# **REVIEW ARTICLE**

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# Laccases and other polyphenol oxidases in ecto- and ericoid mycorrhizal fungi

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**Abstract** Polyphenol oxidases are known to be produced by a range of ectomycorrhizal (ECM) and ericoid mycorrhizal fungi. These enzymes include laccase (EC 1.10.3.2), catechol oxidase (EC 1.10.3.1) and tyrosinase (EC 1.14.18.1), between which there exists considerable overlap in substrate affinities. In this review we consider the nature and function of these enzymes, along with the difficulties associated with assigning precise enzymatic descriptions. The evidence for production of laccase and other polyphenol oxidases by ECM and ericoid mycorrhizal fungi is critically assessed and their potential significance to the mycorrhizal symbioses discussed.

**Keywords** Laccase · Polyphenol oxidase · Catechol oxidase · Tyrosinase · Mycorrhizas

## Introduction

Ectomycorrhizal (ECM) associations are thought to be important in tree nutrition and to represent a key component of mineral nutrient and carbon cycling processes in temperate, boreal and some tropical forest habitats (Smith and Read 1997). In addition to enhancing host access to inorganic forms of N and P, many ECM fungi are known to facilitate access to some organic forms of these elements in soil (Leake and Read 1997). Phylogenetic analyses of DNA sequences from extant fungal taxa suggest that the ECM condition evolved convergently from several ancestral lineages of saprotrophic fungi (Hibbett et al. 1997; Bruns et al. 1998; Kretzer and Bruns 1999).

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Although widely assumed to have diverged from their saprotrophic ancestors in their abilities to degrade dead plant cell wall polymers, it is increasingly clear that many ECM fungal taxa can partially degrade some plant wall components (reviewed in Cairney and Burke 1994; Leake and Read 1997). Such an ability may afford these fungi access to mineral nutrients either sequestered within dead plant cells or complexed with cell wall components such as lignins and their phenolic derivatives (Leake and Read 1997). The fact that evolutionary reversals from the ECM to saprotrophic condition also appear to have occurred in some basidiomycete taxa led Hibbett et al. (2000) to speculate that genes for hydrolytic and oxidative saprotrophic enzyme systems may be widespread in extant ECM fungi. Recent data support this hypothesis to some extent, and indicate that genes for lignin peroxidases and, to a lesser extent, manganese peroxidases (two key enzymes in lignin degradation by many white rot basidiomycetes) are present in a broad taxonomic range of extant ECM fungi (Chen et al. 2001). The extent to which the functional proteins encoded by these genes are expressed in the ECM fungi, however, remains unclear.

Partial mineralisation of lignin or dehydrogenative polymers of lignin monomers has been demonstrated for some ECM fungi growing in axenic culture (Trojanowski et al. 1984; Haselwandter et al. 1990). This has often been taken to indicate an ability to produce lignin peroxidase (EC 1.11.1.14) and manganese peroxidase (EC 1.11.1.13) activities (e.g. Griffiths and Caldwell 1992; Cairney and Burke 1994). We have argued elsewhere (Burke and Cairney 1998; Cairney and Burke 1998a) that this may not necessarily be the case; however, there is evidence that the ECM fungus Tylospora fibrillosa produces manganese peroxidase activity (Chambers et al. 1999). Furthermore, given the widespread occurrence of lignin peroxidase genes in ECM fungi (Chen et al. 2001), it seems likely that some taxa will also express these enzymes under some conditions.

In addition to lignin and manganese peroxidases, laccase is thought to contribute to lignin degradation by

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some white rot fungi (Hatakka 1994). Laccase, along with a range of related phenol-oxidising activities, has also been reported in several ECM fungi and the ericoid mycorrhizal fungal endophyte *Hymenoscyphus ericae*. These activities have been detected using a range of substrates, assay procedures and fungal tissues. In the following sections we review the nature of these enzymes, the evidence for their production by ECM and ericoid mycorrhizal fungi and consider their potential significance to the symbioses.

#### Laccases and other polyphenol oxidases

#### Characteristics of the enzymes

Laccase (systematic name: benzenediol:oxygen oxidoreductase; synonyms urishiol oxidase, p-diphenol oxidase. EC 1.10.3.2) is one of the blue copper proteins (sometimes called the blue copper oxidases) which catalyse the reduction of  $O_2$  to  $H_2O$  using a range of phenolic compounds (though not tyrosine) as hydrogen donor (Thurston 1994). Unfortunately, laccase shares a number of hydrogen donors with monophenol monooxygenase (= tyrosinase) (systematic name: monophenol, L-DOPA (3, 4-dihydroxy-L-phenylalanine):oxygen oxidoreductase; synonyms phenolase, monophenol oxidase, cresolase. EC 1.14.18.1), making it difficult to assign unique descriptions to either enzyme. A further complication is the overlap in activity between monophenol monooxygenase and catechol oxidase (systematic name: 1,2-benzenediol:oxygen oxidoreductase; synonyms diphenol oxidase, o-diphenolase, phenolase, polyphenol oxidase, tyrosinase. EC 1.10.3.1).

