

Fungal Systematics and Evolution

VOLUME 1 JUNE 2018 PAGES 141–167

doi.org/10.3114/fuse.2018.01.07

The culturable mycobiota associated with three Atlantic sponges, including two new species: Thelebolus balaustiformis and T. spongiae

E. Bovio^{1,2}, L. Garzoli¹, A. Poli¹, V. Prigione¹, D. Firsova³, G.P. McCormack⁴, G.C. Varese^{1*}

- ¹Mycotheca Universitatis Taurinensis (MUT), Department of Life Sciences and Systems Biology, University of Turin, 10125 Turin, Italy
- ²Marine Natural Products Team, CNRS, Institute of Chemistry (UMR 7272), University Nice Côte d'Azur, Nice, 06100, France
- ³School of Chemistry, National University of Ireland Galway, Galway, Ireland
- ⁴Zoology, Ryan Institute, School of Natural Sciences, National University of Ireland Galway, Galway, Ireland

Key words: Atlantic Ocean marine fungi sponges systematics

two new taxa

Abstract: Covering 70 % of Earth, oceans are at the same time the most common and the environment least studied by microbiologists. Considering the large gaps in our knowledge on the presence of marine fungi in the oceans, the aim of this research was to isolate and identify the culturable fungal community within three species of sponges, namely *Dysidea fragilis*, *Pachymatisma johnstonia* and *Sycon ciliatum*, collected in the Atlantic Ocean and never studied for their associated mycobiota. Applying different isolation methods, incubation temperatures and media, and attempting to mimic the marine and sponge environments, were fundamental to increase the number of cultivable taxa. Fungi were identified using a polyphasic approach, by means of morpho-physiological, molecular and phylogenetic techniques. The sponges revealed an astonishing fungal diversity represented by 87 fungal taxa. Each sponge hosted a specific fungal community with more than half of the associated fungi being exclusive of each invertebrate. Several species isolated and identified in this work, already known in terrestrial environment, were first reported in marine ecosystems (21 species) and in association with sponges (49 species), including the two new species *Thelebolus balaustiformis* and *Thelebolus spongiae*, demonstrating that oceans are an untapped source of biodiversity.

Published online: 28 March 2018.

INTRODUCTION

Water covers almost 70 % of our planet. Nonetheless, its biodiversity and habitats remain largely unexplored. For the last 580 M years, oceans have been hosting the most ancient metazoans on Earth: sponges. *Porifera* contains more than 8 600 described species and about 15 000 species waiting to be discovered by scientists (Webster & Thomas 2016). Sponges are key components of marine ecosystems, because of their incredible ability to filter seawater: according to recent estimates, they are able to process 24 000 L/kg of seawater per day and to detain over 80 % of its particles (Taylor *et al.* 2007, Rozas *et al.* 2011).

Over the millions of years of their evolution, species of *Porifera* have formed a close association with a wide variety of microorganisms including bacteria, archaea, fungi, and algae (Taylor *et al.* 2007). This close association was described for the first time by Vacelet & Donadey (1977), who observed bacteria within sponges' tissues. Today, it is well recognised that microorganisms can represent up to 40–60 % of the sponge biomass (Yarden 2014). The term "sponge holobiont", is used when sponges and the associated microbial communities are considered as a whole (He *et al.* 2014). Different degrees of complexity characterise the interactions among sponge holobiont components, including mutualism, commensalism and parasitism (Rodríguez-Marconi 2005). Non-pathogenic

microorganisms can positively contribute to sponge metabolism, by increasing the uptake of carbon, nitrogen and sulphur. Furthermore, by the production of secondary metabolites, they could be involved in host defence systems and in the regulation of the microbial community associated with sponges (Taylor et al. 2007). Interestingly, metabolites previously ascribed to sponges were recognised to be structurally similar to those produced by the associated bacteria (Imhoff & Stöhr 2003). As a consequence, the use of microorganisms for the bio-discovery of new molecules would avoid several problems related to the use of sponges. The isolation of new molecules and their production in the required amount from sponges is always very problematical for reasons such as their rare occurrence, difficulties with sponge collections, or irreproducible production of metabolites due to specimen variability (Imhoff & Stöhr 2003). Nowadays studies on microorganisms associated with sponges are primarily focused on prokaryotic organisms while the fungal community remain less studied, despite recent results emphasizing its great biodiversity and biotechnological potential (Raghukumar 2012). Fungi represent suitable biotechnological resources but require specific expertise for the isolation and the correct identification. Many taxa already known for their bioactivity lack a precise identification and correct preservation in culture collections hampering their possible future exploitation as recently highlighted by the 2nd International Conference of Marine Fungal Natural Products (MaFNaP 2017).

^{*}Corresponding author: cristina.varese@unito.it



In this study we present for the first time the mycobiota associated with *Dysidea fragilis*, *Pachymatisma johnstonia* (*Demospongiae*), and *Sycon ciliatum* (*Calcarea*). The two *Demospongiae* have been extensively examined for their production of secondary metabolites. The metabolome of *D. fragilis* was characterised by Yu *et al.* (2006), although its biological activity included only a single compound, which acted as fish feeding deterrent (Marin *et al.* 1998). *Pachymatisma johnstonia* is also well known for its production of secondary metabolites, whose anticancer (Zidane *et al.* 1996, Ferreira *et al.* 2011) and antibacterial (Warabi *et al.* 2004) activity has been demonstrated. On the contrary, the metabolome of *S. ciliatum* has never been studied.

