

Cell Factories of Higher Fungi for Useful Metabolite Production

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Abstract Higher fungi or called as macro-fungi, consisting of the divisions ascomycetes, basidiomycetes, and imperfect fungi, are receiving great interest around the world, because studies of higher fungi help us not only to find new edible and officinal resources but also to understand their complicated biology. In recent decades, a large number of useful substances from higher fungi have been isolated, identified, and characterized, which have important biological functions, such as reducing blood pressure, enhancing immunity, and possessing anti-cancer and anti-HIV and other pharmacological activities. This chapter will review the genetic manipulation tools for higher fungi, omics analysis of higher-fungus cell factories, and production of useful metabolites by higher fungi, including those of terpenoids, heterocyclics, polysaccharides, and polyketides. Trends in future development of cell factories of higher fungi for useful metabolite production will also be analyzed.

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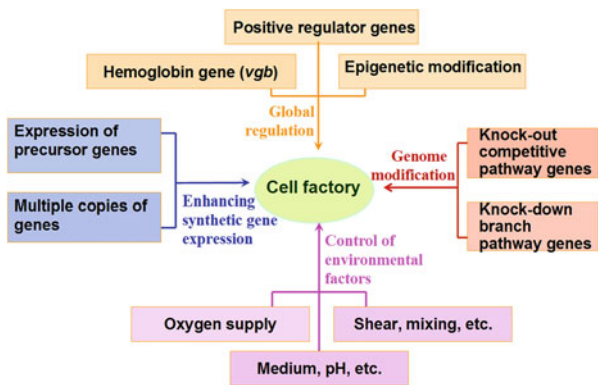
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Graphical Abstract



Strategies for improving cell factories of higher fungi for useful metabolite production

Keywords Genetic manipulation • Higher fungi • Omics analysis • Cell factory • Medicinal mushroom • Fermentation technology • Metabolic engineering • Secondary metabolite production

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1 Introduction

Higher fungi or macrofungi, consisting of the divisions ascomycetes, basidiomycetes, and imperfect fungi, refer to the fungi with hyphae well-developed, septate, and usually at some stage of development interwoven into a compact tissue especially in the fruiting body. Studies of higher fungi help us not only to find new edible and officinal resources but also to understand their complicated biology. Several thousand years ago, people used higher fungi as medicinal and food sources, but at that time, their functional components were unknown. In recent decades, a large number of useful substances from higher fungi have been isolated, identified, and characterized, which could reduce blood pressure, enhance immunity, and possess anticancer and anti-HIV and other pharmacological activities. Some new bioactive compounds reported in recent years are shown in Table 1, and most of them are secondary metabolites, which are organic compounds not directly involved in the normal growth, development, or reproduction of an organism but often play an important role in plant defense against herbivory and other interspecies defenses. These compounds can be used as potential lead compounds for new drug development. However, bioactive secondary metabolites produced by higher fungi are generally of very low productivity and are thus unable to meet the requirement for (pre-)clinical study and large market supply. Furthermore, these metabolites are usually of complicated chemical structures and very difficult to synthesize chemically at high efficiency. Higher fungus cell factories, therefore, have received increasing attention to achieve large-scale industrial production of their unique and important natural compounds.

Microbial cell factories are the basis of biochemical conversion from low-cost raw materials and/or agro-industrial by-products into valuable medicine, chemicals and energy, or detoxifying harmful/toxic chemicals. When a beneficial compound from higher fungi is identified, we need to reveal its biosynthetic pathway and to improve its biosynthesis by genetic or metabolic engineering. Also, its large-scale efficient production using fermentation technology is necessary for industrial application. The framework in constructing higher fungus cell factories is shown in Fig. 1.

Cell factories of higher fungi have been more and more widely applied to produce value-added compounds. For example, the higher fungus *Ganoderma lucidum* is used for the production of ganoderic acid, a potential antitumor terpenoid; the key biosynthetic genes in its pathway upstream were overexpressed, and the fermentation process parameters were optimized, and a new two-stage fermentation strategy was also developed to achieve a high yield of the product [41–44]. In order to better understand the significance of cell factories of higher fungi, in the following, this article is outlined from the construction and analysis of high-fungus cell factories to their production of useful metabolites.

Table 1 New bioactive compounds recently reported in higher fungi

Higher fungi	Compounds	Bioactivities	References
Terpenoids			
<i>Ganoderma boninense</i>	Ganoboninketals A-C	Anticancer	[1]
<i>Stereum hirsutum</i>	Three hirsutane-type sesquiterpenoids	Antimicrobial and anticancer	[2]
<i>Inonotus rickii</i>	Inonotic acid A		[3]
	3-O-Formyl inonotic acid A		
	Inonotic acid B		
	3,6-Dihydroxycinnamolide	Anticancer	
<i>Pleurotus cornucopiae</i>		Antibacterial	[4]
<i>Granulobasidium vellereum</i>	2-Hydroxycoprinolone		[5]
	8-Deoxy-4 α -hydroxysugicolone		
	8-Deoxydihydrosugicolone		
<i>Naematoloma fasciculare</i>	Four new lanostane triterpenoids	Anticancer	[6]
<i>Flammulina velutipes</i>	Enokipodins E-J	Antifungal activity	[7]
	Sterpurols A	Anticancer and antioxidant	
<i>Sarcodon scabrosus</i>	Secoscabronine M	Anticancer	[8]
	Scabronine M	Anticancer	[9]
<i>Neonothopanus nambi</i>	Nambinones A-C	Anticancer	[10]
	1-Epi-nambinone B		
	Nambinone D		
	Aurisin K	Antimalarial and anticancer	
<i>Armillaria</i>	Melleolide sesquiterpene aryl esters	Anticancer	[11]
<i>Ganoderma lucidum</i>	Lucidenic acids A-C, N	Anticancer	[12]
	7-O-Ethyl ganoderic acid O	Anticancer	[13]
	3 α ,22 β -Diacetoxy-7 α -hydroxyl-5 α -lanost-8, 24E-dien-26-oic acid	Anticancer	[14]
	3-O-Acetyl ganoderic acid B	Antimicrobial, anti-HIV, antitumor, antioxidation	[15]
	8 β ,9 α -Dihydroganoderic acid C		
	3-O-Acetyl ganoderic acid K		
	Ethyl 3-O-acetyl ganoderate B		
	Ethyl ganoderate J		

(continued)

Table 1 (continued)

Higher fungi	Compounds	Bioactivities	References
Heterocyclics			
<i>Hericium erinaceus</i>	Erinacerins C-L	Anticancer	[16]
	Isohericenone	Anticancer	[17]
	3-Hydroxyhericenone F, Hericenone I and J	Endoplasmic reticulum (ER) stress-suppressive activity	[18]
<i>Sarcodon leucopus</i>	Sarcoviolin beta and episarcoviolin beta	Antioxidant and anticancer	[19]
<i>Phellinus ribis</i>	Phelliribsin A	Anticancer	[20]
<i>Trifolium nigrescens</i>	4'''',5,5'',7,7''-Pentahydroxy-3',3'''-dimethoxy-3-O-beta-D-glucosyl-3'',4'-O-biflavone	Antioxidant and tyrosinase inhibitory activities	[21]
<i>Neolentinus lepideus</i>	5-Methoxyisobenzofuran-4,7(1H,3H)-dione, 1,3-Dihydroisobenzofuran-4,6-diol	Antibacterial	[22]
<i>Lasiosphaera fenzlii</i>	4,6-Dihydroxy-1H-isoindole-1,3(2H)-dione, 4,6-Dihydroxy-2,3-dihydro-1H-isoindol-1-one	Anticancer	[23]
<i>Macrolepiota neomastoidea</i>	Macrolepiotin	Anticancer	[24]
<i>Amanita exitialis</i>	N-2-(1-Methoxycarbonyl-ethyl)guanosine	Anticancer	[25]
<i>Ganoderma colossum</i>	Ganomycin 1	Anti-HIV	[26]
<i>Xylaria</i> sp. PSU-F100	Xylarisin 132	Antibacterial	[27]
<i>Xylaria</i> sp. (#2508)	Xylopyridine A	DNA-binding affinity	[28]
<i>Phellinus linteus</i>	Phellifuropyranone A	Anticancer	[29]
<i>Cortinarius brunneus</i>	N-Glucosyl-1H-indole derivatives		[30]
<i>Cortinarius subtortus</i>	(Iso)-Quinoline alkaloids	Antioxidant	[31]
Miscellaneous			
<i>Cordyceps taii</i>	Deacetylcytochalasin C Zygospurin D	Anticancer	[32]
<i>Lentinus polychrous</i>	6-Methylheptane-1,2,3,4,5-pentaol	Anticancer	[33]
<i>Tuber indicum</i>	Four novel cerebrosides	Antifatty liver, antitumor	[34]
<i>Cordyceps jiangxiensis</i>	Jiangxienone	Anticancer	[35]
<i>Hericium erinaceus</i>	Hericenone L	Anticancer	[36]
<i>Cantharellus cibarius</i>	(10E, 14Z)-9-Oxo-octadeca-10,14-dien-12-ynoic acid	Anticancer	[37]