Notwithstanding the broad range of substrates accepted by laccase as hydrogen donors, oxidation of syringaldazine [N, N'-bis(3, 5-dimethoxy-4-hydroxybenzylidene hydrazine], in combination with the inability to oxidise tyrosine (L-3-[4-hydroxyphenyl]alanine), has been taken to be an indicator of laccase activity (Harkin et al. 1974; Thurston 1994). The report of a "pluripotent" polyphenol oxidase from a marine bacterium (Alteromonas sp.) that is capable of oxidising syringaldazine along with monophenols and diphenols (Sanchez-Amat and Solano 1997), however, suggests that there may be exceptions to this definition of laccase activity. Unambiguous determination of laccase activity is best achieved by purification of the protein to electrophoretic homogeneity followed by determination of  $K_{\rm m}$  or  $K_{\rm cat}$  against multiple substrates. Ideally these should include substrates such as syringaldazine, ABTS (2, 2-azinobis-[3-ethylbenzothiazoline-6-sulphonic acid]) or catechol (1, 2 dihydroxybenzene), for which laccase has a high affinity, and some (e.g. tyrosine) for which laccase has little or no affinity (see e.g. Edens et al. 1999; Shin and Lee 2000). Where protein purification has not been undertaken, the use of selective inhibitors of tyrosinase activity [e.g. 4-hexylresorcinol or salycylhydroxamic acid (SHAM)] may facilitate estimation of laccase activity (Allen and Walker 1988; Dawley and Flurkey 1993).

In common with catechol oxidase and tyrosinase, laccase catalyses the four-electron reduction of  $O_2$  to  $H_2O$ . In the case of laccase, at least, this is coupled to the single electron oxidation of the hydrogen-donating substrate (Reinhammar and Malmstrom 1981). Since four singleelectron substrate oxidation steps are required for the four-electron reduction of water, the analogy of a fourelectron "battery" has been proposed to explain this complex mechanism (Thurston 1994; Call and Mücke 1997). Though the exact catalytic mechanism has still to be elucidated, laccase is known to be highly oxidising [redox potential  $(E_0)$  500–800 mV] (Xu 1996; Xu et al. 2000) and the presence of four cupric ions each co-ordinated to a single polypeptide chain is an absolute requirement for optimal activity (Ducros et al. 1998). In comparison to the  $E_0$  values for laccase (Xu 1996), there have been few measurements of the redox potentials of tyrosinase or catechol oxidase. However, Ghosh and Mukherjee (1998) estimated  $E_0$  of a tyrosinase model system to be 260 mV, considerably lower than that reported for laccase, suggesting that this class of enzyme is much less oxidising than laccase.

Regulation of laccase expression in white rot fungi

From what is known, regulation of laccase production in white rot fungi is complex and may vary in different taxa. In Pycnoporus cinnabarinus, for example, an increase in the C:N ratio increases laccase activity (Eggert et al. 1996b). In Phanerochaete chrysosporium, readily available C in the form of glucose represses laccase production irrespective of the amount of N present; however, in the presence of the more recalcitrant microcrystalline cellulose, increasing N availability increases laccase activity (Srinivasan et al. 1995). In Trametes versicolor, increasing availability of Cu or N resulted in increased levels of laccase mRNA transcripts and laccase activity (Collins and Dobson 1997). A variety of aromatic compounds have further been shown to induce laccase production in a variety of white rot basidiomycetes (Collins and Dobson 1997; Koroljova-Skorobogat'ko et al. 1998).

Intracellular laccase activities?

Although most reports of laccase activities in white rot fungi relate to extracellular enzymes, several suggest the existence of intracellular laccases in, for example, the white rot basidiomycete *T. versicolor* and the chestnut blight fungus *Cryphonectria parasitica* (e.g. Roy-Arcand and Archibald 1991; Rigling and Van Alfen 1993; Schlosser et al. 1997). Such intracellular laccases have been separated from their extracellular counterparts on the basis of pH optimum, isoelectric point and/or molecular mass, but all appear to have similar substrate ranges. Whether the intracellular activities represent actual intracellular laccases, extracellular laccases in the process of being exported, or a combination of the two remains to be determined (Schlosser et al. 1997). The functional significance (if any) of the intracellular activities thus remains unclear. However, a number of potential functions have been proposed for extracellular laccases.

# Functions proposed for laccases in non-mycorrhizal fungi

Laccases in lignin degradation

Given the oxidising characteristics (high redox potential) of laccase, and the fact that it is produced during lignin degradation by some white rot fungi, it has been suggested to contribute to lignin degradation by oxidising free phenolic groups to phenoxy cation radicals (e.g. Hatakka 1994; Youn et al. 1995). Laccase has also been shown to degrade non-phenolic lignin model compounds in systems incorporating naturally occurring or synthetic redox mediators (e.g. Call and Mücke 1997; Johannes and Majcherczyk 2000; Srebotnik and Hammel 2000). Redox mediators are oxidisable, low molecular weight, laccase substrates. These substrates yield radicals that are capable of diffusing away from the reactive site and acting as oxidants for other compounds. Importantly, some mediators can oxidise compounds such as lignin, which would not be oxidisable by laccase alone (Johannes and Majcherczyk 2000). P. cinnabarinus, which produces no other lignin-degrading enzymes but completely degrades lignin, produces a metabolite (3-hydroxyanthranilate) that acts as a redox mediator for the depolymerisation of nonphenolic lignin by laccase (Eggert et al. 1996a, 1997). For most fungi, however, the precise role(s) of laccase in ligninolysis remain poorly understood (Thurston 1994). In contrast to laccase, the low redox potential of tyrosinase (Ghosh and Mukherjee 1998) suggests that this enzyme does not participate in degradative processes.

