

Aspergillus oryzae Compared to *A. flavus* - Genetic Analysis *in Silico*

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ABSTRACT

Two genetically close filamentous *Aspergillus* species, the non-toxic *A. oryzae* used for food fermentation for thousands of years (e.g., *koji mold*, *sake*, *soy sauce*) playing huge role in food industry, and the main *aflatoxin* producer of *A. flavus* are studied here based on genetic analysis *in silico*. The evolutionary *TimeLine* computer program of *Ascomycota* fungi showed 520 MYA origins. Phylogenetic tree of genome sequences of *Ascomycota* fungi was found to group in three main clades. The genome size of *A. flavus* (37.7×10^6 bpDNA) but not *A. sojae* (41.1×10^6 bpDNA) showed smaller size than the descendent (90-100 MYA) *A. oryzae* (37.9×10^6 bpDNA). In phylogeny of mitogenomes (mtDNA) *A. terreus* showed a distinct clade, and the toxic *A. parasiticus* grouped to the non-toxic *A. sojae*. Fungal production of *aflatoxins*, *cellulases*, and the ribosomal post-translationally modified peptides (RiPPs) of *nisin*, *asperigimycin*, *gliotoxin*; the fungal non-ribosomal peptide (NRPs) *fusahexin*; the polyketide taxane and *mycolactone* are reviewed and discussed.

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Order of Ascomycota Fungi

Ascomycota fungi (Figure 1 and 2, Table 1) of plant and human pathogens, e.g., bronchopulmonary aspergillosis BPA, and IPA invasive pulmonary aspergillosis caused mainly by *A. fumigatus*, and *A. flavus*, *A. Niger*, *A. Tereus*, and *A. nidulans* comprise great number (>#82.000) of species [1]. [from Latin: *flavus* – yellow, *fumigatus* – smoky; *niger* – black, *nidulans* – nesting; *terreus* – terra – soil; [2]. *Aspergillus flavus* is a common soil saprophyte, and pathogen fungus of crops [3].

A. oryzae is a non-toxic food fermenter for thousands of years (e.g., *koji mold*, *sake*, *soy sauce*). Other *Ascomycota* species include *Aspergillus niger* ('black mold'), *Monilia* and *Monilinia* ('brown rot'), *Botrytis* ('grey mold'), *Sclerotinia* ('white mold'), *Taphrina* ('leaf curls'), and *Fusarium* (Figure 2) are plant pathogens [4-14].

The main fungus fermenters digest sugars to ethanol, e.g., *budding yeasts* / *bakers' yeast* (*Saccharomyces cerevisiae*), *fission yeast* (*Schizosaccharomyces pombe*). *Aspergillus* fermenters of *A. oryzae*, *A. sojae* and *A. kawachii* release sugars from the seed starch and cellulose of rice, barley and soybean (Figure 2) [15].

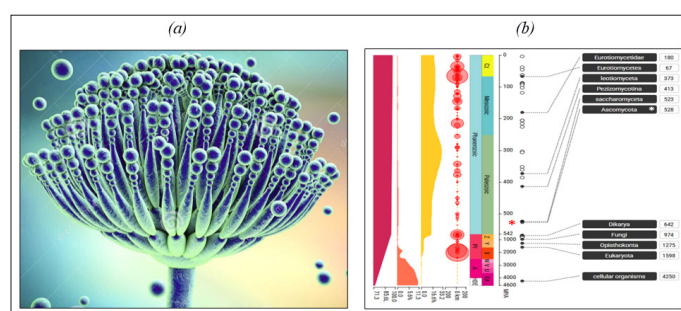


Figure 1: Chains of conidia on conidiophore of *Aspergillus* species (a) (*dreamstime.com*; ID #76296075, © Katerina Kon). Evolutionary *TimeTree of Life* for Ascomycota fungi (b) (indicated with [*]), and related organisms analyzed with Divergence Times (MYA) and global climate conditions edited by TTLO5 *timetree.org* [16].

Aspergillus fungus was isolated first from soil and named after the similarity to *holy water sprinkler* [*Aspergillum*] used in the Catholic sermons (*Mycobank* MB #7248, www.mycobank.org). *Aspergillus* fungi developed in the evolution 200-520 MYA (Figure 1) [17]. Species of genus *Aspergillus* were found to show divers morphology however with monophyletic evolution lineage [4,18].