(continued)

Table 1 (continued)

Higher fungi	Compounds	Bioactivities	References
<i>Thelephora aurantiotincta</i>	Thelephantin O	Anticancer	[38]
<i>Tuber indicum</i>	5 α -Androst-16-en-3 α -ol	Increase the sexual arousal of human female, adjust moods, mediate human menstrual synchrony	[39]
<i>Thelephora vialis</i>	Vialinin A	Antioxidant and anticancer	[40]

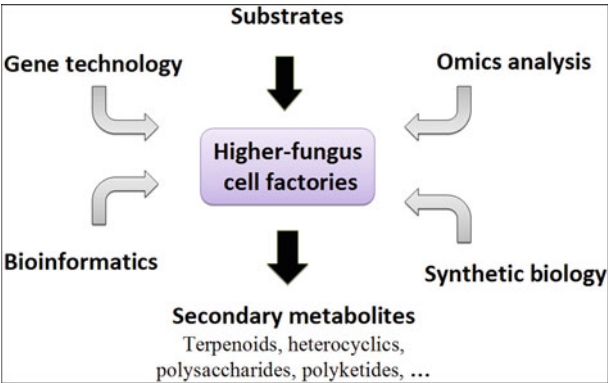


Fig. 1 Framework in constructing higher fungus cell factories for useful secondary metabolite production

2 Genetic Manipulations of Higher Fungi

Initially, the designing strategies of higher fungus cell factories by genetic engineering were mainly aimed at single gene modification and/or an individual pathway, which may not efficiently change the metabolic flux. With the advance of metabolic engineering and synthetic biology, the focus has gradually shifted to polygenic modifications and multimetabolic pathways. This has resulted in the shift in designing strategies of metabolic engineering from conventional deletion or overexpression of endogenous genes in individual metabolic pathways to current combinatorial approaches with manipulation of key gene expression of metabolic networks in an entire cell [45] (Fig. 2), while control of environmental factors (Fig. 2) could provide useful epigenetic information and cellular physiological and metabolic responses to cultivation conditions (especially in large-scale cultivation) with aid of omics analysis (Fig. 1). Recently, higher fungi as cell factories for the production of secondary metabolites have attracted extensive interests around the world. While compared with the achievement of the cell factories of *Escherichia*

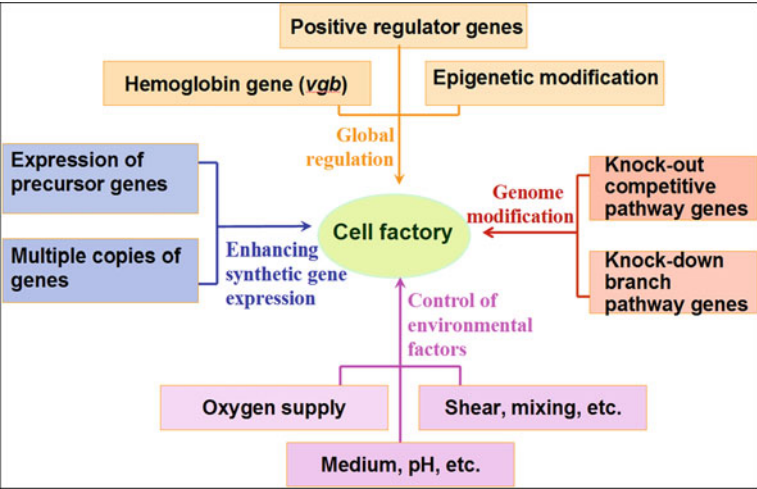


Fig. 2 Strategies for improving cell factories of higher fungi

coli and yeasts, the studies on higher fungi are obviously lagging behind, which requires more research inputs urgently. In this section, the tools for constructing high-fungus cell factories, including genetic transformation methods, gene over-expression, gene silence, and gene deletion, will be overviewed as follows.

2.1 Genetic Transformation Methods

The development of genetic transformation technology provides a powerful tool for the study of gene expression and gene function. Establishment of an efficient transformation system is an important premise for functional analysis of genes. The genetic transformation technology has been applied to various mushrooms, such as *Agaricus bisporus* [46], *Flammulina velutipes* [47], *Volvariella volvacea* [48], *Ganoderma weberianum* [49], and *Tremella fuciformis* [50]. Over the years, there have been great advances in transformation methods of higher fungi. For example, *Agrobacterium*-mediated transformation was successfully applied to higher fungi, which was originally used in plants. Here, the development of transformation technology in higher fungi is to be overviewed, including polyethylene glycol (PEG)-mediated transformation, electroporation transformation, *Agrobacterium tumefaciens*-mediated transformation, and restriction enzyme-mediated DNA integration. The comparison of those four methods is shown in Table 2.

Table 2 Comparison of four transformation methods

Method	Applicability	Efficiency	Operability	References
PEG-mediated transformation	Ordinary	Ordinary	Ordinary	[51]
Electroporation transformation	High	Ordinary	High	[52]
<i>Agrobacterium tumefaciens</i> -mediated transformation	Ordinary	Low	Low	[44]
Restriction enzyme-mediated DNA integration	Low	High	Ordinary	[53]

2.1.1 PEG-Mediated Transformation

The PEG protoplast transformation method has been applied to *G. lucidum* [51], *Pleurotus nebrodensis* [54], *Lentinus edodes* [55], etc. In the past, the efficiency of this transformation process was generally low and the exogenous gene was difficult to integrate into the genome by this method, and many transformants lost their resistance phenotype after several-week growth in the absence of selection pressure [56]. However, after many efforts, this method has been improved and become one of main ones in higher fungi.

Li et al. [51] developed an efficient PEG-mediated transformation method for *Pleurotus ostreatus*. Heparin, ATA, and spermidine were used to improve the transformation efficiency. As a result, 80–180 colonies could be obtained per µg of DNA per 10⁷ protoplasts with the hygromycin B phosphotransferase gene (*hph*) as a selection marker, which was much higher than previously reported [57]. And 120–150 and 85–100 transformants per µg of DNA per 10⁷ protoplasts were also obtained in *G. lucidum* and *L. edodes*, respectively. That means the PEG-mediated transformation could be a useful tool for genetic engineering in mushrooms.

Yu et al. [58] transformed a homogenous 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl coenzyme A reductase (HMGR) gene into *G. lucidum* by PEG-mediated transformation method. The gene *sdhB* mutation was used as a selection marker. A total number of 15–20 transformants per µg plasmid DNA were obtained. What’s more, they found that the transformants could maintain the resistance phenotype after five passages of cultivation on a non-selection medium. Southern blot analysis confirmed that the *sdhB* gene was stably integrated at multiple sites in the genome.

High efficiency, convenience, and genome integration are the merits of the PEG-mediated transformation method in the genetic engineering of higher fungi. However, the genes integrated into the genome are usually of multiple copies, and the protoplast preparation is also time-consuming.