#### Laccases in growth and development

Laccase activity has been reported to be associated with normal mycelial growth in a range of fungi (Das et al. 1997), and in the development of rhizomorphs and sclerotia in certain basidiomycete and ascomycete taxa (Worrell et al. 1986; Rehman and Thurston 1992; Willetts and Bullock 1992; Griffith et al. 1994). It has also been detected in association with a change from coenocytic to septate mycelial growth of Phlebia spp. (White and Boddy 1992a), and in zones of mycelial contact between competing basidiomycetes (White and Boddy 1992b; Iakovlev and Stenlid 2000). Several workers have noted associations between laccase activity and basidiome production. In Schizophyllum commune, basidiome-forming dikaryons, but not non-fruiting monokaryons, produce abundant extracellular laccase activity (Leonard 1971; De Vries et al. 1986), while in Lentinula edodes the enzyme has been implicated in both basidiome initiation and further development (Leatham and Stahmann 1981; Zhao and Kwan 1999). In some saprotrophic basidiomycetes, expression of laccase genes and/or accumulation of laccase occurs during vegetative growth, but both expression and activity decline following basidiome initiation (e.g. Wood 1980a, b; Ross 1982; Bonnen et al. 1994; Ohga et al. 1999). While indicative of putative relationships between laccase activity and basidiome production, these observations provide no confirmation of a direct developmental role for laccase. The respective conditions required for maximal laccase synthesis and for basidiome production in S. commune are, for example, quite different (De Vries et al. 1986). In Agaricus bisporus, oscillations in laccase activity may relate to cycles of ligninolytic activity, and basidiome production may simply be coincident with these (Bonnen et al. 1994; Thurston 1994). Indeed, in Pleurotus sajorcaju, similar oscillations in laccase activity occur in the absence of basidiome initiation (Tan and Wahab 1997).

Relationships between laccase activities and fruiting have been investigated in more detail in ascomycetes and there is evidence of regulation both spatially and temporally at the tissue level during differentiation of conidia and ascomata in *Aspergillus* and *Sordaria* spp. (Clutterbuck 1972; Hermann et al. 1983; Broxholme et al. 1991). In *Aspergillus nidulans*, different laccase isozymes are expressed during asexual and sexual reproductive phases. Laccase I is expressed during asexual development and is required for formation of a green pigment from a yellow polyketide-derived precursor (Aramayo and Timberlake 1993), while laccase II is specifically expressed during cleistothecial development and may be involved in hyphal aggregation or pigment conversion (Scherer and Fischer 1998).

With the exception of the A. nidulans system, the roles played by laccases in fungal growth and differentiation are largely unclear. Laccase has, however, been variously implicated in chemical cross-linking of hyphae via oxidative polymerisation of phenols with hyphal surface carbohydrates and proteins in rhizomorphs, sclerotia and fruiting bodies (e.g. Bu'Lock 1967; Leatham et al. 1980; Broxholme et al. 1991; Zhao and Kwan 1999). In addition, laccases have been suggested to be involved in melanin production (Iakovlev and Stenlid 2000), detoxification of toxic phenolics (e.g. Haars et al. 1981) and/or promotion of hyphal insulation via polymerisation of secondary metabolites and proteins (Griffith et al. 1994). While such functional roles remain the subject of discussion, it is increasingly clear that many fungi produce multiple laccase isozymes, encoded by differentially expressed genes, that may fulfil different functions (e.g. Wahleithner et al. 1996; Yaver et al. 1996; Mansur et al. 1998; Scherer and Fischer 1998; Zhao and Kwan 1999; Chakraborty et al. 2000; Shin and Lee 2000).

#### Laccases in pathogen-host interactions

Laccase is thought to be important in pathogenicity of the human pathogen Cryptococcus neoformans (Williamson 1994). Its role in pathogenicity was regarded as oxidation of aromatic substrates to products that subsequently polymerise to form melanin, a compound thought to protect the pathogen against host oxidative immune responses or to bind microbicidal proteins (Williamson 1994; Wang et al. 1995; Salas et al. 1996; Doering et al. 1999). Recent observations, however, cast some doubt on the postenzymatic polymerisation of melanin from oxidation products produced by laccase (Liu et al. 1999b). Rather, laccase may protect C. neoformans from hydroxyl radical-mediated attack by macrophages via oxidation of phagosomal iron to Fe<sup>3+</sup> and a concomitant reduction in hydroxyl radical formation (Liu et al. 1999a). Laccases have further been implicated in pathogenicity of a range of plant pathogenic fungi that includes the soft rot fungus Botrytis cinerea, the chestnut blight fungus Cryphonectria parasitica, the Dutch elm disease fungus Ophiostoma novo-ulmi and the take-all pathogen Gaeumannomyces graminis (Bar-Nun et al. 1988; Rigling and Van Alfen 1993; Binz and Canevascini 1996; Edens et al. 1999). The roles of laccases in plant:pathogen interactions remain poorly understood, but a role in melanin synthesis has, again, been proposed in some plant pathogenic fungi (Edens et al. 1999). Other proposed roles of plant pathogen laccases include detoxification of phytoalexins and other plant phenolics (Rigling and Van Alfen 1993; Anderson and Nicholson 1996: Binz and Canevascini 1996: Breuil et al. 1999) and protection against host oxidative responses (Edens et al. 1999). In Armillaria mellea, oxidation of Fe<sup>2+</sup> by laccase within host tissue may enhance fungal competition for the element (Curir et al. 1997), while a potential role for laccase in lignin degradation has also been proposed for G. graminis during penetration of host defence-related lignotubers (Edens et al. 1999).

### Evidence for laccases and other polyphenol oxidases in ecto- and ericoid mycorrhizal fungi

Phenol oxidising activities, including laccase, have been reported for a number of ECM fungi and for the ericoid mycorrhizal fungus *H. ericae* (Table 1). These activities have been detected using axenic mycelia, non-sterile mycelia, sporocarp tissue or ECM root tips, and encompass unspecified polyphenol oxidases, along with apparent catechol oxidase, tyrosinase and laccase activities. In most cases, the identity of laccase or other phenol oxidising enzymes has been assigned on the basis of their activities against single hydrogen donating substrates.