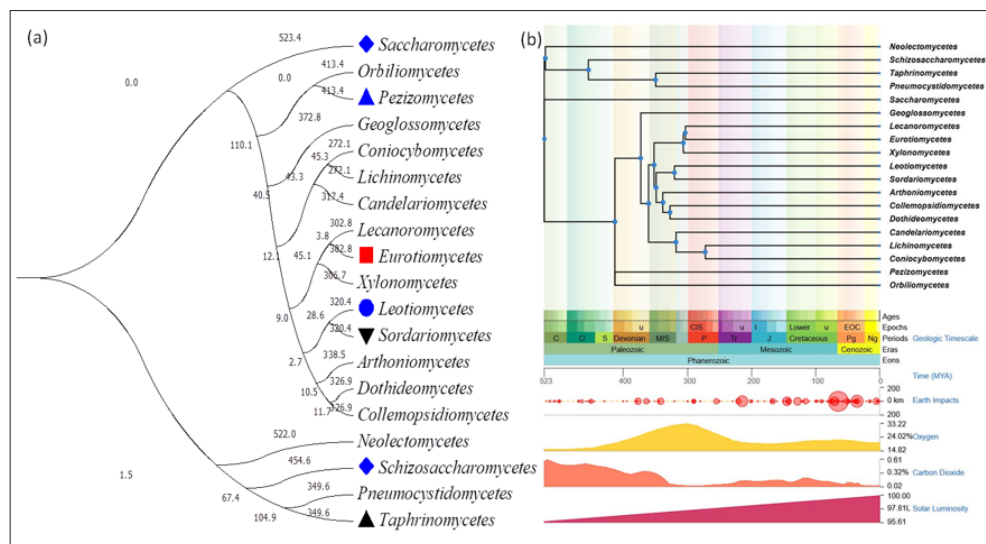


Figure 2: Three clades (a) of Ascomycota genomes edited by NJ Phylogram analysis (Neighbor Joining tree) by MEGA7 computer program based on data mined by TToL5 server [16,19]. (b) Important *Ascomycota* orders are labeled with different symbols. Species numbers (#) were collected from www.indexfungorum.org (with total of #618.592 records)

[◆] *Saccharomycetes*, e.g., *S. cerevisiae* - ‘budding yeasts’/‘bakers’ yeast (#489), and *Candida* (#902) including *C. albicans* - a regular member of the human flora, and *C. krusei* used for cacao beans fermentation. [◆] *Schizosaccharomycetes* - ‘fission yeasts’ (#42), e.g., *S. pombe*, named after ‘pombe’ meaning millet beer in African Swahili language (Lindner, P., 1893) (www.gbif.org/species/2586935). [■] Eurothiomycetes (#3,810), e.g., *Aspergillus* (#1137) and *Penicillium* (#1550). [●] *Leotiomyces*, e.g., *Botrytis* (#436), *Monilia* (#335), *Monilinia* (#51), and *Sclerotinia* (#259). [▲] *Pezizomycetes* (#2,000), e.g., *Tuber* (#772) (‘truffles’), *Morchella* (#368) (‘morels’). [▼] *Sordariomycetes*, e.g., *Fusarium* (#1897), *Trichoderma* (#590), *Claviceps* (#120), and *Verticillium* (#50). [▲] *Taphrinomycetes*, e.g., *Taphrina* (#189) (‘leaf curl’). (b) TimeTree phylograms of fungi genome sequences which were edited by TToL5 server (www.timetree.org) with depiction

of geological Timescale and Divergence times (MYA) with indications of environmental indicators of O₂ and CO₂ levels and solar energy levels [16,20].

Genome sizes of *Aspergillus* Fungi

Genome sizes of fungi genus *Aspergillus* were found to vary from 27.8 to 40.2 x10⁶ bpDNA (Table 1). The genome size of *A. flavus* (37.7 x10⁶ bpDNA) shows smaller size than the descendent (90-100 MYA) species of *A. oryzae* (37.9 x10⁶ bpDNA) (Figure 3) [21,22] which may indicate gene-gain or genome variation taking place during *genome reductive evolution* of parasites and decomposers [23-25]. [To compare, plant genome of *A. thaliana* is 0.1191 x10⁹ bpDNA, NCBI# GCA_000001735.2; and the human genome is 3.1 x10⁹ bpDNA, NCBI# GCA_000001405.29].