2.1.2 Electroporation Transformation

Electroporation transformation has also been used in higher fungi, such as *T. fuciformis* [59], *L. edodes* [60], *F. velutipes* [61], and *G. lucidum* [62]. Compared with other transformation methods, it is simple, rapid, and of wide application range. In

the past, electroporation transformation required protoplast preparation, which was tedious, but recently, scientists have developed a modified method for basidiospores or mycelial fragments. Kuo et al. [63] did transformation by electroporation of basidiospores or mycelial fragments in *F. velutipes*. While the basidiospores or mycelial fragments also need lysing enzymes to incubate for 2 h, it is much easier than protoplasting. The efficiency using basidiospores could be 30–150 transformants per μg DNA in *L. edodes* [60]. The resistance was stable for at least 6 months during subcultivation. Southern blotting analysis confirmed that the gene was stably integrated into the genome.

The modified electroporation transformation has many advantages. It is simple and cheap and does not require protoplasts. For some mushrooms, it is difficult to obtain a sufficient number of protoplasts and the regeneration efficiency from protoplasts was also very low. Thus, this method was more widely applicable than others under these circumstances. However, the method also has limitations [61]. During basidiospore isolation, contamination frequently happens. Moreover, multiple copies may be generated via random integration. It is not surprising that electroporation transformation is yet to be improved.

2.1.3 *Agrobacterium Tumefaciens*-Mediated Transformation

In 1995, Bundock used *A. tumefaciens*-mediated transformation (ATMT) in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* for the first time [64]. De Groot et al. [65] applied ATMT to filamentous fungi—*Dictyostelium discoideum*. Recently, some higher fungi have been transformed by this method, including *A. bisporus* [66, 67], *F. velutipes* [68], *Heterobasidion annosum* [69], *P. nebrodensis* [70], *V. volvacea* [71], and *G. lucidum* [44]. The ATMT method has the following advantages: a wide range of transformation recipients, high degree of stability, and high proportion of single-copy transformants [44]. For the fungi lacking sexual stages, the exogenous gene single-copy transformation is very important. This made ATMT become one of the common higher fungal transformation methods.

Xu et al. [44] applied the *Agrobacterium*-mediated transformation to *G. lucidum* and obtained 10–15 transformants per 10^7 protoplasts. All tested transformants maintained resistance stably and the transformants showed 100 % mitotic stability for the *sdhB* selection marker. Most of the integrated DNA had a single copy in the genome.

The efficiency of ATMT was dependent on species, and this method was also reported to be unable to obtain transformants [72]. Many factors can affect the efficiency of this transformation, such as the conditions of protoplasts and *A. tumefaciens*, the ratio of the number of bacteria to protoplasts, and cocultivation temperature. Zhang et al. [73] tested different transformation parameters in *Hypsizygus marmoreus*. Their results showed that 25 °C and 2 days of coculture was best. Kemppainen et al. [74] studied the mechanism of ATMT and found no obvious sequence similarities between genomic sites and T-DNA (the transferred DNA of the tumor-inducing (Ti) plasmid of *A. tumefaciens*). About 75 % of the

integrations took place at the predicted locus in the model mushroom *Laccaria bicolor*.

ATMT has the irreplaceable advantage in the single-copy DNA integration, so this method has been developed rapidly these years [75]. But it should also be improved due to limitations such as low applicability and fluctuant transformation efficiency. As a transformation method affects the fate of transformed DNA, it should be paid attention to during the design of metabolic engineering strategies. For example, the PEG method could be best in the case where multiple copies of a gene should be randomly integrated into the genome [76]. On the other hand, when targeted integration or gene deletion is expected, the ATMT method would be the choice [77].

2.1.4 Restriction Enzyme-Mediated DNA Integration (REMI)

The mechanism of REMI is that added restriction enzymes in the mixture enter recipient cells, recognize genome/plasmid enzyme cutting sites, and realize the cutting and integration, and then, incisions are connected by DNA ligase. The earliest REMI was established in yeasts [78], and it has a wide range of application [79]. Recently, with increasing studies on higher fungi, REMI has also been applied to *G. lucidum* [80], *C. cinereus* [81], *L. edodes* [82], *Pleurotus eryngii* [53], and others. For example, Noh et al. [53] transformed the enhanced cyan fluorescent protein (ECFP) gene in *P. eryngii* via REMI, resulting in 10–40 hygromycin-resistant transformants per μg of the Hind III-digested DNA and 10^6 protoplasts. Southern blot analysis revealed that the gene was integrated to the genome.

One of the advantages of REMI is that it can generate various mutants [83]. This advantage has been used to analyze the genes related to the mutant characteristics. For example, by using REMI, Nakazawa et al. [84, 85] obtained a lot of mutants and found that the *Cc.rmt1* gene encoded a putative arginine methyltransferase and the *Cc.ubc2* gene affected clamp cell morphogenesis and nuclear migration of *C. cinerea*.

REMI can also be used for the site of insertion and selection marker and provides great convenience for screening. But, it also needs protoplast preparation and requires the addition of PEG and CaCl_2 for higher transformation efficiency. Cutting sites of the restriction enzyme are random; at the same time, to obtain sufficient number of transformants, the REMI system needs to select the optimal transformation enzyme, plasmid, and recipient cells. Thus, this method has not been widely applied, compared to the ATMT and PEG methods described above.

As another transformation method, the particle bombardment method has also been used as a transformation tool in higher fungi, as reported by Sunagawa and Magae [86] and Sunagawa et al. [87]. But, because of requiring a special instrument—particle bombardment gun—this method is not the first choice.

2.2 Selectable Marker

A resistance marker is generally used for selection of positive transformants. The commonly used resistance markers in higher fungi are of drug resistance, so that the positive transformants could grow in the culture medium with the presence of drug (s). Until now, the most widely used marker is hygromycin B phosphotransferase (*hph*) gene derived from bacteria and the transformants would obtain hygromycin resistance. Interestingly, our recent work [44] found that the mutated *sdhB* gene encoding an iron-sulfur protein subunit of succinate dehydrogenase, which successfully conferred carboxin resistance upon transformation, was a suitable resistance marker, and the efficiency of transformants screening in carboxin resistance was within the range of other reported cases. But, the use of hygromycin resistance was found unsuccessful to obtain a positive transformant in the system.

2.3 Gene Overexpression

The exogenous genes may exist stably in cells through transformation. However, the low gene expression level is a bottleneck to the construction of cell factories. Thus, in this case, the gene overexpression is critical to successful metabolic engineering. Upregulation expression of key genes can effectively improve the level of downstream metabolite synthesis. Recently, gene overexpression has been applied to gene engineering of higher fungi in developing useful cell factories.

Xu et al. [44] overexpressed the HMGR gene which is a key enzyme in the synthetic pathway of ganoderic acids in *G. lucidum*, by using a homogenous *gpd* as a promoter. As shown in Fig. 3, the ganoderic acid content reached twofold in the overexpressed cells compared to the wild type (control). The accumulation of intermediates, such as squalene and lanosterol, was also increased. The results showed the promising potential of metabolic engineering of the ganoderic acid pathway via the transgenic system.

Zhou et al. [88] improved the production of individual ganoderic acids by engineering the biosynthetic pathway of ganoderic acids in *G. lucidum* through overexpressing the gene of squalene synthase (SQS), which catalyzes the following reaction: $2 \text{ farnesyl diphosphate} + \text{NAD(P)H} \rightleftharpoons \text{squalene} + 2 \text{ diphosphate} + \text{NAD(P)} (+)$. The constructed SQS strain may be a suitable basis for further development of an industrial process for hyperproduction of the antitumor secondary metabolite (Fig. 4).

The direct expression of a target gene is one way of overexpression, while the promoter engineering is another way to optimize the expression of target genes. Chai et al. [89] adopted promoter engineering to enhance the biosynthesis of β -glucans in *P. ostreatus*, in which β -glucan synthase is its key enzyme. After changing the β -glucan synthase promoter into a strong one from *Aspergillus nidulans*, the product level was increased up to 32 %, which is the first report of successful swapping of promoters in higher fungi.