That extracellular oxidation of polyphenolic compounds occurs in axenic cultures of some ECM fungi and *H. ericae* has been demonstrated repeatedly via observation of the "Bavendamm reaction" during growth in agar plates (Lindeberg 1948; Giltrap 1982; Griffiths and Caldwell 1992; Bending and Read 1997; Gramms et al. 1998). This method involves incorporation of polyphenolic substrates, usually gallic or tannic acids, into the agar, with darkening of the substrate indicating that oxidation has occurred. Oxidation of these substrates can, however, be mediated by a number of phenol-oxidising enzymes, including catechol oxidase, laccase and tyrosinase (Gramms et al. 1998) and, as such, provides no indication as to the enzyme activities involved.

Günther et al. (1998) investigated the disappearance of a range of phenols and phenolic acids from solutions in which axenically-grown mycelia of *Suillus granulatus* or *Paxillus involutus* were suspended. The presence of either fungus resulted in significant reductions in the concentrations of the substrates, particularly for compounds that bore two hydroxyl groups in the *ortho*-position (catechol and 3, 4-dihydroxybenzoic acid) and *para*hydroxylated compounds (vanillic and ferulic acids). These observations are consistent with activity of either tyrosinase or catechol oxidase (rather than laccase), for which considerable overlap in substrate range exists.

# Activities associated with non-sterile mycelia and basidiome material

Several studies have investigated activities associated with extramatrical mycelia of ECM fungi in non-sterile field soil or partly humified litter (Bending and Read 1995; Colpaert and Van Laere 1996; Gramms 1997; Timonen and Sen 1998). While providing ecologically relevant information on enzymatic activities in the mycorrhizosphere, most of these studies were of enzyme activities in extracts of ECM mycelia and the surrounding soil matrix (Bending and Read 1995; Colpaert and Van Laere 1996; Gramms 1997). For this reason, they do not necessarily demonstrate involvement of ECM fungi, as opposed to other components of the soil microflora, in producing the activities reported. Culture fluids from axenic ECM Pinus sylvestris-S. granulatus seedlings, however, showed ABTS-oxidising activity (Günther et al. 1998). In isolation, oxidation of ABTS, while indicative of polyphenol oxidase activity is not diagnostic of a particular enzyme. However, in combination with the observed disappearance of *p*-cresol (4-methylphenol) from the culture fluid, Günther et al. (1998) were able to conclude that the activity was probably tyrosinase-like.

Timonen and Sen (1998) adopted a slightly different approach, removing fragments of ECM fungal mycelium from several regions of a microcosm system and assaying for associated enzyme activities. Oxidation of ABTS was observed in the fungal components of the system, indicating polyphenol oxidase activity. Differences were found in L-DOPA-oxidising activities in different parts of extramatrical mycelia within the microcosm. This was taken by the authors to indicate spatial variation in catechol oxidase activity; however, laccase and tyrosinase can also oxidise this substrate (Allen and Walker 1988; Chefetz et al. 1998). No oxidation of guiacol (2-methoxyphenol) or syringaldazine was observed, allowing Timonen and Sen (1998) to conclude that ABTS-oxidation was not due to laccase activity. Similar activities were also found to be associated with both axenic and

**Table 1** Phenol oxidising activities reported for ectomycorrhizal (ECM) fungi and the ericoid mycorrhizal endophyte *Hymenoscyphus ericae*. *ABTS* 2, 2-Azinobis-(3-ethylbenzothiazoline-6-sulphonic acid); *Bavendamm* gallic and/or tannic acid; *catechol* 1,2-dihydroxybenzene; *p-cresol* 4-methylphenol; *L-DOPA* 3,4-di-hydroxy-L-phenylalanine; *DMP* 2,6-dimethoxyphenol; *DPD N*,*N*-dimethyl-*p*-phenylenediamine; *guaiacol* 2-methoxyphenol; *gum* 

guaiac a natural mixture of ca. 70%  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  guaiaconic acids, 11% guaicic and guaiaretic acids, 15% vanillin, 4% guaiacin; *pyrogallol* 1,2,3-trihydroxybenzene; *SHAM* salicylhydroxamic acid; *syringaldazine* 4-hydroxy-3,5-dimethoxybenzaldehyde azine; *TMPD=N, N, N', N'*-tetramethyl-*p*-phenylenediamine; *L-tyrosine* L-3-(4-hydroxyphenyl)alanine

