

1 Gluten-degrading proteases in wheat infected by *Fusarium graminearum* –
2 protease identification and effects on gluten and dough properties.

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5 Abstract

6 Recently, we have observed a relationship between poor breadmaking quality and protease activities
7 related to fungal infection. This study aims to identify potential gluten-degrading proteases secreted by
8 fungi and to analyse effects of these proteases on rheological properties of dough and gluten. *Fusarium*
9 *graminearum* infected grain was used as a model system. Zymography showed that serine-type
10 proteases secreted by *F. graminearum* degrade gluten proteins. Zymography followed by LC-MS/MS
11 analyses predicted one serine carboxypeptidase and seven serine endo-peptidases to be candidate fungal
12 proteases involved in gluten degradation. Effects of fungal proteases on the time-dependent rheological
13 properties of dough and gluten were analysed by small amplitude oscillatory shear rheology and large
14 deformation extensional rheology. Our results indicate that fungal proteases degrade gluten proteins not
15 only in the grain itself, but also during dough preparation and resting. Our study gives new insight into
16 fungal proteases and their potential role in weakening of gluten.

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19 **Key words:** Wheat, gluten, *Fusarium graminearum*, protease, dough rheology

20 1 Introduction

21 Fusarium head blight (FHB) is the fungal disease caused by a range of *Fusarium* spp. and *Microdochium*
22 spp. that can infest heads of cereals. Fungal infection occurs during flowering and is reported to reduce
23 grain yield dramatically worldwide. Besides the severe reduction in grain yield, *Fusarium* spp. produce
24 various mycotoxins, such as deoxynivalenol (DON). Apart from mycotoxins, fungi secrete hydrolytic
25 enzymes targeting the plants' cuticle, cell wall, proteins, lipids, starch and nucleic acids to establish
26 infection and to develop disease¹⁻⁷. Secreted proteases by *Fusarium* spp. were shown to have the ability
27 to degrade gluten proteins in an *in vitro* system⁸⁻¹⁰. Pekkarinen and Jones¹¹ showed that a trypsin-like
28 proteinase purified from a *Fusarium culmorum* hydrolysed barley storage proteins. However, it is still
29 unclear which fungal proteases in infected wheat can degrade gluten proteins and thus reduce the
30 breadmaking quality of wheat flour.

31 The breadmaking quality of wheat flour relates to its ability to produce high quality breads (high volume,
32 soft crumb, homogenous pores) during a standard breadmaking processes and is of high commercial
33 importance. This breadmaking performance of wheat flour is largely determined by the quantity and
34 quality of gluten proteins. Gluten proteins are storage proteins synthesised in endosperm cells during
35 grain filling. They comprise two major types, gliadins and glutenins. Gliadins are monomers and consist
36 of α -/ β -, γ - and ω -types. Gliadins interact with each other or with glutenin polymers with non-covalent
37 interactions such as hydrogen bonds and hydrophobic interactions¹², and contribute to the viscosity of
38 wheat dough. Glutenins are polymers composed of high molecular weight-glutenin subunits (HMW-
39 GS) and low molecular weight-glutenin subunits (LMW-GS) linked by disulphide bonds. Glutenins,
40 particularly the HMW-GS, are responsible for elasticity of wheat flour dough¹³. The viscoelastic
41 properties of gluten in dough are determined by quality parameters such as the ratio of glutenin to
42 gliadin, the allelic variations of both HMW-GS and LMW-GS and the size of glutenin polymers in wheat
43 flour¹⁴⁻²⁰. During dough mixing, gluten proteins form a continuous gluten network providing
44 viscoelastic properties to the wheat dough. Simultaneously, the structure and functionality of gluten
45 undergo significant changes. The molecular structure of the gluten network is not fully understood, but
46 both covalent (disulphide bonds) and non-covalent (hydrogen bonds, hydrophobic interactions and chain

47 entanglement) intermolecular interactions are thought to be important factors influencing the
48 viscoelastic properties of gluten ²¹⁻²⁴.

49 Fungal infection has been reported to have a detrimental effect on breadmaking quality of wheat flour.
50 Nightingale, et al. ⁸ visually showed damaged gluten proteins in endosperm cells of FHB grain with
51 scanning electron microscopy. However, they did not find clear differences in crude protein content nor
52 in the composition and size distribution of gluten proteins between FHB and symptom-free grains ⁸.
53 Several other studies reported that the amount of glutenin, particularly HMW-GS, was reduced in
54 *Fusarium* infected grains ^{9, 25-26}. Weaker dough has been reported by measuring the mixing properties
55 of dough made with FHB wheat flour, and fungal proteases were suggested to be involved ^{9, 25-26}.
56 However, the relationship between fungal proteases and the properties of wheat dough and gluten during
57 the breadmaking process, particularly the period of dough rest when fungal proteases could have
58 deleterious effects, is scarcely reported.

59 Our earlier study demonstrated that grain samples with extremely weak gluten suffered from infection
60 by *Fusarium* spp. and *Microdochium* spp. ²⁷. The size of glutenin polymers was severely reduced and
61 gluten-degrading proteases were assumed to be present in these grain samples. We hypothesized that
62 fungi infecting wheat grain secrete proteases that degrade gluten proteins both in grain and during dough
63 preparation, and thus causing weak gluten. Grain infected by *F. graminearum* was chosen as a model
64 system in the present study to investigate fungal proteases that target gluten proteins and their effect on
65 gluten properties during breadmaking since the field-inoculation method for *F. graminearum* is well
66 established. Furthermore, the availability of genome and secretome studies for *F. graminearum* aids the
67 identification of candidate proteases of our interest. The presence and activity of proteases in wheat
68 samples harvested from a field inoculated with *F. graminearum* and their ability to degrade gluten
69 proteins were assessed by zymography. Proteome analysis was carried out to identify candidate
70 proteases secreted from *F. graminearum* involved in degrading gluten proteins. Moreover, wheat dough
71 and gluten prepared with and without partial substitution by *F. graminearum* infected samples were
72 studied by extensional and oscillatory shear rheology to examine its effects on the rheological properties
73 of gluten during dough preparation and resting.

74 2 Material and method

75 2.1 Wheat samples

76 Spring wheat cv. Bastian field inoculated with *F. graminearum* was kindly provided by Dr. Morten
77 Lillemo, Norwegian University of Life Sciences. Cultivar Bastian possesses the HMW-GS 5+10
78 encoded by *Glu-D1* and is classified as the best class for breadmaking in Norway. Briefly, field
79 inoculation with *F. graminearum* was carried out with grain spawn (infected oat kernels) that were
80 prepared with four *F. graminearum* isolates (200726, 200838, 101177 and 101023). The spawn
81 inoculum was dispersed in the field at a density rate of 10 g/m² at Zadoks growth stage 32/33. For
82 optimal germination of ascospores, the field was mist irrigated twice for 9 min per hour in the evening
83 after spawn application and four times during anthesis. Details of field experiments with spawn-
84 inoculation are described in Tekle, et al. ²⁸. Wheat grains were harvested at maturity from four plots (1.5
85 x 5 m², four biological replicates). The average DON content was 24.2 ppm indicating the success of
86 grain infection. The samples are hereafter referred to as *Fg*-infected wheat/grain samples. *Fg*-infected
87 grain samples were milled to wholemeal flour on a Retsch hammer mill with a 0.5 mm sieve.
88 Commercial wholemeal wheat flour (fine ground) containing 30 ppm ascorbic acid (Product name;
89 Regal sammalt mel, fin) from Lantmännen Cerealia (Oslo, Norway) was used as base flour for
90 dough/gluten analyses.

91 2.2 Analysis of protease activity

92 In order to assess protease activity, salt-soluble proteins were extracted from *Fg*-infected wholemeal
93 flour or whole grain. One millilitre 100 mM sodium phosphate buffer (pH 7.0) was added to 200 mg
94 flour or approximately 200 mg grain in a 2 ml tube filled with 2.8 mm zirconium oxide beads and
95 proteins were extracted by using a Precellys 24 (Bertin Technology, France). Protein extraction from
96 whole grains were included to improve the extraction of fungal protein. The extraction does not crush
97 the whole grains but loosens the pericarp of *Fg*-infected grain and assists in extraction of fungal proteins,
98 which are located in the outer layers of the grain. The program used for protein extraction was at 6600
99 rpm for 2 x 15 sec, with a 30 sec pause between shaking. Samples were thereafter centrifuged at 16060
100 g at 4 °C for 20 min and the supernatant was recovered and kept at -80 °C until use. Protein concentration

101 was measured by a Lowry protein assay (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Inc, USA), using bovine serum albumin
102 as a standard to estimate protein content.