Table 1: Genome sizes of some *Aspergillus* species/isolates of >#1,515 entries to date at NCBI/Genome (www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov) in increasing sizes. The mtDNA mitome sizes of *A. flavus*◆ (29.205 bpDNA), and *A. oryzae*■ strain RIB40 (29.202 bpDNA) (NCBI# AP007176.1) are indicated [26]

<i>Aspergillus</i> species	Genomes (n) (x10 ⁶ bpDNA)	Chr. #	NCBI entry #	Submitting dates	Submitters
<i>A. glaucus</i>	27.8	n.a.	GCF_001890805.1	2016	DOE Joint Genome Inst. USA
<i>A. cristatus</i>	28.3	14	GCA_054825215.1	2026	Shenzhen University, China
<i>A. terreus</i>	29.3	n.a.	AAJN00000000.1	2005	Broad Institute, USA
<i>A. niger</i>	33.9	8	GCF_000002855.4	2007	DSM, The Netherlands
<i>A. flavus</i> *	37.7	8(+mt◆)	GCA_009017415.1	2019	Univ. of California, Berkeley
<i>A. oryzae</i> *	37.9	8(+mt■)	GCF_000184455.2	2011	NITE, Japan
<i>A. sojae</i>	40.1	8	GCA_008274985.1	2019	South Korea, Chungbuk
<i>A. alliaceus</i>	40.2	n.a.	GCF_009176365.1	2019	DOE Joint Genome Inst. USA

A. oryzae genome entries at Mycobank.org database comprises from *A. oryzae* var. *oryzae*, 1884 [MB #418420] to *A. oryzae* var. *globosus*, 1944 [MB #351901]. The entry numbers of *A. flavus* (#23 isolates/species) includes *A. flavus*, 1809 [MB #209842] and *A. flavus* var. *parvisclerotigenus*, 1993, 2005 [MB #500166].

Two new *aflatoxin* producer *Aspergillus* species were identified recently the *A. [27]. pseudocaelatus sp. nov.*, and *A. pseudonomius sp. nov.*, both from the section *A. Flavi*, which section includes *A. flavus* and *A. parasiticus*. A *sterigmatocystin* hyperproducer *A. creber* was also isolated recently [28].