Activity	Tissue	Assay	Substrate	Fungi	+/	Reference
Polyphenol	Sterile cultured	Agar plate	Bavendamm	ECM fungi	+/	Lindeberg (1948)
Polyphenol	Sterile cultured	Agar plate	Bavendamm	ECM fungi	+/	Giltrap (1982)
Polyphenol oxidase	Sterile cultured mycelium	Agar plate assay	Bavendamm	ECM fungi + Hymenoscyphus	+/	Bending and Read (1997)
Polyphenol	Sterile cultured	Agar plate	Bavendamm	<i>ericae</i> ECM fungi	+/	Gramms et al. (1998)
Polyphenol	Sterile cultured	Agar plate	Bavendamm	ECM fungi	+/	Griffiths and Caldwell (1992)
Polyphenol	Sterile cultured	Spot test in	Gum guaiac	ECM fungi	+/	Gramms et al. (1998)
Polyphenol	Sterile cultured	Spot test in	Gum guaiac	Sphaerosporella	+	Egger (1986)
Polyphenol	Sterile cultured	Spot test	Pyrogallol	ECM fungi +	_	Bending and Read (1997)
Polyphenol	Sterile cultured	Crude culture	Catechol	ECM fungi +	+/	Bending and Read (1996a, b)
Polyphenol	Sterile cultured	Crude culture	Catechol	H. ericae H. ericae	+	Bending and Read (1997)
Polyphenol	Sterile cultured	Extract from	ABTS	Suillus bovinus	_	Timonen and Sen (1998)
Polyphenol	Sterile cultured	Extract from	L-DOPA	Pisolithus	+	Sword and Garrett (1994)
Polyphenol	Sterile cultured	Extract from	L-DOPA	ECM fungi	+	Ramstedt and Söderhäll (1983)
Polyphenol	Sterile cultured	Extract from	L-DOPA	Pisolithus	+	Sword and Garrett (1994)
Polyphenol	Sterile ECM	Extract from	ABTS	ECM roots	+/	Günther et al. (1998)
oxidase Polyphenol	root tips Intact sterile	macerated tissue Crude culture	ABTS	ECM fungi	+/	Günther et al. (1998)
oxidase Polyphenol	ECM system Sporocarps	solution Tissue	Gum guaiac	ECM fungi	+/	Agerer et al. (2000)
oxidase Polyphenol oxidase	Non-sterile ECM	explants Crude extract from	Catechol	Paxillus involutus	+	Bending and Read (1995)
Polyphenol oxidase	mycelium Non-sterile ECM	colonised soil Crude extract from	L-DOPA	ECM fungi	+/	Colpaert and Van Laere (1996)
Catechol	mycelium Sterile cultured	colonised soil Extract from macerated tissue	l-DOPA	Suillus bovinus	_	Timonen and Sen (1998)
(1.10.3.1) Catechol oxidase	mycelium Non-sterile ECM	Extract from macerated	L-DOPA	ECM fungi	+	Timonen and Sen (1998)
(1.10.3.1) Laccase	mycelium Sterile cultured	tissue Spot test in	$\alpha$ -Naphthol	Hebeloma spp	+	Soponsathien (1998)
(1.10.3.2) Laccase	mycelium Sterile cultured	95% ethanol Spot test in	$\alpha$ -Naphthol	Sphaerosporella	+	Egger (1986)
Laccase	Sterile cultured	95% ethanol Spot test in	1-Naphthol	<i>brunnea</i> ECM fungi	+/	Hutchison (1990)
(1.10.3.2) Laccase	Sterile cultured	95% ethanol Spot test in	1-Naphthol	ECM fungi	+/	Gramms et al. (1998)
(1.10.3.2) Laccase	Sterile cultured	95% ethanol Spot test in	Guaiacol	Hebeloma spp	+/	Soponsathien (1998)
(1.10.3.2) Laccase	mycelium Sterile cultured	95% ethanol Spot test in	Syringaldazine	Hebeloma spp	+/	Soponsathien (1998)
(1.10.3.2) Laccase (1.10.3.2)	mycelium Sterile cultured mycelium	95% ethanol Crude culture filtrate	ABTS	ECM fungi	_	Peláez et al. (1995)

 Table 1 (continued)

Activity	Tissue	Assay	Substrate	Fungi	+/	Reference
Laccase $(1, 10, 3, 2)$	Sterile cultured	Crude culture filtrate	ABTS	ECM fungi	+/	Günther et al. (1998)
Laccase $(1 10.3.2)$	Sterile cultured	Crude culture filtrate	Syringaldazine	H. ericae	_	Bending and Read (1997)
Laccase $(1 10.3.2)$	Sterile cultured	Extract from	ABTS	ECM fungi	+	Günther et al. (1998)
$\begin{array}{c} (1.10.3.2) \\ \text{Laccase} \\ (1.10.3.1) \end{array}$	Sterile cultured	Extract from	ABTS	Laccaria amethystea	+	Münzenberger et al. (1997)
Laccase	Sterile cultured	Purified enzyme	ABTS	Thelephora terrestris	+	Kanunfre and Zancan (1998)
(1.10.3.2) Laccase	Sterile cultured	Purified enzyme	Guaiacol	T. terrestris	+	Kanunfre and Zancan (1998)
(1.10.3.2) Laccase	Sterile cultured	Purified enzyme	Syringaldazine	T. terrestris	+	Kanunfre and Zancan (1998)
(1.10.3.2) Laccase	Sterile ECM	Extract from	ABTS	ECM roots	+	Münzenberger et al. (1997)
(1.10.3.1) Laccase	Sporocarps	Tissue explants	Syringaldazine	ECM fungi	+/-	Marr et al. (1986)
(1.10.3.2) Laccase	Sporocarps	Extract from	DPD	<i>Tuber</i> spp	_	Miranda et al. (1996)
(1.10.3.2) Laccase	Non-sterile	Extract from	Guaiacol	ECM fungi	_	Timonen and Sen (1998)
(1.10.3.2) Laccase	Non-sterile	Extract from	Syringaldazine	ECM fungi	_	Timonen and Sen (1998)
(1.10.3.2) Laccase (1.10.3.2)	Non-sterile m ECM myceliu	Crude extract from colonised	ABTS	Hebeloma crustuliniforme	+	Gramms (1997)
Laccase (1.10.3.2)	Non-sterile ECM mycelium	Crude extract from colonised	DMP	H. crustuliniforme	+	Gramms (1997)
Laccase (1.10.3.2)	Non-sterile ECM mycelium	Crude extract from colonised	Guaiacol	H. crustuliniforme	+	Gramms (1997)
Laccase (1.10.3.2)	Non-sterile m ECM myceliu	Crude extract from colonised	TMPD	H. crustuliniforme	+	Gramms (1997)
Laccase (1.10.3.2)	Non-sterile ECM mycelium	Crude extract from colonised	Pyrogallol	H. crustuliniforme	-	Gramms (1997)
Laccase (1.10.3.2)	Non-sterile ECM mycelium	Crude extract from colonised	Syringaldazine	H. crustuliniforme	-	Gramms (1997)
Tyrosinase	Sterile cultured	Spot test in	<i>p</i> -Cresol	Sphaerosporella brunnea	+	Egger (1986)
Tyrosinase	Sterile cultured	Spot test in	<i>p</i> -Cresol	ECM fungi	+/-	Hutchison (1990)
Tyrosinase	Sterile cultured	Spot test in	<i>p</i> -Cresol	ECM fungi	+/-	Gramms et al. (1998)
(1.14.18.1) Tyrosinase	Sterile cultured	Spot test in $H_2O$	<i>p</i> -Cresol	ECM fungi	+/-	Gruhn and Miller (1991)
(1.14.18.1) Tyrosinase (1.10.3.2 or	Sterile cultured mycelium	Spot test in 95% ethanol	<i>p</i> -Cresol	Hebeloma spp	+/	Soponsathien (1998)
Tyrosinase	Sterile cultured	Incubated intact	p-Cresol	ECM fungi	+/-	Günther et al. (1998)
(1.14.18.1) Tyrosinase	Sterile cultured	Crude culture	Catechol	H. ericae	+	Bending and Read (1997)
(1.10.3.1) Tyrosinase	Sterile cultured	Crude culture	(– syringaldazine) L-DOPA (+ sham)	ECM fungi	_	Günther et al. (1998)
(1.14.18.1) Tyrosinase	mycelium Sterile cultured	filtrate Crude culture	<i>p</i> -Cresol	ECM fungi	+/	Günther et al. (1998)
(1.14.18.1) Tyrosinase	mycelium Sterile cultured	filtrate Extract from	l-DOPA	ECM fungi	+/-	Gruhn and Miller (1991)
(1.14.18.1) Tyrosinase	Sterile cultured	Extract from	L-DOPA (+ sham)	ECM fungi	+/-	Günther et al. (1998)
(1.14.18.1) Tyrosinase (1.14.18.1)	mycelium Intact sterile ECM system	macerated tissue Crude culture solution	<i>p</i> -Cresol	ECM fungi	+/	Günther et al. (1998)

