metabolism of the pollutants can be accomplished by enzymes that convert them into  
 474 intermediates that the microorganism can then use. One of the mechanisms proposed as  
 475 participating in this process involves both the primary carbon source and the co-substrate acting  
 476 as co-inducers in the activation of different genes that produce the enzymes that act on the  
 477 carbon source and the pollutant (*Ahlawat et al., 2022; Shimizu et al., 2005*). In this sense, several  
 478 reports indicate that the efficiency of dye decolorization can be favored by co-metabolism with  
 479 different carbon sources, of which glucose, sucrose, fructose, and glycerol are among the most  
 480 extensively studied (*Civzele et al., 2023; Haider et al., 2019; Merino et al., 2019; Rao et al.,*  
 481 *2019*). The results obtained for the analysis conducted on carbon source consumption and DyP  
 482 activity levels for both carbon sources analyzed in the present research suggest that the AYG dye

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may be co-metabolized, thus inducing the production of DyP and other oxidases not evaluated in the experiments conducted by the present study. The ability of *P. ostreatus* to metabolize a wide variety of toxic compounds is primarily attributed to their non-specific multi-enzyme oxidative system, which comprises manganese peroxidases (MnPs; EC1.11.1.13), versatile peroxidases (VPs (EC1.11.1.16), laccases (Lacs; EC1.10.3.2), and dye-decolorizing peroxidases (DyP; EC1.11.1.19) (George et al., 2023; Kunjadia et al., 2016; Šlosarčíková et al., 2020). Cuamatzi-Flores et al. (2019) reported that, when glucose was the sole carbon source, the addition of Acetyl Yellow G (AYG), Remazol Brilliant Blue R (RBBR), or Acid Blue 129 (AB129) dyes increased DyP activity, ultimately achieving complete decolorization. When grown in liquid media, the transformation of RBBR dye by *P. ostreatus* seems to occur mainly via laccase oxidation. However, dye-decolorizing peroxidase and veratryl alcohol oxidase were also produced (Palmieri et al., 2005). Eichlerová et al., (2006), evaluated the decolorization capacity of Orange G and Remazol Brilliant Blue R (RBBR) dye and the ligninolytic-enzyme production of eight different *Pleurotus* species. The main enzymes detected were Lac and MnP, whose production was strongly influenced by the cultivation media type and the dye's presence. Ottoni et al., (2014) reported that, in *Trametes versicolor*, glycerol is an important substrate for oxidative metabolism, promoting higher laccase production and increasing the decolorization of Reactive Black 5. The efficiency of AYG decolorization was considerably affected by the carbon source. The present study found 45 % and 10 % decolorization percentages after 48 h in glucose and glycerol, respectively. Furthermore, in glucose, complete decolorization was observed after 552 h. It has been reported that dye decolorization or degradation efficiency depends on different factors, such as the carbon source or chemical nature of the dyes. The degradation of dyes involving aromatic cleavage depends on the type, number, and position of functional groups and other factors, such as electron distribution and charge density. Consequently, color removal is less efficient with highly substituted dyes and presents higher molecular weights (Lu et al., 2008; Tochhawng et al., 2019). As observed in plate assays and submerged fermentation, a poorer decolorization of the mono-azo dye AYG was found than that observed for the anthraquinone dyes (ABBR and AB129), with both dyes presenting a higher redox potential and a less complex structure than AYG.

### ***Pleos-dyp* Gene Expression and Differential Regulation In Response to Glycerol and AYG Dye**

Several studies conducted on Basidiomycota have demonstrated that CCR, in combination with different signaling pathways, plays a key role in the utilization of different carbon sources in this group of fungi (Hu et al., 2020; Nakazawa et al., 2019; Toyokawa et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2022). The existence of an ortholog of Cre1, the main transcriptional regulator in the CCR pathway, has also been demonstrated and may participate in this regulatory process (Alfaro et al., 2020; Pareek et al., 2022; Yoav et al., 2018). Furthermore, it has been

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550 shown that Cre1 is regulated by cAMP-dependent protein kinase A (PKA) (*de Assis et al.,*  
551 *2020; Pareek et al., 2022*), with both Cre1 and PKA potentially involved in the induction of  
552 genes that encode lignin-modifying enzymes in *P. ostreatus* (*Toyokawa et al., 2016*). The  
553 present study used glycerol as an alternative substrate to examine the transcriptional  
554 responses of *P. ostreatus dyp* genes and investigate the potential participation of carbon  
555 catabolite de-repression in their regulation. The analysis of *dyp* gene expression profiles  
556 conducted by the present research revealed significant variations influenced by the carbon  
557 source, growth phase, and the presence of AYG dye. These variations led to up- and down-  
558 regulation patterns in the three *Pleos-dyp* genes evaluated over the fermentation period.  
559 Interestingly, adding glycerol and AYG dye induced the early-stage expression of *Pleos-dyp1*  
560 (144 hours).  
561 In contrast, the expression of *Pleos-dyp4* was not detected in the glycerol cultures. The  
562 potential XRE, Cre1, and Nit2 binding site motifs identified in the promoter of the three DyP  
563 encoding genes analyzed (Supplementary Table 1) suggest that the transcription of the *dyp*  
564 gene, among others, can be regulated by xenobiotics and carbon and nitrogen sources. The  
565 frequency of these cis-acting elements varies among genes, from zero for XRE in the *dyp2*  
566 gene to one for Cre1 in the three genes and three for Nit2 in *dyp4*. The effect of chemical  
567 dyes on the DyP activity and gene expression profile of *P. ostreatus* has been previously  
568 reported. Adding dyes results in an induction effect on the enzyme activity and the  
569 expression profiles of *dyp* genes, with maximum induction levels detected for the *dyp4* gene  
570 at the end of the fermentation process (*Cuamatzi-Flores et al., 2019*). Further studies must be  
571 conducted to define the DyP regulation occurring via CCR and validate the functionality of  
572 the cis-regulatory elements identified in the *dyp* gene promoters.

## 574 Conclusions

575 The carbon source impacted the growth, DyP production, and differential regulation of *dyp*  
576 genes in *P. ostreatus*. Glycerol is used as a carbon source, but it negatively affects growth rate  
577 and carbon source consumption. However, DyP production was significantly higher than  
578 that observed with glucose as a carbon source. Adding the AYG dye increased DyP  
579 production at different levels depending on the carbon source. The expression of the three  
580 *dyp* genes was differentially affected by the carbon source and the addition of the AYG dye.  
581 The *Pleos-dyp1* and *Pleos-dyp2* genes showed the highest transcription levels, while *Pleos-*  
582 *dyp4* expression was not detected in the glycerol sample. With the addition of the AYG dye,  
583 particularly in the glucose culture, the three *Pleos-dyp* genes were upregulated throughout

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the fermentation. Although glycerol **increased** DyP activity, the transcript levels observed did not correlate with DyP activity, particularly in the stationary phase of the fermentation.

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