103 Protease activities were measured by Zymography. Zymogram gels (12.5 % (w/v) acryl/bis-acrylamide
104 (37.5:1), 275 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.8, 0.05% (w/v) ammonium persulfate and 0.05 % (v/v)
105 tetramethylethylenediamine) were cast with gluten (Amersham Life Science, Cleveland, OH, US) as
106 substrate. The final concentration of gluten substrate in the Zymogram gels was 2 mg/ml with 0.5%
107 (w/v) Sodium dodecyl sulphate (SDS) and 2.5 mM tris(2-carboxyethyl)phosphine hydrochloride. Ten
108 micro gram salt-soluble proteins were separated on zymogram gels at 100 V for 4 h. Zymogram gels
109 were renatured with 2.5 % (w/v) Triton X-100 and washed with 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.6) prior to
110 incubation with 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.6), 5 mM CaCl₂ and 0.2 M NaCl at 37 °C overnight. After
111 incubation, gels were stained with 0.1 % (w/v) Coomassie brilliant blue R-250, 50 % (v/v) methanol
112 and 7 % (v/v) acetic acid for one hour, and destained with 20 % (v/v) methanol and 7 % (v/v) acetic acid
113 for two hours. Zymography was also carried out with protease inhibitors; protease inhibitor cocktail
114 P9599 (volume according to manufactures' recommendation), E-64 (10 µM), Pepstatin A (20 µM),
115 Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA, 10 mM), Phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride (PMSF, 5 mM) and
116 4-(2-Aminoethyl)benzenesulfonyl fluoride hydrochloride (AEBSF, 1 mM) (all inhibitors from Singma-
117 Aldrich, St Louis, MO, USA). Protease inhibitors were added to protein extracts prior to gel
118 electrophoresis as well as in the incubation buffer. The final concentration of each inhibitor is given in
119 brackets above.

120 **2.3 Identification of proteases**

121 To identify proteases in *Fg*-infected grains, 60 µg salt-soluble proteins, extracted as described in 2.2
122 were reduced with 10 mM dithiothreitol (DTT), alkylated with 55 mM 2-iodoacetamide (IAA) and
123 digested with Trypsin/Lys-C (Promega, USA) on a Microcon-10YM (Merck Millipore, USA)
124 centrifugal filter unit at 37 °C overnight³⁰ (from here on called Crude-LC-MS/MS). Additionally, 80
125 µg salt-soluble proteins were also separated on pre-cast NuPAGE™ 12% Bis-Tris Protein Gels (Thermo
126 Fisher Scientific, USA) and stained with Coomassie brilliant blue R-250 as described above (from here
127 on called SDS-PAGE-LC-MS/MS). Each lane of the gel was divided into eight, roughly equal, pieces.

128 For identification of gluten-degrading proteases, 15 µg salt-soluble proteins were separated on a
129 zymogram gel with gluten, and the gel was stained immediately after electrophoresis, without incubation
130 (from here on called Zymography-LC-MS/MS). The white band was excised and divided into two
131 pieces. Proteins in the gel pieces were reduced (10 mM DTT) and alkylated (55 mM IAA), prior to
132 digestion with Trypsin/Lys-C at 37 °C overnight, and finally peptide extraction was accomplished by
133 sonication. Peptide samples were prepared from four biological replicates for each method. All peptide
134 samples, from gel pieces and digests from protein extracts, were purified and concentrated using a
135 StageTip, C18 material filled in 200 µl pipette tips, according to Rappsilber, et al.³¹ and Yu, et al.³².
136 Peptides were eluted with 50 µl 70 % acetonitrile (ACN) and dried completely with a speed-vac (Thermo
137 Fisher Scientific, USA). Peptides were resolved with loading buffer (2 % (v/v) ACN and 0.05 % (v/v)
138 Trifluoroacetic acid). All peptides and approximately 2 µg peptides generated from gel pieces and
139 protein extracts, respectively, were loaded onto a trap column (Acclaim PepMap100, C18, 5 µm, 100 Å,
140 300 µm i.d. × 5 mm, Thermo Fisher Scientific) and then backflushed with a loading buffer described
141 below onto a 50 cm × 75 µm analytical column (Acclaim PepMap RSLC C18, 2 µm, 100 Å, 75 µm i.d.
142 × 50 cm, nanoViper, Thermo Fisher Scientific) for liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry (LC–
143 MS/MS) analysis. Conditions for Ultra-high performance liquid chromatography (LC) were as follows:
144 Loading pump, flow rate 20 µl/min with loading buffer; 2 % (v/v) ACN and 0.05 % (v/v) Formic acid
145 (FA) and Nano/Cap pump, flow rate 0.3 µl/min with gradient of two buffers A (0.1 % (v/v) FA) and B
146 (80 % (v/v) ACN, 0.08 % (v/v) FA). LC-gradient was run for 70 and 90 min for peptides prepared from
147 gel pieces and protein extracts, respectively, from 4 to 45 % buffer B. Peptides from the 12 and 10 most
148 intense peaks obtained from 90 and 70 min elution, respectively, were fragmented and mass-to-charge
149 of these fragmented ions were measured (tandem mass spectrometry, MS/MS) with a Q Exactive™
150 Quadrupole-Orbitrap™ Mass Spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA). The Q-Exactive mass
151 spectrometer was set up as follows: a full scan (300–1600 m/z) at R=70,000 was followed by (up to) 10
152 MS2 scans at R=35,000 using an NCE setting of 28. Singly charged precursors were excluded for
153 MS/MS as were precursors with z > 5. Dynamic exclusion was set at 20 s.
154 Proteins were identified using the database search program Mascot (<http://www.matrixscience.com/>)
155 and searched against the *Gibberella zeae* (strain PH-1 / ATCC MYA-4620 / FGSC 9075 / NRRL 31084)

156 database (ID: UP000070720), *Triticum aestivum* (Wheat) database (ID: UP UP000019116), decoy and
157 contaminants obtained from UniProt (<https://www.uniprot.org/>). The parameters for Mascot search were
158 as follows: fixed modifications, Carbamidomethylation of Cys; variable modification, oxidation of Met
159 and N-terminal acetylation; missed cleavages, 2; peptide tolerance, 10 ppm; MS/MS tolerance, 0.020
160 Da. Identified proteins were visualized with Scaffold4 (Proteome Software, USA) with thresholds for
161 protein and peptide being 1.0 % and 0.1% false discovery rate, respectively, and minimum two peptide
162 matches. Proteins identified with over 95 % probability in at least two of four biological replicates were
163 defined as identified proteins.

164 Prediction of the signal peptide and transmembrane helices were carried out with SignalP v. 4.1³³ and
165 TMHMM Server v. 2.0³³, respectively. A sequence containing signal peptide and no trans-membrane
166 helices outside of the signal peptide was considered as a secreted protein according to earlier secretome
167 studies^{1,3,6}. The prediction of protein subcellular localization was examined with two programs to have
168 a higher confidence of the localization. One was WoLF PSORT³⁴, the software used in the secretome
169 study of the *F. graminearum* by Brown, et al.¹ and Lowe, et al.⁶. The other was DeepLoc, a recently
170 developed software by Armenteros, et al.³⁵, which Savojardo, et al.³⁶ evaluated to be the best to predict
171 extracellular proteins among similar programs. When the prediction of subcellular localization differed
172 between the two programs, the closest homologs were searched against the annotated SWISS-PROT
173 database with BlastP (<https://www.uniprot.org/blast/>) and the subcellular localization of the closest
174 homolog was accessed.

175 **2.4 Analyses of dough and gluten**

176 One of the four *Fg*-infected samples from 2.1 was used for analyses of dough and gluten as neither
177 Zymography nor LC-MS/MS analysis showed clear difference between the four biological replicates.
178 All measurements were carried out in duplicates.