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Table 1 (continued)

Activity	Tissue	Assay	Substrate	Fungi	+/	Reference
Tyrosinase (1.14.18.1)	Sporocarps	Tissue explants	p-Cresol	ECM fungi	+/-	Marr et al. (1986)
Tyrosinase (1.14.18.1)	Sporocarps	Tissue explants	L-Tyrosine	ECM fungi	+/	Marr et al. (1986)
Tyrosinase (1.14.18.1)	Sporocarps	Extract from macerated tissue	L-Tyrosine	Tuber spp	+	Miranda et al. (1996)
Tyrosinase (1.14.18.1)	Non-sterile ECM mycelium	Crude extract from colonised soil	Chlorogenic acid	H. crustuliniforme	+	Gramms (1997)
Tyrosinase (1.14.18.1)	Non-sterile ECM mycelium	Crude extract from colonised soil	l-DOPA	H. crustuliniforme	+	Gramms (1997)

non-sterile mycelia of *P. involutus*, suggesting that this activity was probably of fungal origin. The assay used by Timonen and Sen (1998), however, involved maceration of fungal tissue prior to testing for substrate oxidation, making it impossible to determine if the measured activities were intracellular or cell-surface-bound. Thus, although a convincing demonstration that physiological heterogeneity exists within ECM mycelia in soil, the functional relevance of the measured activities in terms of interactions between the fungi and soil organic matter is difficult to assess. Similar arguments apply to the ABTS-oxidising activity (suggested by the authors to be laccase, but see above) measured in association with macerated non-sterile ECM root tips by Münzenberger et al. (1997).

Phenol-oxidising activities have also been detected in sporocarp tissue of a large number of ECM fungal taxa (Table 1). These have been detected using complex natural substrates, such as gum guaiac (a general indicator of polyphenol oxidase activity) (Agerer et al. 2000) and more specific indicators of catechol oxidase and/or tyrosinase activities (Marr et al. 1986; Miranda et al. 1996). Syringaldazine-oxidising activity (probably indicating laccase) has also been observed in sporocarp tissue of a range of ECM fungal taxa (Marr et al. 1986). These assays were conducted by incubating sporocarp explants, from which intracellular enzymes can readily leak, with substrates (Marr et al. 1986; Agerer et al. 2000) or using macerated tissue preparations (Miranda et al. 1996), making it impossible to determine the extent to which the activities were intra- or extra-cellular. Similarly, some assays have been carried out on extracts of macerated mycelia and ECM root tips grown in axenic culture (Table 1). Four of these studies (Ramstedt and Söderhäll 1983; Gruhn and Miller 1991; Sword and Garrett 1994; Münzenberger et al. 1997), used only L-DOPA or ABTS as substrate, neither of which discriminates laccase from other phenol-oxidising activities. By including the tyrosinase inhibitor SHAM, Günther et al. (1998) were able to conclude that L-DOPA- and ABTS-oxidising activities in mycelial extracts from *P. involutus* and *S. granulatus* were attributable to laccase, and that tyrosinase/catechol oxidase activities were also present. In contrast, lack of activity against syringaldazine, coupled with oxidation of L-DOPA, indicated no laccase activity in extracts from *Suillus bovinus* mycelium (Timonen and Sen 1998).