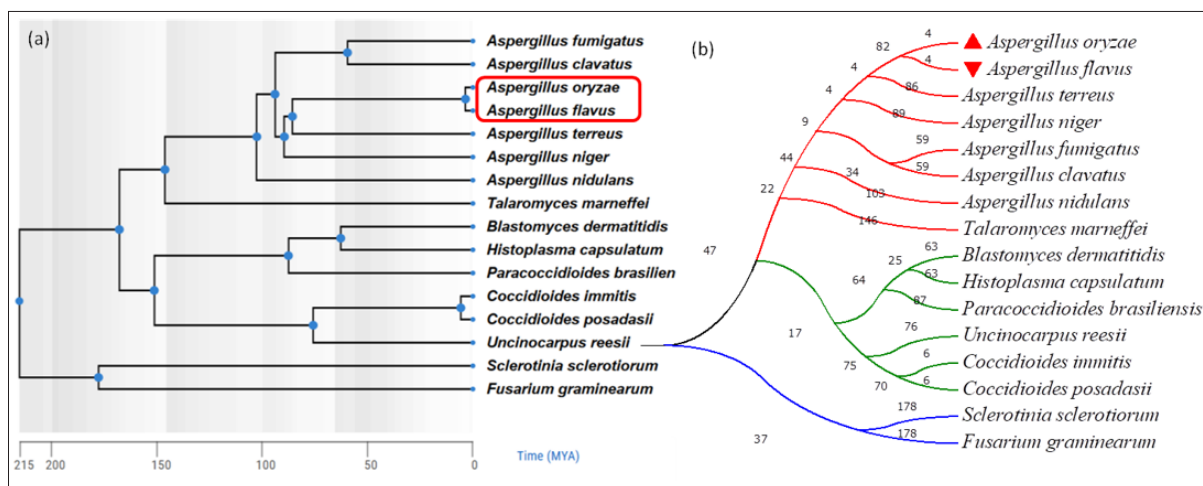


Figure 3: Phylogenetic tree (a) (ML, Maximum Likelihood) of *Aspergillus* genes with TimeLine (MYA) indication of *Aspergillus* and related fungi species based on #1148 genes were reedited from the data of Sharpton et al., 2009, *Genome Res*, 10:1722-31, DOI: 10.1101/gr.087551.108). The phylogram was data minded and edited by TOL5 server [16] (www.timetree.org). (b) Reedition of phylograms (a) by MEGA7 computer program [19]. Species of *A. flavus* and *A. oryzae*, and the branch lengths are indicated.

Mitogenomes (mtDNA) of *Aspergillus* Fungi

Sequences of the complete mitochondrial DNAs (mtDNA) studied here showed high level of DNA sequence similarity which reflects

high level of conserved gene orders (Table 1, Figure 4) [26,29]. However, the mtDNA sequence variations of human pathogen *A. fumigatus* showed diagnostic levels [30].

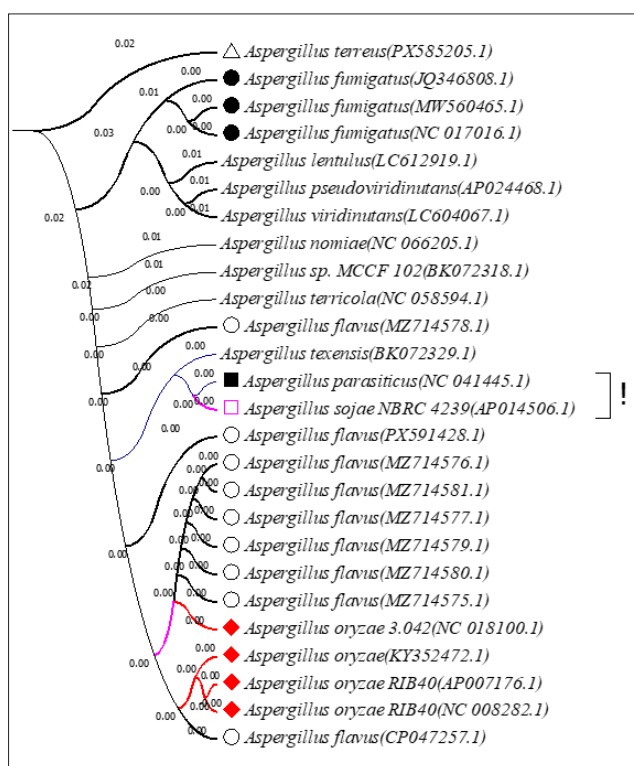


Figure 4: Phylogram (NJ), edited by NCBI/DistanceTree, of complete mitochondrial genomes (mtDNA) of *Aspergillus* species aligned to mitogenome of *A. oryzae* strain RIB40 (29,202 bpDNA, NCBI#AP007176.1) with the indication (!) of the poisonous *A. parasiticus* which grouped to *A. sojae* in the same a branch.

The guanine=cytosine content (GC%) of *Aspergillus* mtDNAs were found to have low levels (>25%) compared to the ‘theoretical’ level (50%) [26,31,32]. In mtDNA analysis, *A. oryzae* showed the closest similarity to *A. terreus*, however, in our study the mtDNA of *A. terreus* was found in an independent clade (Figure 4) [32].

In general, the sizes (Table 1, Figure 4) of *Aspergillus* mtDNAs were found to be closer to the human (*Homo sapiens*) mtDNA (16.569 bpDNA, encoding 37 genes; NCBI# NC_012920.1) then to the huge plant mtDNAs (e.g., *Arabidopsis thaliana*, 367.808 bpDNA, encoding 58 genes; NCBI# BK010421.1).

Aflatoxins (AFs) Produced by *Aspergillus* Fungi

Aflatoxins produced by *Aspergillus* species [i.e., *Aspergillus FLAVUS* TOXIN) back to the turkey poultry (*Meleagris gallopavo*) disease, UK, 1960s [MW: 328.27 g mol⁻¹; C₁₇H₁₂O₇, PubChem CID #14403, Aflatoxin B1] are the most poisonous *mycotoxins* compared to, e.g., ergot alkaloids of *Claviceps*, or *patulin* of *Penicillium patulum* (Figure 5) [33].