179 **2.4.1 Dough preparation**

180 Doughs were prepared by mixing 10 g commercial wholemeal wheat flour with or without substitution
181 by *Fg*-infected flour (0, 10, 20 and 30 %) with 2 % NaCl in a Mixograph (National Manufacturing,

182 Lincoln, NE., US) for 5 min with fixed water addition (68.2% on flour basis, corresponding to
183 Farinograph water absorption of the commercial wholemeal wheat flour). To study the sole effect of
184 proteases on dough properties, doughs were prepared from 100% commercial wholemeal wheat flour
185 but with different salt soluble flour protein extracts as dough liquid. Aliquots of 5.6 g commercial and
186 *Fg*-infected flour were extracted with 20 ml 2 % NaCl for 30 min at room temperature in a shaking
187 incubator at 200 rpm. The suspension was then centrifuged at 45995 g for 20 min at 18 °C and
188 supernatant was recovered and used for dough preparation either directly or after heat treatment at 70°C
189 for 30 min. Assuming complete extraction of proteases, the doughs prepared with extract from *Fg*-
190 infected flour should have the same level of protease as doughs prepared with 20% *Fg*-infected flour
191 (5.6 g flour in 20 mL x 68.2% (water addition) = 20%).

192 2.4.2 Small amplitude oscillatory shear tests

193 Small amplitude oscillatory shear tests can be used to study the viscoelastic properties of dough at rest.
194 Measurements are performed within the linear viscoelastic range of dough and have therefore no
195 influence on the dough structure, which makes them suitable to study the time dependent behaviour of
196 dough. For small amplitude oscillatory shear tests, doughs were rolled out to 4 mm thickness and dough
197 discs of 26 mm diameter were cut out. The dough disc was mounted on a Physica MCR 301 Rheometer
198 (Anton Paar, Stuttgart, Germany) equipped with a parallel plate of 25 mm diameter. A sand blasted
199 lower plate was used to prevent slippage. The temperature of the lower plate was controlled with a
200 Peltier element set at 24 °C corresponding to the dough temperature after mixing. Maximum normal
201 force during sample mounting was set at 5 N with 0.2 N hysteresis. After the gap was adjusted to 2 mm
202 for measurement, a layer of paraffin oil (Merck, Darmstadt, Germany) was applied around the dough to
203 prevent drying. An amplitude sweep was performed at a set frequency of 10 rad/s to determine the linear
204 viscoelastic range of the dough. Measurements within the linear viscoelastic range of dough were
205 performed at an amplitude of 0.01% and a frequency of 10 rad/s. The time dependent changes of storage
206 modulus G' (elastic component) and loss modulus G'' (viscous component) of dough were determined
207 for 45 min starting directly after mounting (no rest period). To quantify the time dependent change of

208 G' a multiplicative inverse of G'' ($1/G''$) was plotted against measurement time. The slope was calculated
209 by linear regression.

210 2.4.3 Large deformation rheology

211 Analysis of large deformation rheology was performed with the SMS/Kieffer Dough and Gluten
212 Extensibility Rig. The method measures the capacity of the gluten network to retain the gas during
213 fermentation by measuring the resistance to extension and extensibility. Gluten was prepared in a
214 Glutomatic 2100 (Perten AB, Huddinge, Sweden) from commercial wholemeal wheat flour with or
215 without substitution by *Fg*-infected flour (0, 20, 30 and 40 %). A 2% (w/v) NaCl solution was used for
216 mixing the dough (1 min) and washing out starch, bran particles and the salt soluble components (9
217 min). The gluten was centrifuged in a special centrifuge mold in a swing-out rotor (Rotor 5.51) at 3000
218 g at 20 °C for 10 min, and rested in a standard mold at 30°C for 45 min. Three pieces of gluten from
219 each preparation were stretched with the Kieffer rig until they ruptured. The maximum resistance to
220 extension (R_{max}) and distance (Ext) were recorded by a TA.XT plus Texture Analyzer (Stable Micro
221 Systems, Godalming, UK).

222 To study the effect of fungal proteases on gluten, while omitting the effect of fungal α -amylases on
223 starch in dough, gluten was prepared from incubated dough and measured with the SMS/Kieffer Dough
224 and Gluten Extensibility Rig. Doughs were prepared as described in 2.4.1. and incubated at 30 °C for 0,
225 45 and 90 min. Thereafter gluten was obtained by washing the doughs with 2 % NaCl in a Glutomatic
226 2100 and measured with the Kieffer rig as described above.

227 To investigate the presence of proteases in washed gluten, gluten prepared with and without 20% *Fg*-
228 infected flour as described above was stretched with the Kieffer rig after 45- and 90-min incubation and
229 the results were compared.

230 2.4.4 Statistical analysis

231 Minitab 18 was used for statistical analysis. Statistical differences between R_{max} , Ext and slope of $1/G''$
232 were assessed for the proportion of *Fg*-infected flour (fixed factor) using regression analysis. Statistical
233 differences between R_{max} and Ext were assessed for incubation time by two-way analysis of variance.

234 Significance was two-tailed $P < 0.05$. Comparison between levels and interaction for two-way analysis
235 of variance was carried out using the Tukey test at a confidence interval of 95%.

236 **3 Results and discussion**

237 We have earlier observed that wheat samples with extremely weak gluten suffered from infection by
238 *Fusarium* spp. and *Microdochium* spp.²⁷. The size of glutenin polymers in these samples was severely
239 reduced and gluten-degrading proteases were assumed to be present. Here we confirm the presence of
240 gluten-degrading proteases in wheat samples harvested from a field inoculated with *F. graminearum* as
241 a model system, identify candidate proteases for gluten degradation and investigate their influence on
242 functional dough properties.

243 **3.1 Proteases in wheat grains infected by *F. graminearum***

244 Zymography of salt-soluble proteins extracted from *Fg*-infected wheat flour showed a thick smear that
245 indicated strong protease activities (Fig. 1A and Supplementary Fig. SF1). This thick smear was also
246 observed in zymograms without protein renaturing and gel incubation (Supplementary Fig. SF1C). The
247 results revealed that some proteases can digest substrate proteins even under the denaturing condition
248 with SDS. This explains the presence of a thick smear instead of distinct bands in the zymogram. For a
249 comparison, proteins extracted from wholemeal flour of sound grain grown in a greenhouse were
250 analysed with the same method and no bands appeared (data not shown). This result indicates that the
251 level of gluten-degrading proteases in sound grain is lower than the detection level with zymography.
252 Our results clearly showed that proteases detected by zymography were of fungal origin and they could
253 efficiently digest gluten proteins. Although substrate gluten proteins are reduced and their structure
254 differs from native gluten proteins in grain or flour, we assumed that *F. graminearum* secreted proteases
255 also can degrade native gluten proteins. Our results support the study of Eggert, et al.¹⁰ who
256 demonstrated the degradation of gluten proteins during incubation with proteases from *F. graminearum*.
257 Zymography was also carried out with protease inhibitors to investigate which type of proteases degrade
258 the different substrate proteins (Fig. 1B-H). The intensity of the band in the zymogram was strongly
259 reduced with PMSF and moderately reduced with protease inhibitor cocktail (Fig. 1B and F). Sulfonyl

260 fluorides of both PMSF and AEBSF react with the hydroxyl of the serine residue, the active site of serine
261 proteases, and inhibit serine proteases³⁷. More stable, and less toxic, AEBSF has been used as an
262 alternative for PMSF, however our results showed that AEBSF did not inhibit proteases that degrade
263 gluten proteins. Nevertheless, our results suggest that serine proteases are the main gluten-degrading
264 proteases in *Fg*-infected wheat grains. Pekkarinen and co-authors^{11, 38} purified serine proteases from
265 gluten-containing culture medium of *Fusarium culmorum* and one serine protease (trypsin-like enzyme)
266 was able to degrade storage proteins of barley. Hence, some serine proteases secreted by fungi are
267 probably involved in nitrogen acquisition from the host plant.