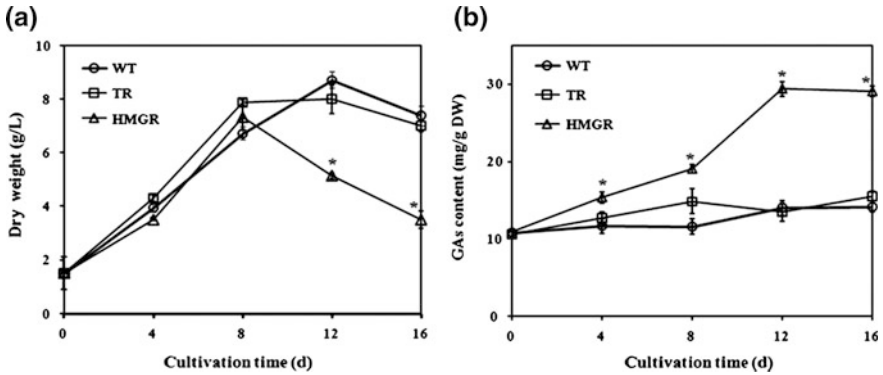


Fig. 3 Kinetic profiles of cell growth (a) and ganoderic acid content (b) in the wild-type strain (*open circle*), the strain transformed with a void plasmid (*open square*), and the tHMGR-overexpressed strain (*open triangle*). The error bars indicate the standard deviations from three independent samples. Asterisks statistical significance ($P < 0.05$) compared to the WT strain, d days [44]

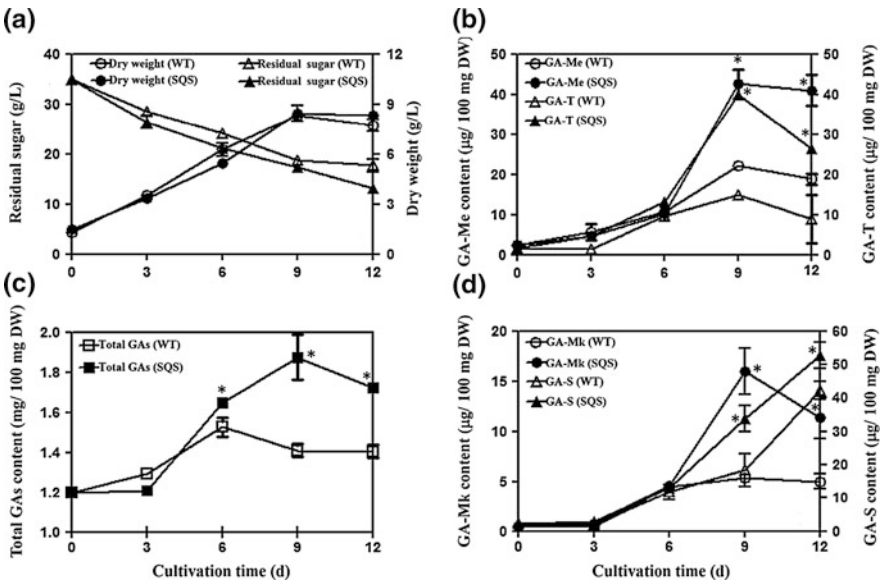


Fig. 4 Kinetic profiles of cell growth and residual sugar (a), content of total GAs (c), accumulation of GA-Me and GA-T (b), and GA-S and GA-Mk (d) in the WT strain and the SQS-overexpressed strain. The error bars indicate the standard deviations from three independent samples, d days [88]

The above-mentioned strategies are mainly related to changing promoters by introducing endogenous or heterogenous promoters to increase the expression of key genes in biosynthetic pathways. In another aspect, Lin et al. [90] reported that heterogenous protein expression in the enoki mushroom *F. velutipes* was notably enhanced by polycistronic strategy to express multiple copies of a single gene. This strategy can realize not only single gene copy but also coexpression of multiple genes.

Many efforts have been made to enhance the expression of targeted genes in higher fungi by promoter engineering, increasing gene copy number, etc. Coconi-Linares et al. [91] overexpressed three peroxidases in a single *Phanerochaete chrysosporium* strain, which increased the production yield of ligninolytic enzymes up to 4 times. However, the gene expression level is still difficult to control precisely, making the regulation of the metabolic flux of higher fungus cell factories not so easy.

2.4 Gene Silencing

Gene silencing, or gene knockdown, reduces the expression of a targeted gene [92]. By this, we can downregulate the metabolic branch pathway and decrease the flux to unfavorable metabolic pathway, and ultimately enhance the metabolic flux toward the targeted product biosynthesis. These years, gene silencing has been applied to *C. cinereus* [93], *A. bisporus* [94], *L. bicolor* [95, 96], *L. edodes* [97], and *G. lucidum* [62]. The results show that the gene silencing technology is important to efficient biosynthesis of useful metabolites and it also helps the characterization of gene functions in higher fungi [98].

RNA interference (RNAi) is an RNA-dependent gene silencing process that could inhibit the expression of specific genes at the posttranscriptional stage by introducing small double-stranded interfering RNAs [99]. Mu et al. [62] cosilenced the genes of orotidine 5'-monophosphate decarboxylase (URA3, as a reporter) and laccase in *G. lucidum*. Their results showed that the highest rate of URA3 silencing, reaching 81.9 %, was obtained by using the dual promoter vector.

RNAi is usually used for gene functional analysis. Godio et al. [100] proved that a squalene epoxidase gene (*erg1*) from basidiomycete *Hypholoma sublateritium* was involved in the biosynthesis of clavarinic acid (an antitumor triterpenoid) and ergosterol. When *erg1* was cloned and expressed with the *gpdA* promoter from *A. bisporus*, the production of clavarinic acid was increased, while silencing *erg1* gene by antisense RNA resulted in the reduction of clavarinic acid production and appeared an ergosterol-dependent phenotype (Fig. 5).

Different from gene knockout, the efficiency of gene silencing cannot reach 100 %, but at least 70 % of the targeted RNA could be depleted. However, this 'limitation' also has an advantage over the gene knockout in cases where essential genes under investigation are still required [101].

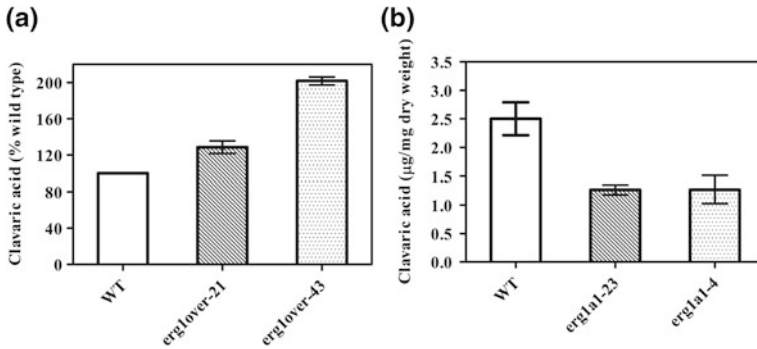


Fig. 5 Production (a) and content (b) of clavarinic acid in cultures of *H. sublateritium* and the different transformants in minimal medium containing asparagine/glutamate as nitrogen source. WT, the wild-type strain; erg1over-21, the erg1-overexpressed strain 21; erg1over-43, the erg1-overexpressed strain 43; erg1Δ-23, the erg1-silenced strain 23; erg1Δ-4, the erg1-silenced strain 4 [100]

2.5 Gene Deletion

Gene deletion, the same as gene knockout or gene inactivation, is an important tool in learning about genes with unknown or incompletely known functions. This method usually occurs by homologous recombination. As a result, after recombination, no expression of targeted genes can be detected.

Gene deletion strategy has made a breakthrough in mushroom-forming fungus in recent years. In the past, gene inactivation was only reported in the mushroom *Schizophyllum commune* by homologous recombination, where the deletion efficiency was only 3.25 % for most targeted genes [102]. The low efficiency of homologous integration is the main obstacle to apply this method to other higher fungi. Recent progresses were made by the group of de Jong [103] and Ohm [104]. At first, they constructed a dedicated deletion vector pDelcas consisting of two antibiotic resistance cassettes. The nourseothricin resistance was located between the genes to be deleted, while the phleomycin resistance was an amplification of an ectopic integration. These transformants were screened out by using a fast colony PCR to confirm gene knockouts. Other scientists found that the inactivation of *ku80* and/or *ku70* which was related to the non-homologous end joining (NHEJ) could increase the frequency of the targeted gene knockout by homologous recombination [105]. Then, de Jong et al. [103] developed a constructive method to delete *ku80* gene and used the resulting strain for inactivation; finally, 7 out of 10 transformants were deleted, in which the efficiency of their gene disruption was greatly increased.