Toxicity mechanism of aflatoxins (-M1, -B1, -B2, -G1, -G2) (Figure 5) is suggested to inhibit the DNA and RNA polymerase enzymes (<https://pubchem.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov>).

Species of *Aspergillus* section *Flavi*, e.g., *A. flavus* and *A. parasiticus* produce aflatoxins, while species of *Aspergillus* section *Circumdati*, e.g., *A. ochraceus* and *A. sclerotiorum* produce *ochratoxin* [34,35].

Species of the non-toxic *A. oryzae* and *A. sojae* are postulated to be domesticated ecotypes developed from the toxic *A. flavus* by inactivation of aflatoxin genes [36-41]. The gene inactivations were resulted from a 257 bpDNA deletion from the *aflT* gene, a frameshift mutation in *norA* gene, and base pair substitutions in the *verA* gene of the cluster of 25 genes in the 70 kbpDNA region of genomic DNA of *A. flavus* [21,42].

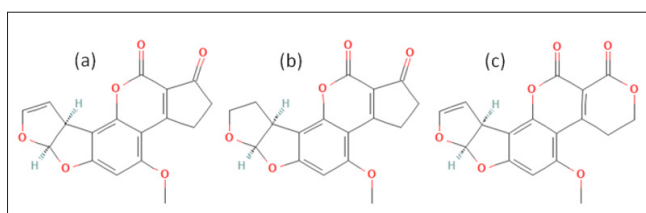


Figure 5: Molecular structures of aflatoxins -B1 (a), -B2 (b), and -G1 (c) [<https://pubchem.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov>]

Cellulase Enzymes Produced by *Aspergillus* Fungi

Gene clusters of extracellular production of cellulase enzymes complex comprises *endoglucanase*, *exoglucanase* and *β-glucosidase* which digest cellulose to glucose [43,44]. The whole enzymatic process was analyzed in *A. oryzae* and found 26 genes involved in the processes [44,45]. Cellulase enzyme activities provided possibility of cellulose industry, and the basis of Asian food industry for thousands of years [46,47].

RiPPs, Ribosomally Synthesized and Post-Translationally Modified Bactericide Peptides Produced by *Aspergillus* Fungi

The bactericide peptide *nisin* (Figure 6) [^NInhibitory *Streptococcus substance*’, the suffix ‘-in’ indicate the antibacterial properties] of *A. oryzae* was identified in the same year 1928 of penicillin discovery from *P. rubens* by Flemming, A., Nobel Prize in Physiology or Medicine, 1945 [48,49].

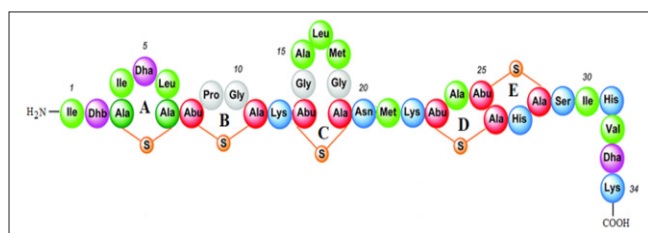


Figure 6: Molecular composition of the *nisin* RiPPs peptide. The numbers of amino acids with three letter codes (1 to 34), pentacyclic rings (A to E), disulphide bonds (S), and N- and C-terminals of the protein chain are indicated [50].

The thioether amino acids of *nisin* molecules (e.g., lanthionine, *Lan*; and methyllanthionine. *MeLan*) are synthesized through post-translational modifications (i.e., ribosomally synthesized and post-translationally modified peptides: RiPPs) [51-53].

Molecular structure of *nisin* peptides [E234, 34 amino acid, FW: 3354.07 g mol⁻¹, Nisin-A: C₁₄₃H₂₃₀N₄₂O₃₇S₇] shows pentacyclic rings (Figure 6). In the protein database www.uniprot.org, #3,904, mainly bacterial *nisin* entries are available coupled with >#30 *Aspergillus* entries.