268 **3.2 Identification of proteases in wheat grain infected by *F. graminearum***

269 For identification of fungal proteases, salt-soluble proteins were extracted from whole grain instead of
270 wholemeal flour. It was presumed that the amount of fungal proteins is higher in bran, because fungi
271 grow from the surface of the infected grain. Therefore, protein extraction from whole grain would
272 increase the proportion of fungal proteins, while decreasing the proportion of plant proteins, and thereby
273 increasing the likelihood of identifying fungal protein/proteases by LC-MS/MS analysis. The bran of
274 *Fg*-infected grain was detached from the kernel, partly revealing the starchy endosperm, which remained
275 intact after protein extraction by Precellys 24. This method lowered the protein concentration (data not
276 shown), while protease activities analysed by zymography were higher in protein extracts from whole
277 grain compared to protein extracts from wholemeal flour (Supplementary Fig. SF1A). The results
278 indicate that the protein extracts from *Fg*-infected whole grain increase the proportion of fungal proteins
279 compared to protein extracts from *Fg*-infected wholemeal flour. The salt-soluble proteins extracted from
280 *Fg*-infected whole grain were either digested directly or separated by SDS–polyacrylamide gel
281 electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) or zymography prior to peptide generation. The purpose of protein
282 separation by SDS-PAGE was to increase the number of identified proteases by reducing the complexity
283 of the samples. Since our major interest was to identify proteases that degrade gluten proteins, the area
284 of smear from zymograms were excised and peptides were prepared for LC-MS/MS analysis. The
285 proteome database of *F. graminearum* (*Gibberella zeae*, strain PH-1 / ATCC MYA-4620 /FGSC 9075
286 /NRRL 31084) consists of 14,160 entries in UniProt, and 267 proteins are listed as peptidases or

287 proteases (<https://www.uniprot.org>, Supplementary Table ST1, downloaded Nov, 2018). Mascot
288 searches against *F. graminearum* and *T. aestivum* databases resulted in 172 and 85 identified proteins,
289 respectively, from the Crude-LC-MS/MS, with 12 being fungal proteases (Table 1 and Supplementary
290 Table ST2). Protein analysis by SDS-PAGE-LC-MS/MS improved the number of identified proteins
291 dramatically, and 40 fungal proteases were identified (Table 1 and Supplementary Table ST3). From
292 Zymography-LC-MS/MS, 179 proteins were of fungal origin and 24 of these were proteases (Table 1
293 and Supplementary Table ST4).

294 To investigate whether the identified proteases are secreted proteases, and thus likely to be involved in
295 degradation of gluten proteins in the wheat grain, subcellular localization of all identified proteases was
296 predicted from their amino acid sequences (Supplementary Table ST5). According to our analyses 20
297 secretory proteases were predicted (Supplementary Table ST5). Seventeen of them were previously
298 predicted to be extracellular proteases, either in secretome studies, and/or proteomic studies of *F.*
299 *graminearum*^{1,3-6}. Among our 20 predicted extracellular proteases, 15 were identified by Zymography-
300 LC-MS/MS (Supplementary Table ST5). This indicates that these 15 proteases are capable of degrading
301 gluten proteins. Inhibitor studies with zymography indicate that serine-type proteases (inhibited by
302 PMSF) dominate. In fact, more than half of the secreted proteases identified by Zymography-LC-
303 MS/MS were of the serine-type. Two of these, specifically one carboxypeptidase (FG05797) and one of
304 the uncharacterized proteins (FG11164) seemed to be abundant as they were identified by all three
305 methods. Brown, et al.² compared the transcriptome of *F. graminearum* between symptomless and
306 symptomatic wheat and found some proteases that showed high transcript abundance in symptomatic
307 wheat tissues. When our results were compared to their study, FG05797, FG03467, FG05245, FG06545
308 and FG03975 were among the proteins whose transcripts were significantly up-regulated in the
309 symptomatic wheat tissues². Proteases with high transcript abundance in symptomatic wheat tissues
310 were presumed to be involved in the development of disease symptoms². Some of them are probably
311 responsible for nitrogen acquisition from host plants. Consequently, the carboxypeptidase (FG05797) is
312 an interesting candidate as it is a serine-type protease. This protease has also previously been reported
313 as a fungal secreted protease in several other studies (Table 2)^{1,3-4,6}. Carboxypeptidase is an exo-

314 peptidases that cleaves C-terminal polypeptide bonds⁴⁰, hence efficient depolymerisation of intact
315 glutenin polymers by this protease cannot be expected. However, when disulphide bonds of glutenin
316 polymers are reduced, the proteases could cause weaker gluten by removing cysteine residues located
317 at C-terminus in HMW-GS and preventing the formation of disulphide bonds. It has been reported that
318 the disulphide bonds of glutenin polymers are reduced immediately after dough mixing, but is gradually
319 re-established during dough rest^{21,40}. Therefore, it could be hypothesised that the presence of the fungal
320 serine carboxypeptidase in flour efficiently removes cysteine residues located at the C-terminus in
321 HMW-GS during dough mixing and rest, causing a weaker gluten. Moreover, seven uncharacterised
322 proteins that by homology are characterised as serine endo-peptidases were identified and predicted to
323 be extracellular. As endo-peptidases cleave peptide bonds internally, they could efficiently degrade
324 glutenin polymers compared to exo-peptidases. These fungal serine endo-peptidases most likely
325 contribute to gluten digestion both in grain and during dough preparation and resting thereby weakening
326 the gluten. Among seven serine endo-peptidases, one of them (FG11164) is another interesting candidate
327 as this proteases seemed to be abundant.

328 **3.3 The effect of proteases on dough properties during breadmaking process**

329 Infection of wheat with *F. graminearum* has a negative effect on breadmaking quality^{9,25-26}. We have
330 previously shown that the size of glutenin polymers is severely reduced in wheat grain naturally infected
331 by *Fusarium* spp. and *Microdochium* spp. in a field²⁷. This reduction in glutenin polymer size (or
332 disulphide bonds in glutenin polymers) found in flour can have a negative effect on gluten properties
333 independent of potential activities of gluten degrading proteases during processing. As enzymes,
334 including proteases, are salt-soluble proteins, the 10 min washing procedure with 2 % NaCl during
335 gluten preparation is presumed to remove proteases from the gluten and minimize their effects during
336 the remaining steps of the gluten large deformation rheology analysis. As proof of their removal neither
337 R_{\max} nor Ext differed during incubation of gluten for another 45 min (data not shown). The level of
338 proteases is therefore negligible in washed gluten. Hence the method makes it possible to study the
339 effect of reduced glutenin polymers in the *Fg*-infected flour on the viscoelastic properties of gluten. The
340 highest R_{\max} was obtained from gluten made from 100 % commercial flour, and the R_{\max} value decreased

341 with increasing amount of *Fg*-infected flour ($P < 0.01$, $R^2_{adj} = 0.928$) (Fig. 2A). Simultaneously, the
342 shortest Ext was observed from gluten made from 100 % commercial wholemeal flour, and the value
343 increased with increasing amount of *Fg*-infected flour ($P = 0.01$, $R^2_{adj} = 0.536$) (Fig. 2B). Gluten lost
344 elasticity and became more extensible when commercial flour was substituted by *Fg*-infected flour, and
345 the changes were more pronounced with increasing amount of *Fg*-infected flour. It cannot be neglected
346 that proteases degrade gluten proteins until they were washed out during gluten preparation, however
347 due to time restriction (less than 10 min) their effect must be limited. The reduction in R_{max} and increase
348 in Ext with increasing amounts of *Fg*-infected flour is therefore likely due to a reduction in glutenin
349 polymer size (reduced disulphide bonds) in *Fg*-infected flour. MacRitchie and Gupta ⁴¹ reported a
350 positive correlation between R_{max} and the proportion of unextractable polymeric proteins in total
351 polymeric proteins (%UPP) and a negative correlation between Ext and %UPP. Our results correspond
352 to their findings as increasing amounts of *Fg*-infected flour weaken gluten by decreasing the glutenin
353 polymer size in flour blends.