Activities associated with sterile mycelia in axenic culture

In other studies, assays were conducted as "spot tests" whereby drops of substrate were applied to the surface of intact mycelia, or to wells cut in mycelia, on agar plates in ca. 95% ethanol. Use of p-cresol in this way has revealed the presence of tyrosinase/catechol oxidase activities in a broad taxonomic range of ECM fungi (Egger 1986; Hutchison 1990; Gramms et al. 1998; Soponsathien 1998). Similarly, 1-naphthol has been used as a presumptive indicator of laccase activity in a range of taxa; however, the specificity of this substrate for laccase does not appear to have been established unequivocally (Gramms et al. 1998). As highlighted by Gramms et al. (1998), ethanol treatment is likely to compromise the integrity of hyphal membranes, again blurring the distinction between intracellular and extracellular activities observed in "spot tests".

Gruhn and Miller (1991) observed oxidation of aqueous solutions of *p*-cresol applied to the uncut surface of *Boletinellus meruloides*, *Pisolithus tinctorius* and *Suillus pictus*, indicating the presence of an extracellular, or at least a cell-surface-bound, tyrosinase/catechol oxidase activity. Crude culture filtrates from a number of taxa have also been assayed in attempts to identify extracellular enzyme activities. Peláez et al. (1995) found no evidence of ABTS-oxidising activity in filtrates from cultures of a number of ECM fungi. As indicated by the authors this implies a lack of extracellular laccase activity. Given the lack of specificity of ABTS as a laccase indicator, however, their data further suggest a lack of any extracellular polyphenol oxidase activity under the conditions adopted.

Although Bending and Read (1996a, b, 1997) assessed oxidation of catechol in culture filtrates of a range of fungi, significant activity (indicative of polyphenol oxidase) was demonstrated for only *Lactarius controver*- sus and the ericoid mycorrhizal fungus *H. ericae*. When similar culture filtrates of *H. ericae* were tested for their ability to oxidise syringaldazine (a presumptive laccase indicator) no activity was detected (Bending and Read 1997). The observed polyphenol oxidase activity thus seems likely to be of the catechol oxidase (possibly tyrosinase) type. Günther et al. (1998) observed oxidation of both L-DOPA and ABTS in culture filtrates of *S. granulatus*. Oxidation of L-DOPA by *S. granulatus* filtrate was inhibited by the tyrosinase inhibitor SHAM, suggesting that this activity was largely tyrosinase, rather than a laccase. The ABTS-oxidising activity was largely unaffected by SHAM, suggesting the presence of laccase activity. Interestingly, neither activity was detected in culture filtrates of *P. involutus*.

The most convincing demonstration of extracellular laccase production by an ECM fungus is that of Kanunfre and Zancan (1998). These authors detected a 61 kDa protein (similar in size to other purified laccases) in concentrated, dialysed culture filtrates of *Thelephora terrestris* that oxidised syringaldazine, ABTS and guaia-col. Determination of  $K_{\rm m}$  values against these substrates revealed that the enzyme had highest affinity for syringa-ldazine, consistent with the description of the protein as a laccase. Indeed, the  $K_{\rm m}$  value for this enzyme was of a similar order of magnitude to those reported for other purified fungal laccases (Chefetz et al. 1998; Shin and Lee 2000).

# Discussion

From the literature reviewed herein, it is clear that considerable polyphenol oxidase activities are associated with mycelia of many ECM fungi and the ericoid mycorrhizal endophyte *H. ericae* under some circumstances. It is further evident that the overlapping substrate ranges of polyphenol oxidases means that ascribing a unique enzymatic description to a given activity is often problematic. Differences exist between laccases and other polyphenol oxidases in their oxidative potential, and so their relative abilities to participate in degradative processes. For this reason, if the potential ecological role of an enzyme is to be extrapolated from an enzyme assay, it is important to adopt methods that discriminate between laccase and other polyphenol oxidases.

Discrimination between laccase and other polyphenol oxidases requires determination of relative  $K_{\rm m}$  values against a range of substrates including at least one for which laccase has high affinity (e.g. syringaldazine) and another for which affinity is low or non-existent (e.g. tyrosine). In the context of mycorrhizal fungi, such an approach allowed Kanunfre and Zancan (1998) to demonstrate extracellular laccase activity in *T. terrestris*. Miranda et al. (1996) used a similar approach to identify the main polyphenol oxidase activity in extracts from *Tuber* spp. sporocarps as tyrosinase/catechol oxidase rather than laccase. Likewise, Bending and Read (1997) used relative affinities for catechol and syringaldazine to

demonstrate tyrosinase/catechol oxidase, but not laccase, in culture filtrates of *H. ericae*.

It is worth noting that determination of  $K_m$  yields two important characteristics for a given enzyme. First, comparison of relative  $K_m$  values against a range of substrates reveals the substrate for which the enzyme has greatest affinity. Secondly, calculation of  $K_{cat}$  ( $V_{max}/K_m$ , U s<sup>-1</sup>) or  $K_{cat}/K_m$  (M<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>), permits comparison of the catalytic efficiency of several enzymes with the same substrate affinity. This may be useful in predicting the likely relative contributions to polymer breakdown of, for example, laccases produced by mycorrhizal and other fungi that might be competing for the same substrates in soil.

Several authors have utilised various substrate combinations, but without kinetic data, to infer the most probable identity of polyphenol oxidase activities in crude enzyme preparations from ECM or ericoid mycorrhizal fungi. Using a range of substrates in combination with a selective inhibitor of tyrosinase/catechol oxidase activity, Günther et al. (1998) concluded that the predominant phenol-oxidising activities in culture filtrates of S. granulatus and in mycelial extracts of S. granulatus and *P. involutus* were most probably laccases. Although syringaldazine oxidation data were not presented in all cases, no oxidation of this substrate was observed for the P. involutus mycelial extract. Given the widespread acceptance of high affinity for syringaldazine as a key indicator of laccase activity (Thurston 1994), unequivocal identification of these activities as laccases requires further characterisation. Indeed, Bending and Read (1997) and Timonen and Sen (1998) interpreted oxidation of catechol or L-DOPA in the absence of activity against syringaldazine as indicating an absence of laccase activity in culture filtrate of H. ericae and mycelial extracts of S. bovinus, respectively.