Nisins (-A,-F,-G,-J,-H,-U, and -VP) inhibit food borne Gram-positive bacterium *Listeria monocytogenes* which causes food borne illness *listeriosis*, and was found to also inhibit *enterococci*, *staphylococci*, and *streptococci* [54].

Genes of the 30% of *Nisin* biosynthetic gene clusters (nBGCs) were predicted to be located on mobile genetic elements (plasmids, transposons, and mobile prophages), which indicate the nBGCs from bacteria to mammals [52].

Nisin-like peptides were identified recently in 5 phyla, 25 families, 59 genera, and 123 species of bacteria (e.g., the human pathogens *Streptococcus suis*, *S. agalactiae* and *S. aureus*) [52].

Asperigimycin Produced by *Aspergillus* Fungi

Fungal RiPPs of *asperigimycin* (Figure 7) with central molecule of *aspergicin* [C₂₀H₁₇N₃O₄; MW: 363.4 g mol⁻¹] was studied as a potential medicine for human cancer therapy in #12 *Aspergillus* species including *A. flavus* and *A. oryzae* through protein-protein interactions (SLC46A3; NM_181785.4) [21,53,55].

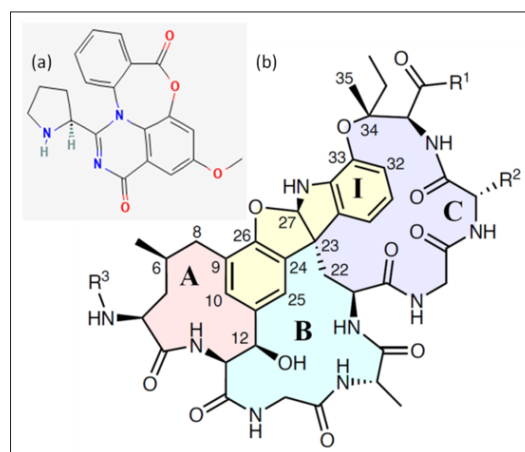


Figure 7: Molecular structure of *aspergicin* (a), and *asperigimycin* (b). Rings (A, B, and C, benzofuran-indole I), and side chains (R¹ to R³) are indicated [53].

Gliotoxins Produced by *Aspergillus* Fungi

Gliotoxin [C₁₃H₁₄N₂O₄S₂, MW: 326.39 g·mol⁻¹] is an immunosuppressive peptide (Figure 8) of epi-polythio-dioxo-piperazines (ETPs) [56]. It was named and isolated first from *Gliocladium fimbriatum* in 1936, and later was found in human patients infected by *Aspergillosis* (IPA, invasive pulmonary aspergillosis) caused by *A. fumigatus* [1]. The synthesis of gliotoxin starts from *phenylalanine* and *serine* amino acids (aa) (Figure 8) followed by regulating by 13 enzyme genes regulated by *gli* gene cluster [57,58].

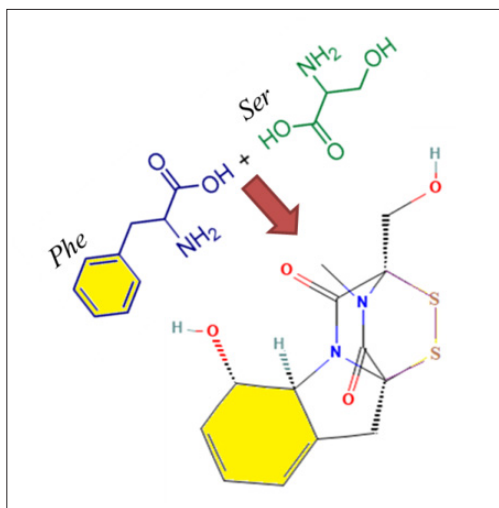


Figure 8: Molecular structure of gliotoxin (<https://pubchem.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/compound>), an immunosuppressive protein-toxin produced by *Aspergillus fumigatus* (benzyl ring of Phe aa is labeled in yellow) [58].

NRPs, Non-Ribosomal Peptides Produced by *Aspergillus* Fungi

The synthesis of NRPs peptides (*Non-Ribosomal Peptides*) differ from RiPPs as they are synthesized by *NRPs peptide synthetases* enzyme complexes. The NCBI/Protein databank shows, e.g., of *NRPs6* of *Aspergillus fumigatus*, KAH1618191, 1240 aa; and KAH3371766, 1083 aa. The *NRPs4* of *Penicillium rubens* is 2076 aa, KAJ5044881. For *Aspergillus* species 25 NRPs entries are available to date (Figure 9).