354 As proteases from *F. graminearum* will degrade gluten proteins over time as demonstrated by
355 zymography, they could influence the viscoelastic properties of dough by degrading gluten proteins
356 during dough rest and proofing prior to baking. In small strain oscillatory measurements all doughs
357 showed a decrease in G' over time (Fig. 3A). This is in accordance with a previous study reporting a
358 decrease in dough elasticity (increase in $\tan \delta$) as a function of resting time ⁴³. It is already known that
359 the rheological properties of resting wheat flour dough continuously change also during measurement
360 in the linear viscoelastic range due to enzymatic reactions, changes in flour component interactions and
361 relaxation of stresses induced during mixing, shaping and mounting in the rheometer ⁴³. Substitution of
362 commercial wheat flour by *Fg*-infected flour resulted in an increased rate of decrease of G' (Fig. 3A).
363 Interestingly we found a nearly perfect linear relationship between $1/G'$ as a function of resting time (R^2
364 = 0.985-0.996) (Fig. 3B). The slopes of these curves proportionally increased (R^2 in regression = 0,96)
365 with the amount of *Fg*-infected flour (0, 10, 20 and 30 %) substitution (Fig. 4A). When doughs were
366 prepared with different flour extracts the slope of $1/G'$ was the highest in doughs prepared with salt-
367 soluble protein extracts from *Fg*-infected flour (Fig. 4B). Heat treatment of this extract before

368 incorporation into the dough resulted in a similar slope than for all other doughs prepared with 2% NaCl
369 solution or extracts from commercial wholemeal flour with or without heat treatment (Fig. 4B). The
370 elastic properties, measured as G' , of doughs made with increasing amounts of *Fg*-infected flour or
371 extract from *Fg*-infected flour decreased more rapidly as a function of incubation time than for other
372 doughs. The fact that the heat-treated extract from *Fg*-infected flour did not show the same effect as its
373 untreated counterpart really points towards a significant role of fungal proteases on gluten protein
374 degradation in dough during resting, which ultimately results in a weakening of the dough structure.
375 Previous research has shown that random depolymerization of single-stranded polysaccharides in dilute
376 solution gives a linear increase in their inverse molecular weight, intrinsic or specific viscosity as a
377 function of their degradation time with the slope corresponding to the rate of chain cleavage⁴³⁻⁴⁵. This
378 relationship has often been used to elucidate the conformation and structure of polymers in solution e.g.
379 single stranded or double helix etc.⁴⁷. The observed linear relationship between $1/G'$ and dough resting
380 time (Fig. 3B) in the present study may therefore lend support to the recent proposal²³⁻²⁴ that individual
381 gluten molecules are linear, not permanently cross-linked, and interact via non-covalent interactions.

382 *Fusarium graminearum* secretes various enzymes including α -amylases for the acquisition of nutrients
383 from its host (i.e. wheat grain). However, as wheat dough consists mostly of starch, fungal α -amylases
384 may be partly involved in changing the dough properties observed by the oscillatory measurements.
385 When comparing gluten from dough rested for equal durations, gluten prepared with 20% *Fg*-infected
386 flour showed lower R_{max} and higher Ext ($P < 0.01$) than gluten prepared without *Fg*-infected flour (Fig.
387 5). Maximum resistance to extension decreased and Ext increased with increasing dough incubation
388 time in both gluten samples with and without *Fg*-infected flour ($P < 0.01$) (Fig. 5). Wholemeal flour
389 usually contains higher amounts of enzymes compared to white flour. This may explain the relatively
390 large reduction in R_{max} of gluten prepared from rested control dough (100% commercial wholemeal
391 flour) after 45- and 90-min incubation. The maximum resistance to extension tended ($P = 0.11$) to
392 decrease more rapidly with increasing dough incubation time in gluten prepared from dough made with
393 *Fg*-infected flour. The result implies that fungal proteases further reduce the resistance to extension of
394 gluten during dough rest. Rheological analyses showed that proteases from *F. graminearum* could have

395 adverse effects and contribute to weaken gluten during dough mixing and rest. It should be noted that
396 the *Fg*-infected samples used in our study were highly infected as indicated by the high level of DON.
397 Hence the level of proteases might be also high in our samples. The relationship between the levels of
398 proteases and DON in wheat infected by *F. graminearum* deserves further investigation.

399 Our study demonstrates that serine-type proteases are responsible for degrading gluten proteins in *Fg*-
400 infected grain. Two serine-type proteases, specifically FG05797 and FG11164, seem to be abundant and
401 are thus interesting candidates for further investigation of their function. Rheological analyses revealed
402 that both reduced glutenin polymer size and presence of gluten-degrading proteases in *Fg*-infected wheat
403 flour weaken gluten, most likely by limiting disulphide bond formation and degrading gluten proteins,
404 respectively, during dough mixing and rest. Further research should focus on whether other fungi than
405 *F. graminearum* secrete proteases involved in weakening of gluten. Particular attention should be paid
406 to fungi infecting wheat head which are not yet known to produce mycotoxins, such as *Microdochium*
407 spp. They will not be removed from the food system under the current regulation, and thus the level of
408 fungal proteases can be high and detrimental for the dough properties. Moreover, detailed mechanisms
409 of how those proteases degrade gluten proteins and thus causing weak gluten should be further
410 investigated.

411 **4 Abbreviations Used**

412 FHB, Fusarium head blight; DON, deoxynivalenol; HMW-GS, high molecular weight-glutenin
413 subunits; LMW-GS, low molecular weight-glutenin subunits; *Fg*, *Fusarium graminearum*; SDS,
414 Sodium dodecyl sulfate; EDTA, Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid; PMSF, Phenylmethylsulfonyl
415 fluoride; AEBSF, 4-(2-Aminoethyl)benzenesulfonyl fluoride hydrochloride; DTT, dithiothreitol; IAA,
416 2-iodoacetamide; CAN, acetonitrile; LC, liquid chromatography; FA, Formic acid; MS/MS tandem
417 mass spectrometry; MS, mass spectrometry; G' , storage modulus; G'' , loss modulus G'' ; $1/G'$, a
418 multiplicative inverse of G' ; R_{max} , maximum resistance to extension; Ext, distance to extension; SDS-
419 PAGE, SDS–polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis;

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425

426 **Supporting information**

427 Salt-soluble proteins were extracted from *F. graminearum*-infected wholemeal flour (A) or whole grains
428 (A-C) and separated on zymograms copolymerized with gluten that were either incubated at 37 °C
429 overnight prior to staining (A and B) or stained directly after gel electrophoresis (C). WF, Wholemeal
430 flour and WG, whole grain. B and C shows four biological replicates (Supplementary Figure SF1). List
431 of protease and peptidases in the proteome database of *F. graminearum* (*Gibberella zeae*, strain PH-1 /
432 ATCC MYA-4620 /FGSC 9075 /NRRL 31084) in UniProt (downloaded Nov, 2018) (Supplementary
433 Table ST1). Identified fungal proteins with their identification probability after Mascot search
434 (Supplementary Table ST2-4). Peptides were generated from protein extracted from *F. graminearum*-
435 infected whole grain and analysed by LC-MS/MS (Table ST2). Salt-soluble proteins were extracted
436 from *F. graminearum*-infected whole grain and separated on pre-cast NuPAGE™ 12% Bis-Tris Protein
437 Gels and stained with Coomassie brilliant blue R-250. Each lane of the gel was divided into eight,
438 roughly equal, pieces and proteins were digested in the gel. Peptides were thereafter extracted from the
439 gel pieces and analysed by LC-MS/MS (Table ST3). Salt-soluble proteins were extracted from *F.*
440 *graminearum*-infected whole grain and separated on zymogram gel copolymerized with gluten and
441 stained with Coomassie brilliant blue R-250 without incubation. White band (smear) was excised from
442 the gel and divided into two pieces and proteins were digested in the gel. Peptides were thereafter
443 extracted from gel pieces and analysed by LC-MS/MS (Table ST4). List of identified fungal proteases
444 and analyses of their subcellular localisation (Supplementary Table ST5). Subcellular localization of all
445 identified proteases in our study was predicted according to their amino acid sequences. A sequence

446 containing signal peptide and no trans-membrane helices outside of the signal peptide (analysed by
447 SignalP v. 4.1 and TMHMM Server v. 2.0, respectively) was considered as a secreted protein. The
448 prediction of protein subcellular localization was examined with two programs, WoLF PSORT and
449 DeepLoc. When the prediction of subcellular localization differed between the two programs, the closest
450 homologs were searched against the annotated SWISS-PROT database with BlastP
451 (<https://www.uniprot.org/blast/>) and the subcellular localization of the closest homolog was assessed.