Many studies have relied upon qualitative colorimetric "spot tests" using multiple substrates to differentiate between laccase and tyrosinase/catechol oxidase activities in ECM fungi (Marr et al. 1986; Hutchison 1990; Saponsathien 1998). While these methods may be useful as preliminary indicators of laccase activity, they do not permit comparison of relative kinetic parameters and are of limited value in unambiguously separating laccases from other polyphenol oxidases. Furthermore, these spot tests involve application of the chromogenic substrates in 95% ethanol and cannot discriminate between intraand extra-cellular enzyme activities. There is no question that data of this nature are of value as diagnostic characteristics in fungal taxonomy. However, extrapolation from the presence of an activity to a potential ecological role is probably inappropriate.

Laccase production in white rot fungi is regulated by a range of factors including the relative availability of C and N and/or concentration of Cu. Clearly, the molecular structure of laccase requires that Cu is available for incorporation at the active site. Of the investigations of laccase activity in ECM and ericoid mycorrhizal fungi we have cited, Cu was specifically added to the growth medium in only two (Münzenberger et al. 1997; Kanunfre and Zancan 1998). However, in the remaining cases it is likely that other media components contained sufficient trace amounts of Cu for its concentration not to be limiting. In each case, the medium used was sufficient in available C and N, a factor known to repress laccase production in at least some white rot fungi. Manipulation of culture media by reducing the concentration of C and/or N, or their inclusion in more recalcitrant forms, may result in conditions more favourable for laccase production. Because expression may be influenced by culture conditions, screening for genes that encode laccases and other polyphenol oxidases may represent a more reliable means of identifying potential enzymatic activities in ECM fungi. Furthermore, many ECM taxa that are important components of below-ground communities are difficult to culture, rendering biochemical assays of laccase activities impossible. Such approaches have been used successfully in the context of other lignin-degrading enzymes in white rot and ECM fungi (Chambers et al. 1999; Varela et al. 2000; Chen et al. 2001). DNA sequences for laccase genes from a number of fungi are now available (e.g. D'Souza et al. 1996; Yaver et al. 1996; Collins and Dobson 1997; Zhao and Kwan 1999) and offer the opportunity to design molecular probes or primers for identification of similar genes and/or laccase mRNA transcripts in mycorrhizal fungi.

It has been suggested that laccases produced by ECM and ericoid mycorrhizal fungi may be involved in a number of processes that relate to functioning of the symbioses. Broadly speaking, these encompass depolymerisation and polymerisation reactions. Suggested roles in depolymerisation reactions include lignin and polyphenol degradation, release of N from insoluble protein-tannin complexes and degradation of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon pollutants (Leake and Read 1989; Hutchison 1990; Bending and Read 1996a, b, 1997; Braun-Lüllemann et al. 1999). Durall et al. (1994) found little evidence of degradation of <sup>14</sup>C-labelled mixed humic polymers by four ECM fungi, suggesting that their abilities to depolymerise these substrates were low. Unless laccase and a suitable redox mediator are present together, such depolymerisation reactions are unlikely to occur. Based on information available for white rot fungi, candidates for such mediators would include simple aromatic compounds and amino acids containing sulphydryl groups (Johannes and Majcherczyk 2000). For example, 4-hydroxybenzoic acid and 4-hydroxybenzyl alcohol are efficient mediators of laccase activity, and are produced either as plant secondary metabolites by the action of actinomycetes on lignin or, as is the case for white rot fungi, by the fungi themselves (Shunming et al. 1985; Pometto and Crawford 1986; Johannes and Majcherczyk 2000). However, no studies of redox mediator production by mycorrhizal fungi, or the potential for compounds of plant or microbial origin to act as mediators of mycorrhizal laccases have yet been undertaken. In the absence of this information, it is difficult to predict the potential contribution of laccases to depolymerisation processes in soil.

Proposed roles in polymerisation of phenolic compounds include pigment production, neutralisation of host defence compounds, humus formation and detoxification of the soil environment (e.g. Hutchison 1990; Sword and Garrett 1994; Bending and Read 1996a, b, 1997; Günther et al. 1998; Kanunfre and Zancan 1998). None of these processes requires the presence of a redox mediator.

When laccase acts on a phenol, a reactive semiquinone is produced that, depending upon the degree to which it becomes autoxidised, can dismutate to yield quinones which, in turn, polymerise to form insoluble complexes (see Guillén et al. 2000). Alternatively, the reactive semiquinone may react with O<sub>2</sub> to yield a superoxide radical  $(O_2^{-\bullet})$  that may contribute to depolymerising processes (Guillén et al. 2000). This contrasts with other polyphenoloxidases, the products of which are quinones rather than semiquinones, which polymerise directly to form insoluble complexes (Bending and Read 1996a; Cairney and Burke 1998b). Not only is formation of such humic compounds likely to be important in detoxification of the mycorrhizosphere soil environment (Bending and Read 1996a), it may also be important in minimising ecosystem N losses, reducing toxic metal availability and improving soil physical and chemical conditions for root growth (Northup et al. 1998).

From the information we have reviewed here, it is evident that considerable gaps exist in our understanding of polyphenol oxidase, in particular laccase, enzymology in the context of ECM and ericoid mycorrhizal fungi. Given the potentially important roles that these enzymes might play in nutrient cycling and other soil processes, more detailed investigation of their activities is clearly warranted.

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