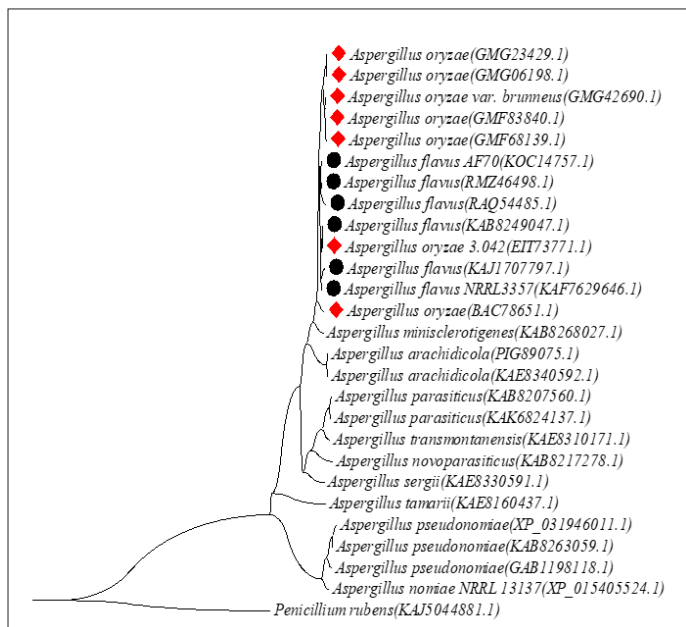


Figure 9: NJ cladogram (NCBI) of NRP peptide sequences of *Aspergillus* with *Penicillium rubens* outgroup and the genbank entry numbers. *A. oryzae* and *A. flavus* entries are labeled.

The *NRPs-4* gene clusters for *fusahexin* (Figure 10), *NRPs-5/9* for *fusaoctaxin* and *NRPs-8* for *gramilin* were identified which escape the functions of mRNAs and ribosomes [35,59-62].

Key enzyme of the *NRPs* are the ACV synthetases [Amino-adipeyl-Cysteiny-Valine, Syn.: N-(5-amino-5-carboxypentanoyl)-

L-cysteinyl-D-valine] (EC 6.3.2.26) encoded by *PcbAB* gene cluster, which also participates in the biosyntheses of *penicillin* and *cephalosporin*, and which has very likely been transferred horizontally from prokaryotic cyanobacterial blue-green algae (i.e., Cyanobacteria, e.g., of *Anabaena* sp., and *Microcystis* sp.) to *Ascomycota fungi* (e.g., *Aspergillus nidulans*, XM_655133.1) [63].

ACV synthetase of *Penicillium chrysogenum* (ABR12615) has 3791 aa; *Aspergillus oryzae* (EIT77324) has 3774 aa; *Aspergillus flavus* (RAQ52156) has 3753 aa; and *Aspergillus parasiticus* (KAK6829282) has 3774 aa.

Further *NRPs* sequences were identified, e.g., *fusaric acid* (FA, from *Fusarium* and *Penicillium* species), *fusahexin* (from *F. graminearum*) (Figure 10), *gramilin* (from *Fusarium graminearum*), *apicidin F* (APF, from *Fusarium fujikuroi*), *fusarochromene* (*NRPs*-like, from *Fusarium sacchari*), *fusaristatin A* (a lipopeptide) and *oxysporidinone* (from *Fusarium oxysporum*), *fusaridione A* (from *F. heterosporum*), and *chrysogine* (from *Penicillium chrysogenum*) (The Dictionary of Natural Products. <https://dnp.chemn etbase.com.>, 2023) [59,64]. A hexa-cyclic *fusahexin* was isolated from *F. graminearum* [59].