452 The supporting information is available free of charge on the ACS Publications website.

453

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579 **Figure captions**

580 **Figure 1.** Salt-soluble proteins (10 μ g) extracted from *F. graminearum*-infected flour were mixed with
581 and without protease inhibitors and separated on zymograms. Zymograms were incubated with the
582 respective protease inhibitors at 37 °C overnight prior to staining. (A) without inhibitor, (B) Inhibitor
583 cocktail, (C) E-64; trans-Epoxy succinyl-L-leucylamido(4-guanidino)butane, (D) Pepstatin A, (E)
584 EDTA; Ethylenedinitrilotetraacetic acid, (F) PMSF; Phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride, (G) AEBSF; 4-(2-
585 Aminoethyl)benzenesulfonyl fluoride hydrochloride, (H) NEM; N-Ethylmaleimide.

586 **Figure 2.** The maximum resistance to extension (R_{max} , A) and extensibility (Ext, B) of gluten. Gluten
587 was prepared from commercial wholemeal flour with and without *F. graminearum*-infected wholemeal
588 flour (0 – 40 %). Error bars show standard deviation of two replicates. * shows significant difference
589 from control (without *F. graminearum*-infected flour) as analysed by Tukey test ($P < 0.05$).

590 **Figure 3.** Time dependent change in storage modulus (G' , A) and the multiplicative inverse of G' ($1/G'$,
591 B) during oscillatory measurement of dough prepared from commercial wholemeal flour (solid line),
592 with 10% (dashed line), 20% (dotted line) or 30% (dash and dot) substitution by *F. graminearum*-
593 infected wholemeal flour (lines are averages of two replicates).

594 **Figure 4.** The slope of $1/G'$. Doughs were prepared with different amounts of *F. graminearum*-infected
595 flour (0-40%) (A) and with 2% NaCl or extracts from commercial wholemeal flour (WF) or *F.*
596 *graminearum*-infected wholemeal flour (Fg-WF) with/without heat treatment (+70 °C/blank,
597 respectively) (B). Error bars show standard deviation of two replicates. Letters show significant
598 differences as analysed by Tukey test ($P < 0.05$).

599 **Figure 5.** The maximum resistance to extension (R_{max} , A) and extensibility (Ext, B) of gluten. Gluten
600 was prepared from dough made of commercial wholemeal flour without (solid bar) and with *F.*
601 *graminearum*-infected wholemeal flour (20 % inclusion level, open bar). Dough was incubated at 30 °C
602 for 0, 45 or 90 min prior to washing with Glutomatic 2100. Error bars show standard deviation of two
603 replicates. Letters show significant differences as analysed by Tukey test ($P < 0.05$).

604

Table 1. Number of protein hits after Mascot search and identified fungal proteases

Protein analysis method	Number of protein hits			Number of identified fungal protease
	<i>F. graminearum</i>	<i>T. aestivum</i>	Total	
Crude-LC-MS/MS	172	85	257	12
SDS-PAGE-LC-MS/MS	614	433	1047	40
Zymography-LC-MS/MS	179	540	719	24

Table 2. List of predicted extracellular fungal proteases identified from *F. graminearum*-infected wheat grain

Protein name	Entry ^a	Gene name	Gene ontology (Molecular function)	Method ^b			Previously reported proteases				
				Crude	SDS-PAGE	Zym	Brown et al., 2012	Yang et al., 2012	Ji et al., 2013	Paper et al., 2007	Lowe et al., 2015
Carboxypeptidase											
	I1RP45	FG05797	serine-type carboxypeptidase activity [GO:0004185]	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	
Extracellular metalloproteinase (Fungalysin)											
	I1RI44	FG03467	metalloendopeptidase activity [GO:0004222]; zinc ion binding [GO:0008270]	x	x	x	x			x	
Peptide hydrolase											
	I1RR22	FG06527	aminopeptidase activity [GO:0004177]; metal ion binding [GO:0046872]	x	x				x		
	I1RMQ1	FG05245	metal ion binding [GO:0046872]; peptidase activity [GO:0008233]	x	x		x			x	
	I1RR36	FG06545	metal ion binding [GO:0046872]; peptidase activity [GO:0008233]		x						
	A0A0E0RRY2	FG01818	metal ion binding [GO:0046872]; peptidase activity [GO:0008233]	x	x	x		x		x	
Uncharacterized protein											
	I1RJF8	FG03975	aspartic-type endopeptidase activity [GO:0004190]		x	x	x	x		x	
	A0A098DS79	FG09141	glutathione hydrolase activity [GO:0036374]	x	x	x					
	I1S379	FG11249	metallocarboxypeptidase activity [GO:0004181]; zinc ion binding [GO:0008270]		x	x	x		x	x	
	I1RER9	FG02169	metallocarboxypeptidase activity [GO:0004181]; zinc ion binding [GO:0008270]		x	x					
	I1RM69	FG05052	metallopeptidase activity [GO:0008237]		x					x	
	I1S1J0	FG10595	serine-type endopeptidase activity [GO:0004252]			x	x			x	
	I1RHQ4	FG03315	serine-type endopeptidase activity [GO:0004252]		x	x	x		x	x	
	I1RR60	FG06572	serine-type endopeptidase activity [GO:0004252]		x	x	x			x	
	I1RB96	FG00806	serine-type endopeptidase activity [GO:0004252]		x	x	x	x		x	
	I1S3S6	FG11472	serine-type endopeptidase activity [GO:0004252]		x	x	x			x	
	I1RGU8	FG02976	serine-type endopeptidase activity [GO:0004252]		x	x	x			x	
	I1S303	FG11164	serine-type endopeptidase activity [GO:0004252]	x	x	x			x	x	
	I1S2N6	FG11036	serine-type peptidase activity [GO:0008236]	x	x		x			x	
	I1S2I7	FG10982	serine-type peptidase activity [GO:0008236]		x	x	x			x	

Subcellular localization of identified proteases was predicted according to their sequences by analysing with SignalP, TMHMM, DeepLoc and Wolf PSORT. Identified proteases possessing a signal peptide, no transmembrane α -helix and predicted to be extracellular were listed in the table. ^aUniProtKB/Swiss-Prot entry name, ^bMethod for protein analysis. Crude, Crude-LC-MS/MS; SDS-PAGE, SDS-PAGE-LC-MS/MS; Zym, Zymography-LC-MS/MS