This improved system has been used in functional gene analysis in *S. commune*. van Peer et al. [106] deleted the *spc14* gene, which is related to the septal pore cap (SPC), and found that SPC was an organelle functioning in vegetative growth and mushroom formation. Ohm et al. [107] found that 5 transcription factor genes were related to the regulation of mushroom formation by deleting these genes in $\Delta ku80$

strain with pDelcas vector. In addition, Berends et al. [108] inactivated the *alg3* gene in *S. commune* by introducing pDelcas vector, and as a result, Man(3)GlcNAc (2) protein-linked N-glycans was predominantly produced.

Nakazawa et al. [109] also found the frequency of gene disruption was enhanced by inactivation of *ku70* gene in *C. cinerea*. Salame et al. [110] disrupted a targeted gene based on the $\Delta ku80$ strain and found the redundancy among genes of manganese peroxidases (MnPs) in *P. ostreatus* [111, 112].

3 Omics Analysis of Higher Fungus Cell Factories

Omics analysis, including genomics, transcriptomics, proteomics, and metabolomics, is an important approach to find new functional genes, proteins, metabolic networks, and metabolic products. Combining with bioinformatics, it has a great advantage to identify gene functions and to understand metabolite biosynthetic mechanisms. As we know, there are still many bioactive compounds of higher fungi, whose biosynthetic pathways are not yet identified. The development of omics analysis plays a significant role in elucidating biosynthetic pathways of metabolic products, and it is complementary to the traditional methods of drug candidate screening and identification. By omics technologies, scientists can further design, modify, and reconstruct higher fungus cell factories based on the obtained findings and implications, which can improve the rationality and validity of metabolic engineering and synthetic biology.

3.1 Genomic Analysis

More and more higher fungi genomes have been released due to technological progress. The development of genome sequencing in higher fungi provides opportunities for research and development of their metabolic products, as the genome information facilitates the discovery and biosynthetic study on bioactive compounds from higher fungi.

Recently, genomic information of a couple of higher fungi is obtained, including common edible mushroom such as *A. bisporus* [113], *F. velutipes* [114], *V. voluacea* [115], *Omphalotus olearius* [116], *S. commune* [117], *Lignosus rhinocerotis* [118], *Mycena chlorophos* [119], medicinal mushroom *G. sinense* [120], *G. lucidum* [121], and *Cordyceps militaris* [122].

F. velutipes, as an important edible mushroom, is also a rich source of secondary metabolites and enzymes which affect wood-degrading machinery and ethanol production. By sequencing and analyzing *F. velutipes* genome, 58 potential enzymes for ethanol production were identified, which provided new possibilities to use *F. velutipes* for ethanol fermentation [114].

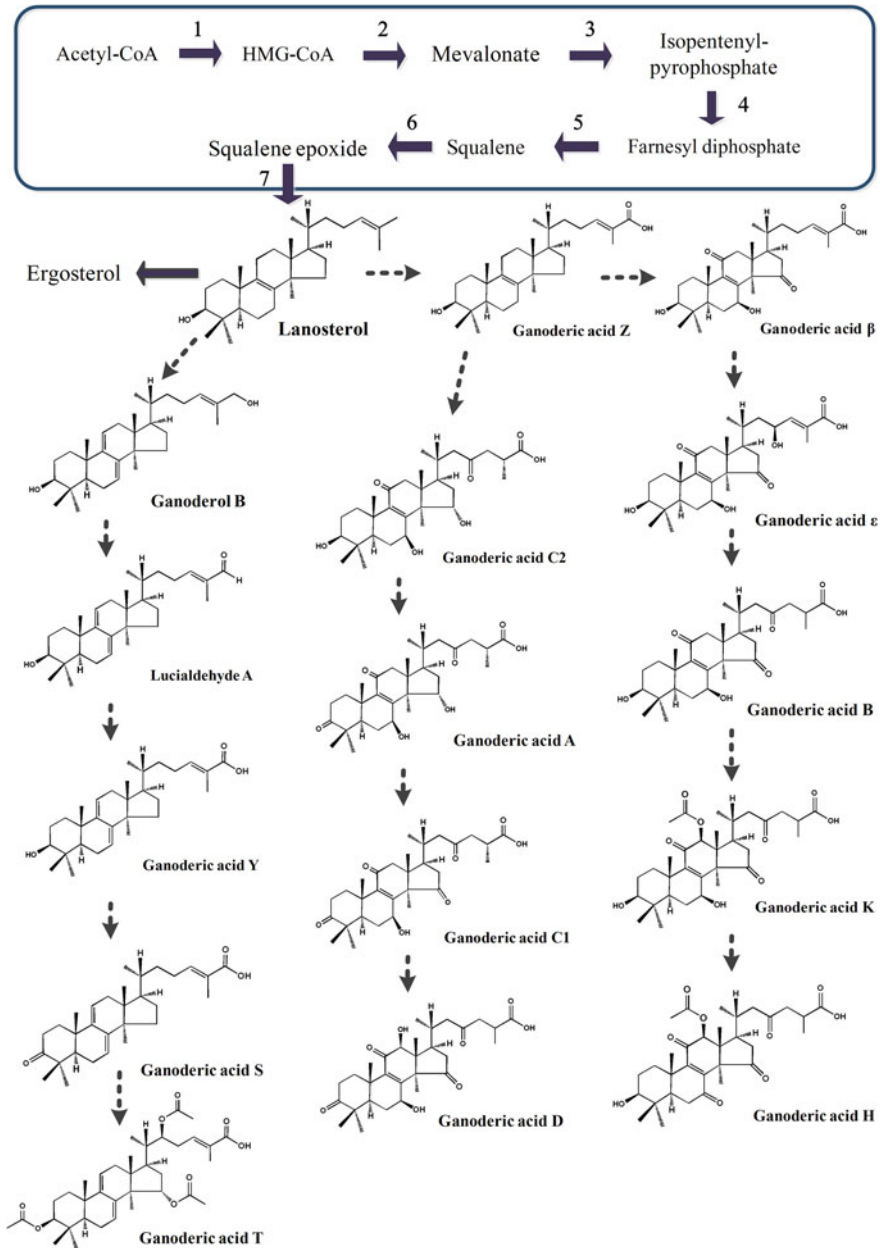


Fig. 6 Possible synthetic pathway of ganoderic acids [121]. 1 HMG-CoA synthase (*hmgS*); 2 HMG-CoA reductase (*hmgR*); 3 mevalonate-5-pyrophosphate decarboxylase (*mvd*); 4 farnesyl pyrophosphate synthase (*fps*); 5 squalene synthase (*sqs*); 6 squalene epoxidase (*se*); 7 lanosterol synthase (*ls*)

Zhu et al. reported the genome sequence of *Ganoderma sinense* and found that most of *G. sinense* gene clusters were silenced under common culture conditions. DNA methylation and small RNA-mediated reversible gene silencing tightly maintained this control, suggesting epigenetics may play critical roles in the regulation of *G. sinense* secondary metabolism [120].

Chen et al. [121] analyzed the genome of *G. lucidum*, which has been used as a drug with antitumor, antiaging, antiviral, and immunomodulatory activities since ancient times in East Asia [123]. Its triterpenoids—ganoderic acids and ganoderan—are known as main bioactive compounds [124]. Although the ganoderic acids are known to be synthesized via the mevalonate pathway (MVP) [125], it remains a mystery about the detailed modification of the lanosterol skeleton, which may be related to cytochrome P450 superfamily (CYPs). The predicted biosynthetic pathway of ganoderic acids is shown in Fig. 6. Sequencing analysis of *G. lucidum* genome revealed possible 16 CYPs involved in the terpenoid synthesis, which was favorable to the identification of ganoderic acid synthetic pathway and to the massive production of the triterpenoids as well as to the heterogenous expression via synthetic biotechnology. Then, Liu et al. [126] performed comprehensive annotation for these genes, which were analyzed from the genome of *G. lucidum*. Their work showed the genes related to triterpene biosynthesis and wood degradation. Recently, Qian et al. [127] identified simple sequence repeats (SSRs) or microsatellites in *G. lucidum* and analyzed their frequency and distribution in different genomic regions. Xu et al. [128] used qRT-PCR in *G. lucidum* gene analysis. Li et al. [129] identified and characterized long intergenic noncoding RNAs (lincRNA) in the mushroom. The study about the genome of *G. lucidum* will definitely promote the future R&D toward pharmacological and industrial applications.