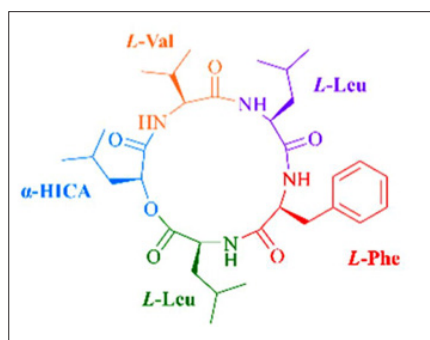


Figure 10: *Fusahexin*, a sample of cyclic NRPs, a penta-cyclic oligo peptide (isolated first from *F. graminearum*), three letter codes of aa are indicated [65].

Polyketides (PKs) Produced by *Ascomycota Aspergillus Fumigatus* and *Basidiomycota Fungi*

Polyketides (PKs) are chemical compounds with multi ketone groups ($RR'C=C=O$) [66]. It was identified first in *Penicillium griseofulvum*, and later was found from bacteria to animals. Polyketide synthetases enzyme complexes (i.e., *mPKs* – modular PKs) contribute in synthesis of antibiotics (e.g., *tetracycline*) and anticancer drugs (e.g., *taxane*) [67,68].

Taxane [Mw 276.5 g mol⁻¹, PubChem CID 9548828, Budapest Treaty #CBS 279.92] (Figure 11) is produced by *Taxomyces andreanae*, (*Basidiomycota*) #ASM196922v1 which was isolated from yew tree (*Taxus brevifolia*) and used to treat human prostatitis [69].

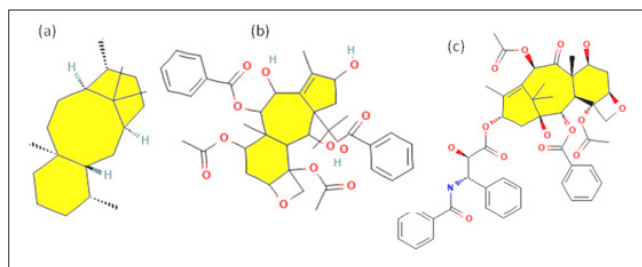


Figure 11: Molecular structures of taxane (a) [MW: 276.5 g mol⁻¹, gene *xanE* (*O*-methyltransferase; NCBI #3505486) of *Aspergillus fumigatus* Af293]; and the chemically modified

taxanes of *deacetylTAXchinin* (b) [MW: 692.7 g mol⁻¹], and *paclitaxel* (taxol) (c) [MW: 853.9 g mol⁻¹, #33069-62-4] (<https://pubchem.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/clinpgx.org/pathway>) [70,71].

Mycolactone with a huge mPK gene complex (51 Kbp DNA; *mlsA1*, *mlsA2*, and *mlsB*) encodes an 1800 kDa protein which was found to consists of nine functional enzymes identified in human pathogen *Mycobacterium ulcerans* (Figure 12) [68,72].

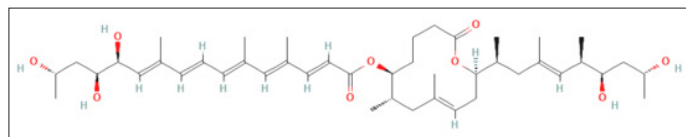


Figure 12: Molecular structure of *mycolactone* polyketide [Mw 743.0 g mol⁻¹, PubChem CID #5282079] (<https://pubchem.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov>)

Methodology

Gene sequences were downloaded from servers of NCBI and UNIPROT (www.uniprot.org) followed by alignments by ClustalW computer program inbuilt to NCBI and Bio Edit computer programs according to Kukolya et al, Heszky and Gyulai et al. [25,73-77]. Phylogenetic NJ and ML phylograms were edited by computer programs MEGA7-and-12 [19]. *TimeTree* of Life phylograms were edited by server of TToL5 timetree.org [16]. For analyze of numbers and molecular structures of groups and species of fungi six databank were used www.speciesfungorum.org, www.indexfungorum.org, www.mycobank.org, www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov / pubchem.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov, and www.gbif.org/species.

Conclusion

Aspergillus oryzae of *Ascomycota* fungi shows adaptive evolutionary and speciation event which indicates how a poisonous fungus turn to became a harmless new fungus species used in food industry for thousand years. Genes and poisonous metabolites of *Aspergillus* and related fungi became also the source of antibacterial and tumor therapy agents used in human medication. These fungal properties urge the research work to isolate and modify newer and newer fungal compounds.

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