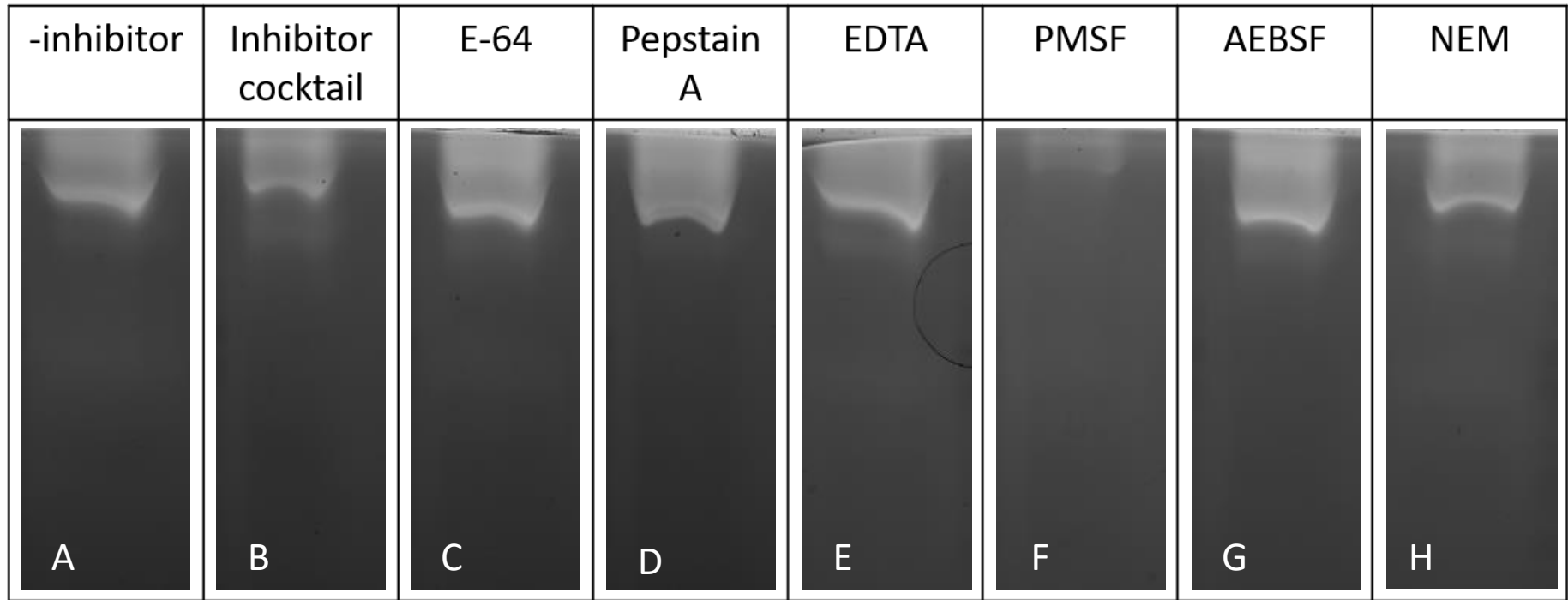


Figure 1.

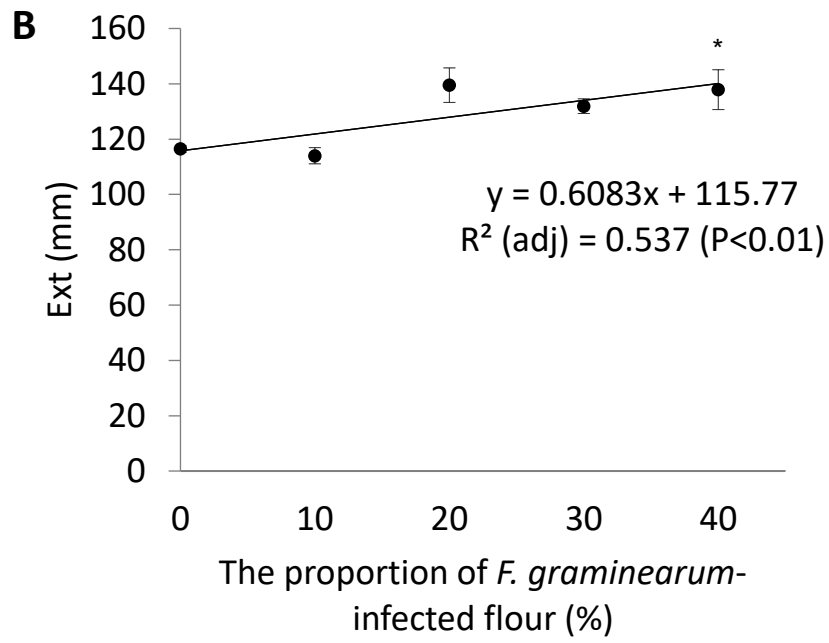
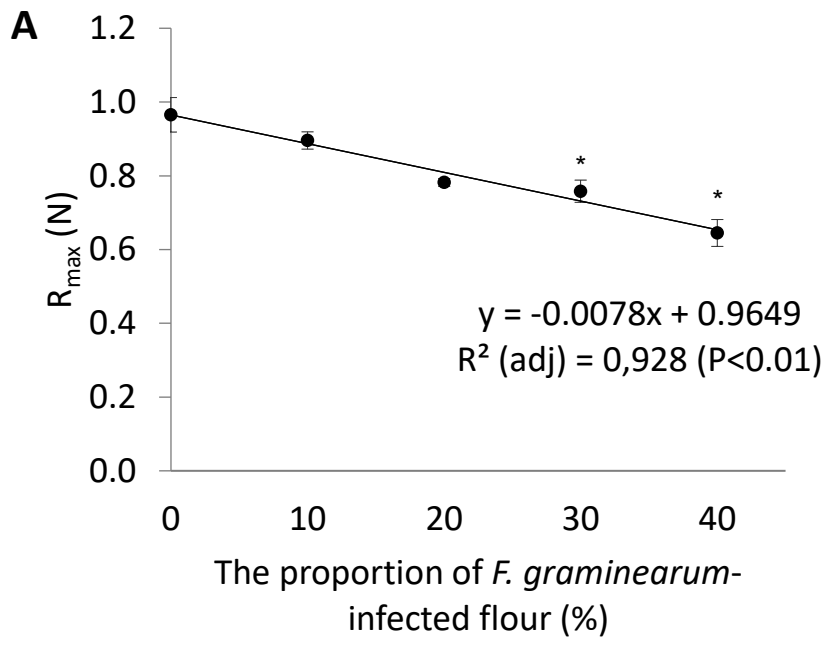


Figure 2.

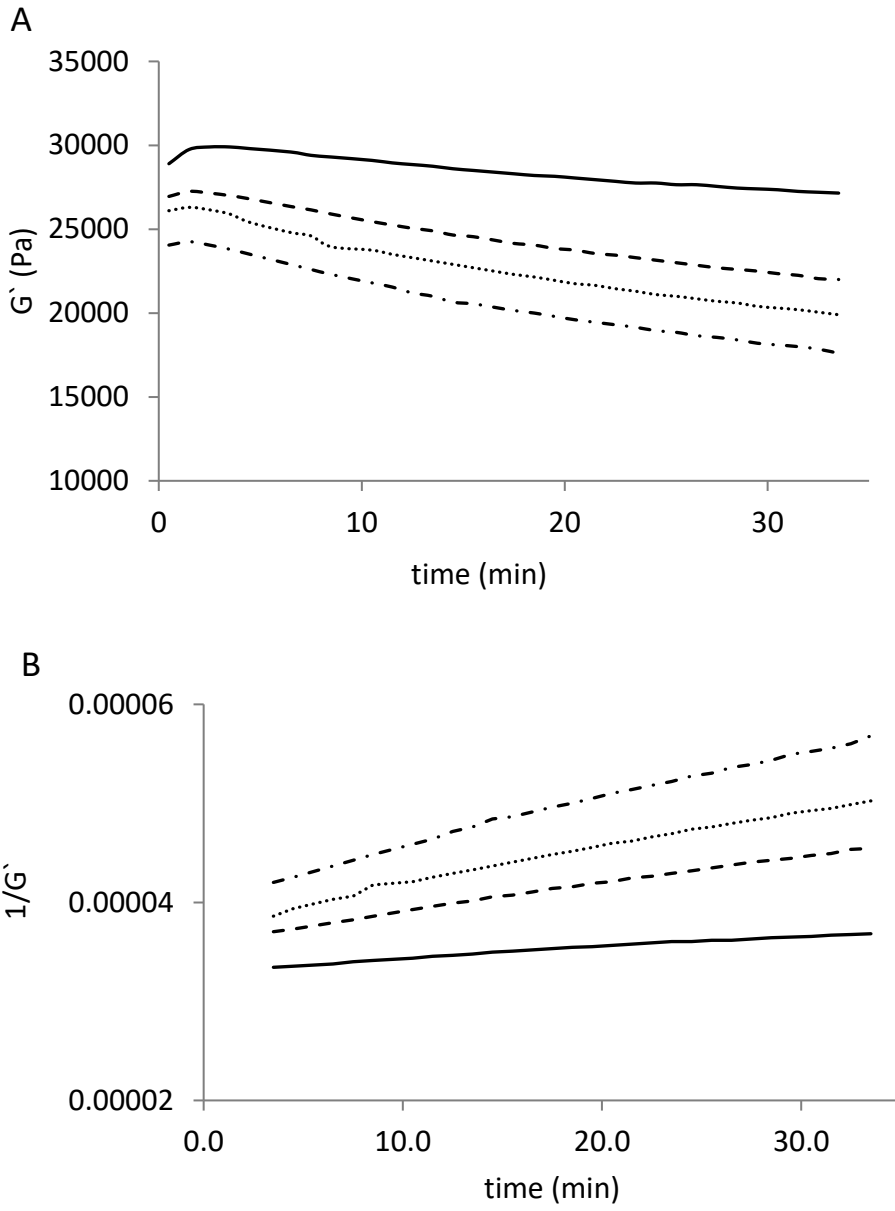
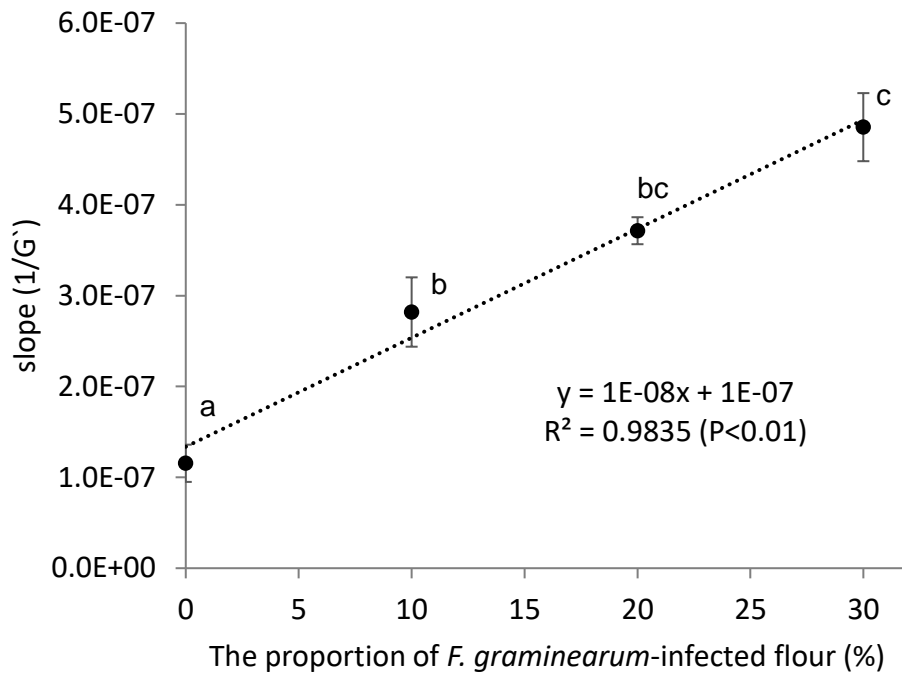