3.2 Transcriptomic Analysis

Transcriptome is the set of all RNA molecules—mRNA, rRNA, tRNA, and other noncoding RNA transcribed in one cell or a cell population. It can be applied to the total set of transcripts in a given organism or to the specific subset of transcripts present in a particular cell type. Different from the genome which is roughly fixed for a given cell line, the transcriptome may vary significantly with external environmental conditions. As all mRNA transcripts in a cell are included, the transcriptome reflects the genes being actively expressed at any given time, except for mRNA degradation phenomena. The study of transcriptomics, also called as expression profiling, examines the mRNAs expression level in a given cell population, often using high-throughput techniques based on DNA microarray technology, or using next-generation sequencing technology known as RNA sequencing (RNA-Seq) to study the transcriptome at the nucleotide level. Transcriptomic analysis has been used in higher fungi *C. militaris* [130], *G. lucidum* [131], *L. edodes* [132], *V. volvacea* [133], and *P. ostreatus* [134].

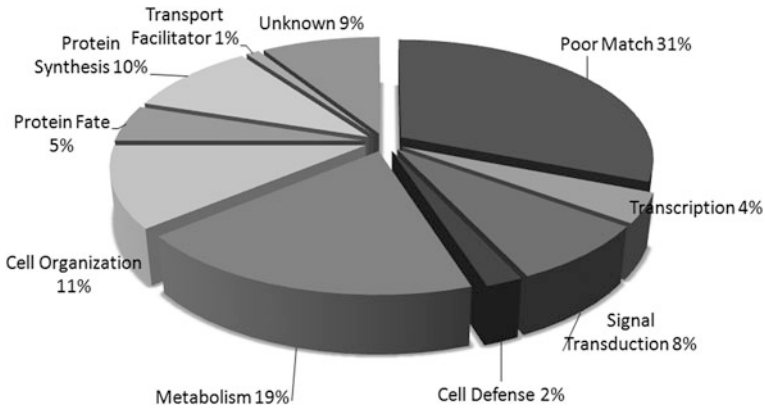


Fig. 7 Functional categories of 147 cDNA sequences in the *G. lucidum* SSH-cDNA library [135]

Xu et al. [135] did comparative transcriptome analysis of *G. lucidum* using suppression subtractive hybridization (SSH) technique to identify differentially expressed genes in liquid static culture versus shaking culture. As a result, 147 unigenes significantly expressed in static culture were identified, including those related to asexual sporulation and signal transduction (Fig. 7). Zhu et al. [136] screened for RNA editing sites at the genomic level in *G. lucidum* and revealed the role of transcriptional plasticity in the mushroom growth and development and in the regulation of secondary metabolic pathway.

RNA-Seq is a recently developed method for transcriptome profiling by deep-sequencing technologies [137], which has advantages: detected transcripts correspond to genomic sequences and it has a low background signal. Thus, RNA-Seq has become a main method for transcriptomic analysis. Yu et al. [138] analyzed the transcriptome of *G. lucidum* via Illumina high-throughput technology. Their studies performed the functional genes involved in the terpenoid biosynthesis pathway and wood degradation. Plaza et al. [139] reported that the exposure of different fungi tissues to different types of antagonists shaped the expression patterns of defense loci in a tissue-specific manner. Yang et al. [140] found enzymes related to saponin biosynthesis in the termite mushroom *Termitomyces albuminosus*, including 22 glycosyltransferase and 6 cytochrome P450 s genes by de novo sequencing and transcriptome analysis.

Ophiocordyceps sinensis, or called *Cordyceps sinensis*, has thousands of years of history as a traditional Chinese medicine because of its regulation function on human body [141]. In recent years, the main active ingredients of *O. sinensis* were identified. Transcriptome analysis by Xiang et al. [142] found that 121 genes might be involved in the regulation of signal transduction and transcription level of *O. sinensis*. They also analyzed the adenosine kinase, adenylate kinase, and 5'-nucleotidase probably related to the phosphorylation and dephosphorylation in the cordycepin biosynthesis, and the work provided useful information for identifying the cordycepin biosynthetic pathway.

3.3 Proteomic Analysis

Proteomic analysis is the systematic identification and quantification of the complete complement of proteins of a biological system such as a cell, tissue, or organism at a specific time point. Cell metabolic activities are directly/indirectly regulated by proteins. Therefore, proteomic analysis can help us better understand the cellular metabolism. But not all of the protein spots can be identified by proteomic analysis. Proteome study is still under development in higher fungi although some proteomic analyses were conducted in recent years in *Termitomyces heimii* [143], *A. bisporus* [144], *Pleurotus tuber-regium* [145], *Antrodia cinnamomea* [146], and *G. lucidum* [147].

Zhang et al. [148] investigated the mechanism of the effect of Tween 80 on the exopolysaccharide production by *P. tuber-regium* using proteomic analysis. They identified 32 differentially expressed proteins by one-dimensional gel electrophoresis, and the ATP:citrate lyase isoform 2 could stimulate exopolysaccharide production. Wang et al. [149] used high-throughput sequencing analysis to obtain the transcriptome and proteome of *Agrocybe aegerita* mycelia and fruiting bodies. *A. aegerita* possesses multiple pharmacological activities such as antitumor, antiaging, and reducing blood lipids [150]. The work helped in revealing the polysaccharide and sterol synthetic pathway, and it was also found that the polysaccharide was highly biosynthesized in fruiting bodies. The information provided important clues for establishing the mushroom cell factories toward future application.

3.4 Metabolomic Analysis

Metabolome refers to the complete set of small-molecule metabolites (usually less than 1 kDa in size), such as metabolic intermediates, hormones and other signaling molecules, and secondary metabolites, to be found in a biological sample. Like transcriptome and proteome, metabolome is dynamic and changing from second to second. Metabonomics, as a scientific study of chemical processes involving metabolites, is the quantitative measurement of dynamic multiparametric metabolic responses of living systems to pathophysiological stimuli or genetic modifications. Thus, metabolic profiling can give an instantaneous snapshot of the cell physiology. One of the challenges of systems biology and functional genomics is to integrate proteomic, transcriptomic, and metabolomic information to provide a better understanding of cellular biology.

The metabolomic study can not only find difference in external and internal environment disturbance response, but also distinguish different phenotypes; thus, it is an important technology in omics research. With technology development, such as sophisticated nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR), gas chromatography–mass spectrometry (GC/MS), and high-performance liquid chromatography–mass

spectrometry (HPLC-MS), high-throughput metabolomics analysis has become possible on higher fungi metabolites.

Some scientists used metabolite profiles for the chemotaxonomy of higher fungi [151]. What's more, metabolomic study was also used for the analysis of different developmental stages or growth environments of higher fungi. For example, Park et al. [152] investigated the metabolic profiling of mycelia and fruiting bodies of *Cordyceps bassiana* by H-1 NMR spectroscopy and multivariate data analysis.

Metabolomic analysis is usually done by combining with other omics technologies such as transcriptomic and proteomic analyses to obtain more in-depth results. Matsuzaki et al. [153] performed the proteomic and metabolomic analyses of the benzoic acid metabolism of *Phanerochaete chrysosporium*. Bak et al. [154] used a polyomics-based analysis including metabolomics, proteomics, and transcriptomics of *P. chrysosporium* and tried to understand the metabolic and regulatory mechanisms of lignocellulose depolymerization.

4 Production of Useful Metabolites by Higher Fungus Cell Factories

As we know, during the long-term evolution, higher fungi have formed a special mechanism of metabolism in resisting unfavorable environments and becoming self-defense and survival during the entire life cycle. Diversified secondary metabolites with various bioactivities could be produced by higher fungi, such as terpenoids, heterocyclics, polysaccharides, polyketides, and polyphenols, which provide an abundant resource for drug discovery.