Figure 3.

A



B

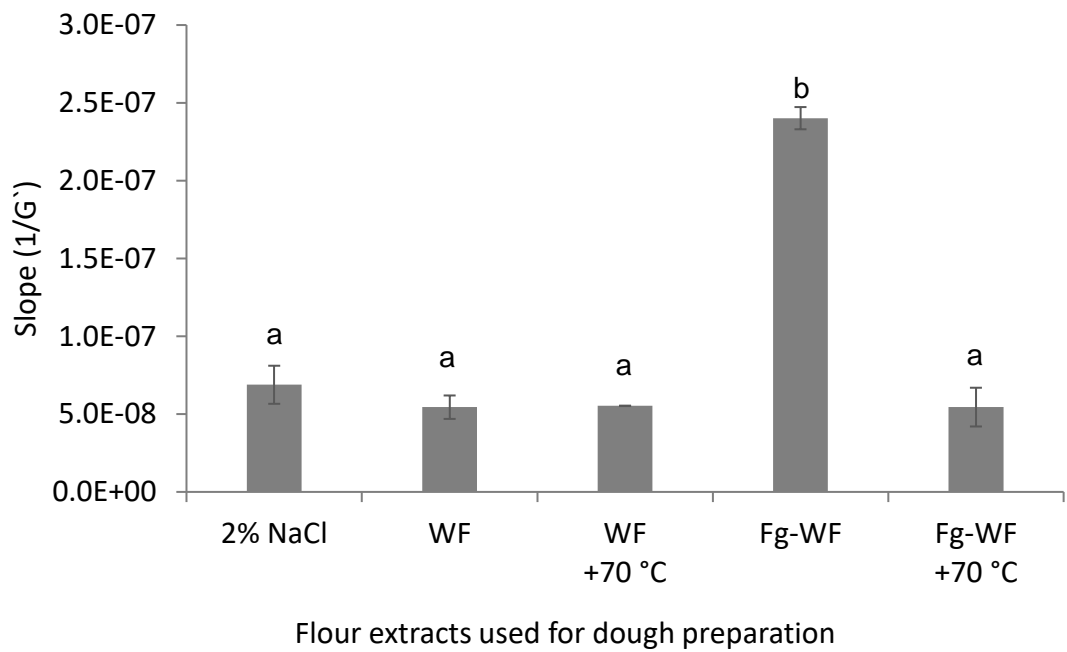


Figure 4.

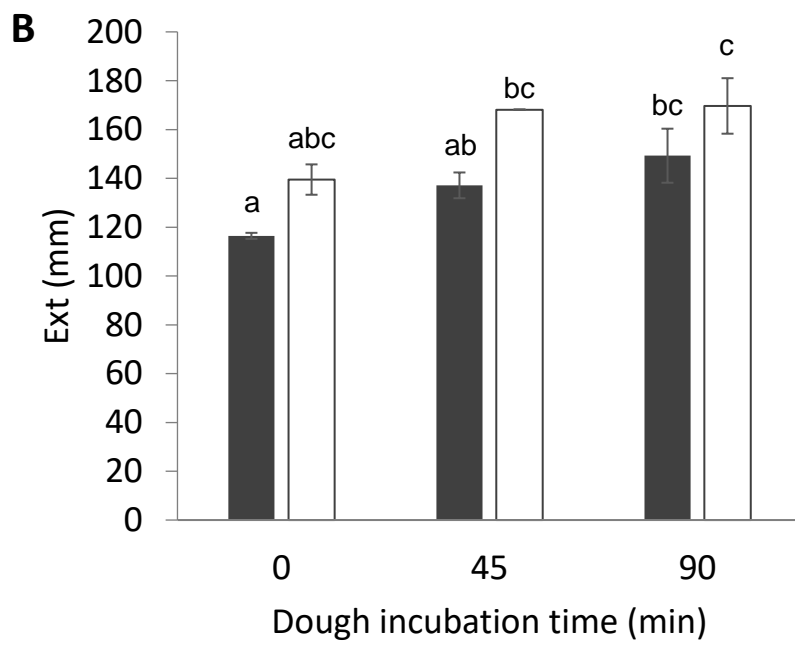
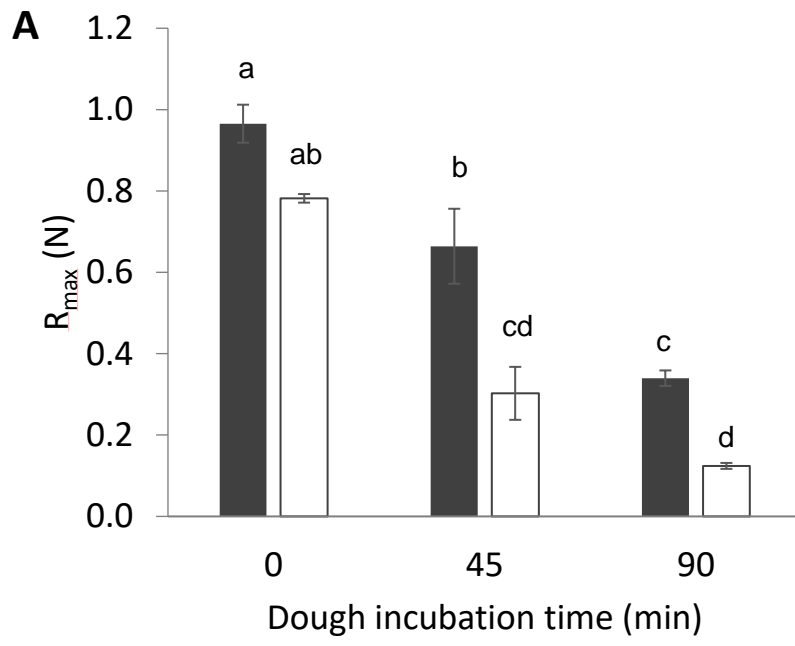


Figure 5