4.1 Terpenoids

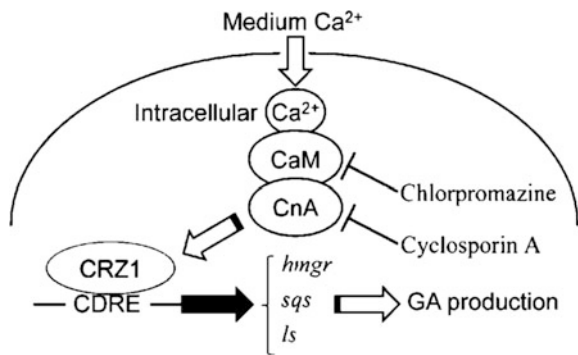
Terpenes, as main bioactive compounds isolated from mushrooms, are known as an important category of naturally occurring bioactive metabolites produced by many higher fungi [116]. In particular, sesquiterpenoid, diterpenoid, and triterpenoid are typical representatives of terpenes with various interesting biological activities.

Ganoderic acids (GAs), a kind of highly oxygenated lanostane-type tetracyclic triterpene, are important secondary metabolites of *G. lucidum*. The production titer and productivity of GAs have reached great advancement in recent decade, as shown in Table 3. For example, Zhang and Tang [155] developed a novel three-stage light irradiation strategy for the efficient production of GAs and *Ganoderma* polysaccharides in submerged fermentation of *G. lucidum*. The maximal GA production was 69 % higher than the two-stage culture. Tang et al. [156] enhanced the GA production up to 754.6 mg/L through a pH-shift and DO-shift integrated fed-batch fermentation process. Liang et al. [42] found phenobarbital, a

Table 3 Typical studies on fermentation production of ganoderic acids

Strain	Ganoderic acid	Titer (mg/L)	Productivity [mg/(L h)]	Reference
<i>G. lucidum</i> CGMCC 5.616	Total GAs	210–1900	21–160	[158, 160–162]
<i>G. lucidum</i> CGMCC 5.616	Mk	0.71–260	0.088–22	[88, 158–160, 162]
<i>G. lucidum</i> CGMCC 5.616	T	0.71–240	0.089–20	[88, 158–160, 162]
<i>G. lucidum</i> CGMCC 5.616	S	0.81–270	0.10–17	[88, 158–160, 162]
<i>G. lucidum</i> CGMCC 5.616	Me	0.37–110	0.046–9.3	[88, 158–160, 162]
<i>G. lucidum</i> SB97	Total GAs	500	110	[163]
<i>Ganoderma sinense</i> SCIM 0701	Total GAs	260	37	[164]
<i>Ganoderma applanatum</i> ACCC-52297	Total GAs	293	65	[165]
<i>G. lucidum</i> SCIM 0006	Me	12	0.69	[166]
<i>G. lucidum</i> 5.26	Total GAs	680	75	[167]
<i>G. lucidum</i> 5.26	T	19	2.1	[167]

Fig. 8 Proposed Ca^{2+} induction mechanism in GA biosynthesis via calcineurin signaling [158]



P450 inducer, could enhance the production of total and individual GAs in two-stage cultivation. Zhao et al. [157] reported that nitrogen limitation led to more accumulation of GAs and upregulation of the biosynthetic genes.

Recently, signal transduction engineering of fungal secondary metabolism is receiving great interest for efficient production of valuable metabolites. Xu and Zhong [158] found that the calcineurin signal transduction was significant to GAs biosynthesis by *G. lucidum* (Fig. 8). Addition of calcium ion to static liquid cultures of *G. lucidum* resulted in the enhanced production of GAs, and the total GAs and individual GA-Mk, GA-S, GA-T, and GA-Me reached 3.7-, 2.6-, 3.2-, 4.5-, and 3.8-fold improvement compared to control, respectively. The group further reported that Na^+ addition [159] and Mn^{2+} addition [160] could both enhance the GAs accumulation.

Dou et al. [168] studied the oxygen supply effect on the biomass and helvolic acid production in submerged fermentation of *C. taii*. Helvolic acid belongs to a member of fusidane skeleton triterpenoid family, which has a significant bactericidal activity, but few studies were performed about its fermentation production. The results showed that the value of initial volumetric oxygen transfer coefficient (K_La) greatly affected the production of both biomass and helvolic acid.

4.2 Heterocyclics

Heterocyclic compounds, or heterocyclics, are those whose one or more of the ring carbon atoms are replaced with a different element such as oxygen, nitrogen, and sulfur. Many types of heterocyclics from higher fungi have been isolated, and their structures and biological activities have been analyzed. These include indoles, pyridines, cytochalasins, quinolines, flavonoids, and nucleosides, and their anti-cancer, anti-HIV, antibacterial, and other pharmacological activities have been reported [169].

Cordycepin, 3-deoxyadenosine, is a major bioactive compound of *C. militaris*, which has various pharmacological activities, including antitumor, immunomodulatory, anti-inflammatory, and antibacterial ones [170]. The biosynthetic pathway of cordycepin has not been completely elucidated; however, many efforts have been made to enhance its production. Mao et al. [171] found that NH_4^+ had a significant effect on cordycepin production. Das et al. [172] improved the productivity of cordycepin in *C. militaris* by mutation using high-energy ion beam irradiation. In the work by Fan et al. [173], the influence of ferrous sulfate on the production of cordycepin was studied in shake flask cultures. The results indicated that the highest cordycepin titer was about 70 % higher than that without ferrous sulfate addition. This work might also be useful for further understanding the cordycepin biosynthesis.

Lovastatin is a member of the drug class of statins found in oyster mushrooms [174], used in combination with diet, weight loss, and exercise for lowering cholesterol in those with hypercholesterolemia to reduce risk of cardiovascular disease. Statistical experimental designs were used to optimize the lovastatin production by submerged fermentation of *P. ostreatus* [175]. The maximum lovastatin production reached 114.82 mg/L, which was 50 times higher than that obtained under the conditions without optimization.

Flavonoids, a class of secondary metabolites which have antioxidant effects and inhibitory activities on melanin biosynthesis, mostly exist in plants but have also been reported in higher fungi [176]. The *Vitreoscilla* hemoglobin, an oxygen-binding protein, could enhance cell growth, and it was used to alleviate oxygen limitation during submerged fermentation. Zhu et al. [177] expressed the *Vitreoscilla* hemoglobin gene (*vgb*) by REMI in *Phellinus igniarius*, which resulted in the improved growth and production of both total flavones. The metabolites reached 11.43 and 1.33 g/L, respectively, in bioreactor cultivations.

4.3 Polysaccharides

Macrofungal polysaccharides have been well known as part of traditional diet and medicine. The polysaccharides comprise a variety of biopolymers, such as β -glucans, providing a mechanism for cell protection or attachment to others [178]. The fungal polysaccharides mainly include exopolysaccharides (EPS) and intracellular polysaccharides (IPS), which could be produced by submerged mycelial cultures with a variety of medical applications. Until now, many polysaccharides have been isolated from various mushrooms, such as *Morchella conica* [179], *G. applanatum* [180], *Laetiporus sulphureus* [181], and *C. taii* [182], which have many bioactivities including antitumor [183], antioxidant [184], immunomodulatory [185], cytostatic, and antibacterial properties. Large-scale production of polysaccharides is very important for application, and some reports have been published on how to enhance its production such as optimization of culture conditions [186], addition of metabolic inducers [189], and genetic modifications [89].

Hwang et al. [187] investigated the optimum culture conditions in submerged culture of *L. sulphureus* var. *miniatus*, an edible mushroom. Interestingly, the most suitable initial pH for the metabolite synthesis was 2.0, which is rare in submerged cultures of macrofungi. In addition, supplementation of deep seawater (DSW) was also used for cultivation of higher fungi, and DSW was found to efficiently increase the mycelial growth and EPS production. As a result, the maximum mycelial growth (4.1 g/L) and EPS production (0.6 g/L) were achieved. Their work also showed that the EPS of *L. sulphureus* could increase cell proliferation and promote insulin secretion. Cui and Zhang [188] found that Mg^{2+} , Mn^{2+} , sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS), and Tween 80 significantly enhanced the EPS production during two-stage submerged cultivation of *C. militaris*. The highest EPS production reached 3.28 g/L under the optimal condition. The results showed that additions of metal ion and surfactant could be used for enhancing the EPS production by *C. militaris*.

Xu et al. [189] overexpressed the gene of phosphoglucomutase (PGM) which is a key enzyme in the biosynthetic pathway of nucleotide sugar precursors. This enzyme catalyzes the conversion of glucose-6-phosphate into glucose-1-phosphate representing a branch point in carbohydrate metabolism. The maximum IPS content and EPS production in *G. lucidum* overexpressing the PGM gene reached 23.67 mg/100 mg dry weight and 1.76 g/L, respectively, which was higher by 40.5 % and 44.3 % than by the wild-type strain (Fig. 9). Ji et al. [190] improved the polysaccharide production by engineering the biosynthetic pathway in *G. lucidum* by overexpressing the homologous UDP glucose pyrophosphorylase (UGP) gene. The maximum IPS content and EPS production in the strain were 24.32 mg/100 mg dry weight and 1.66 g/L, respectively (Fig. 10). Their results showed the feasibility to enhance polysaccharide production by altering the expression of genes involved in precursor supply.

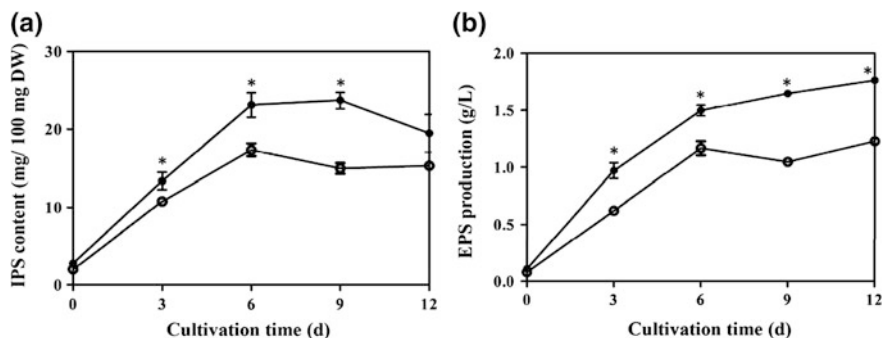


Fig. 9 Kinetic profiles of IPS content (a) and EPS production (b) in fermentation of the WT strain (blank circles) and the PGM strain (dark circles). The error bars indicate the standard deviations from three independent samples [189]

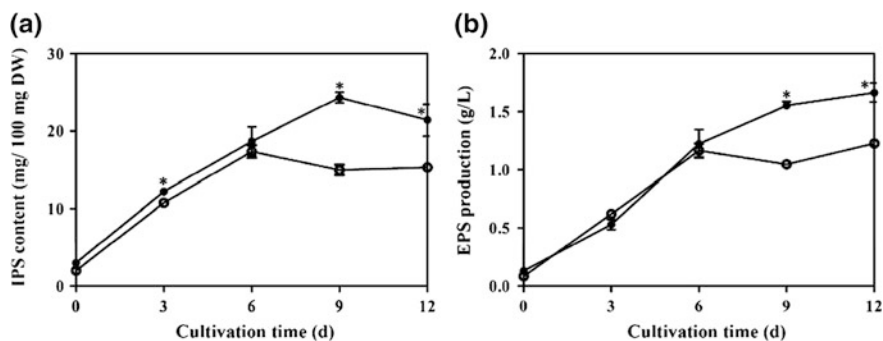


Fig. 10 Kinetic profiles of IPS content (a) and EPS production (b) in fermentation of the WT strain (blank circles) and the UGP strain (dark circles). The error bars indicate the standard deviations from three independent samples [190]

4.4 Polyketides

Polyketides (PKs), as a class of secondary metabolites, are structurally a very diverse family of complex organic compounds produced by certain living organisms in order to impart to them some survival advantages. They often possess biological activities and pharmacological properties such as antibacterial, anti-cancer, and antimalarial activities [191]. Polyketides are biosynthesized by polyketide synthases (PKSs) through the decarboxylative condensation of malonyl-CoA-derived extender units in a similar process to fatty acid synthesis [192]. In recent years, polyketides have been isolated from many higher fungi such as *Cordyceps* species and *Cortinarius purpurascens* [193].

Many fungal secondary metabolites are regulated by epigenetic modification, which not only affects metabolite titers, but also activates cryptic gene clusters

[194]. The application of epigenetic modification to higher fungi is becoming a new strategy for strain improvement and a powerful method to obtain novel natural products. For example, Strauss et al. [195] significantly enhanced the production of bisabolene-type sesquiterpenoids and xanthenes analogs from *Aspergillus sydowii* by addition of 5-azacytidine, a chemical epigenetic modifier. As higher fungi can produce a variety of unique secondary metabolites including polyketides, the epigenetic modification could help to enhance the production titer and efficiency of those interesting metabolites.

Asai et al. [196] found that addition of epigenetic modification chemicals such as histone deacetylase (HDAC) inhibitor or DNA methyltransferase inhibitor could significantly enhance polyketide production by *Cordyceps annullata*, and a couple of new aromatic polyketides were isolated, such as indigotides C-F, 13-hydroxyindigotide A and 8-O-methylindigotide B [197].

5 Summary and Future Perspectives

Higher fungi have been used as both medicinal and edible materials for thousands of years in East Asia and many other regions around the world. Nowadays, with the quick development of biological science and related engineering fields, the research on higher fungi is deepening rapidly. As described above, many unique important bioactive components have been found, which is important to the development of higher fungus cell factories for industrial applications.

The technologies such as gene transformation, overexpression, silencing, and deletion are gradually applied to the studies of the construction of higher fungus cell factories. The combination of different gene editing methods will help to explore gene functions and promote the identification and optimization of metabolic pathways. However, some problems also need to be solved. The gene transformation methods have not yet mature, and their transformation efficiency and transformant stability still need improvement as well. The gene deletion and silencing have to be extended to more species. Meanwhile, the rapid development of bioinformatics will help to understand molecular characteristics of higher fungi and biosynthesis pathways of various secondary metabolites, which is important to large-scale commercial production.

Recently, omics technologies including genomics, transcriptomics, proteomics, and metabolomics play an important role in studies on behaviors and mechanisms of higher fungi. Whole genome transcription analysis will enable researchers to accurately evaluate the relationship between phenotype and expression of genes, helping understand the cellular metabolism. It also contributes to the identification of target genes for strain improvement and accelerates the rational design and construction of higher fungus cell factories. Because the regulation of all levels of cellular activity/metabolism is interacted with each other, single omic analysis technology has apparent limitations. Thus, the integrated utilization of omics technologies is important in obtaining complete information, which will deepen the

understanding of complex biological systems and speed up the identification of target sites in metabolism. In order to have more rational and efficient improvement on cell/organism breeding, scientists of different professional backgrounds need to cooperate intimately with each other, especially with tools of bioinformatics and mathematics to simulate and design new biosynthesis systems, so as to enhance the existing bioproduct production and new bioproduct synthesis.

Without doubt, the establishment of cell factory platform has a big impact on large-scale production of useful metabolites by higher fungi. Through gene transformation, gene overexpression and other biological technologies, we can deepen our understanding on the synthetic mechanism and pathways of secondary metabolites, so as to realize the reconstruction of metabolic pathways and the massive accumulation of targeted metabolites. However, due to the short history of higher fungi research, their genetic technologies have yet to be improved to ensure exogenous genes or homologous genes expressed efficiently and stably in higher fungal cells; gene overexpression, silencing, and knockout technology also need to be applied widely in higher fungi. Furthermore, the construction of higher fungal cell factories needs the integration of genomics, gene technology platforms, and bioinformatics technologies, to have a better understanding about metabolic pathways and cellular metabolic mechanisms. Here, many new bioactive products may be found through these approaches, and the metabolic pathway can be improved to achieve efficient biomanufacturing of valuable metabolites. The expression of heterogenous genes in higher fungi, which resulted in the synthesis of other products, is also under development. Synthetic biology as an emerging discipline has become more and more popular due to its enormous potential, and how to better apply synthetic biology into higher fungi is becoming one of the targets in our future research. As the higher fungi are getting more and more global attention in recent years with their expanding markets, therefore research and development on higher fungal cell factories are anticipated to meet the growing demand of market by further promoting useful metabolites production.

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