In light of the above-mentioned considerations, it is likely that microorganisms, including fungi, could be the true producers of the bioactive molecules isolated so far but could also be a source of additional novel compounds of interest. Aiming at the biotechnological exploitation of new molecules, the scope of this study was to isolate and identify the fungal community associated with three Atlantic sponges, with particular emphasis on the proper systematic identification of taxa. Moreover, in this paper two novel *Thelebolus* species are described.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Sampling sites and axenic isolation

The sponges *Dysidea fragilis* and *Pachymatisma johnstonia* (three specimens each) were collected by scuba divers in Gurraig Sound (Co. Galway, Ireland; N 53°, 18.944; W 09°, 40.140). The sampling site was at 15 m depth, characterised by fairly strong current and suspended sediments. Three specimens of *Sycon ciliatum* exposed to a fast water flow due to the tide going out were collected in Coranroo rapids (Co. Clare, Ireland; N 053°09.100, W 009°,00.550).

Specimens were surface sterilised with ethanol 70 % (for 30 s) to prevent contaminants and serially washed (three times) in artificial sterile Sea Water (SW) to get rid of unrefined sediments and to wash out propagules, in order to leave only fungi actively growing on the surface or into the sponge tissues.

Working in sterile conditions, the sponge samples were divided into three parts to be used for two different fungal isolation techniques and for a taxonomic voucher of the sponge. For the first isolation method, one third of the sponge was further cut in 20 pieces of about 0.5 cm³ by means of sterile tools and directly plated in Petri dishes (six cm Ø) containing two different media: Sea Water Agar – SWA (Sea Salts 30 g, Agar 15 g, up to 1 L dH₂O) and Corn Meal Agar Sea Water - CMASW (Corn Meal 2 g, Agar 15 g, Sea Salts 30 g, up to 1 L dH₂O). Five replicates for each medium and incubation temperatures (15 °C and 25 °C) were performed.

Approximately 5 g of each sample were also homogenised (homogenizer blade Sterilmixer II - PBI International) and diluted 1:10 w/v in SW. One mL of suspension was included in Petri dishes (nine cm \emptyset) containing CMASW or Gelatin Agar Sea Water–GASW (Gelatin 20 g, Sea Salts 30 g, Agar 15 g, up to 1 L dH₂O), rich in collagen and mimicking sponge tissue composition. Five replicates for each medium and incubation temperatures (15 °C and 25 °C) were performed. All media were supplemented with

an antibiotic mix (Gentamicin Sulfate 40 mg/L, Piperacillin plus Tazobactam 11 mg/L) to prevent bacterial growth. Plates were incubated in the dark and periodically checked for 30 d to isolate slow growing fungi.

Fungal identification

Fungal morphotypes were isolated in pure culture and identified by means of a polyphasic approach combining morphophysiological and molecular features. After determination of genera via macroscopic and microscopic features (Domsch *et al.* 1980, Von Arx 1981, Kiffer & Morelet 1997), fungi were transferred to genus-specific media (Klich 2002, Braun *et al.* 2003, Samson & Frisvad 2004).

In parallel for molecular analyses, fungi were pre-grown on Malt Extract Agar - MEA (Malt Extract 20 g, Glucose 20 g, Peptone 2 g, Agar 20 g, up to 1 L dH₂O) at 25 °C for 1 wk, for fast growing fungi, and from 2-4 wk for slow growing fungi. DNA was extracted using the NucleoSpin kit (Macherey Nagel GmbH, Duren, DE, USA), according to the manufacturer instructions. Based on the taxonomic assignment attributed to each fungus by morphological observations, specific primers were used for PCR as detailed in Table 1. Briefly, PCR reactions were performed in 50 μL final volumes and consisted of 0.5 μL Taq DNA Polymerase (Qiagen 5 U/μL), 10 μL PCR Buffer (10 ×), 2.5 μL dNTP Mixture (dATP, dCTP, dGTP, dTTP; 10 mM), 2 μL MgCl₃ (25 mM), 2.5 μL of each primer (10 μM), 1 μL genomic DNA extract (80 ng/mL) and 34 µL distilled-deionised water. PCR products were visualised under UV light (BIO-RAD Universal Hood II) on 1.5 % agarose electrophoresis gels stained with ethidium bromide. Macrogen, Inc. (Seoul, South Korea) Europe Lab carried out the purification and sequencing of PCR products.

Taxonomic assignments were based both on high percentage homologies with sequences available in public databases (GenBank - NCBI database and CBS-KNAW Collection, Westerdijk Fungal Biodiversity Institute) and the consistency of morphological features with available literature descriptions. The taxonomic position of doubtful strains (low homologies with sequences available in public databases) or sterile mycelia (i.e. not showing morphological features useful to confirm taxonomical assignments) were inferred via molecular phylogenetic analyses based on DNA sequences from the large ribosomal subunit LSU, (Vilgalys & Hester 1990). Separate alignments were created for the orders Pleosporales, Capnodiales and Chaetothyriales and two for the classes Leotiomycetes and Sordariomycetes. Alignments were generated using MEGA v. 7.0 and manually refined. Phylogenetic analyses were performed using a Bayesian Inference (BI; MrBayes v. 3.2.2 four incrementally heated simultaneous Monte Carlo Markov Chains (MCMC), run over 10 M generations, (under GTR + Γ + I evolutionary model approach). BPP values are reported in the resulting trees. A full alignment of the dataset was submitted to TreeBASE (submission number 21746).

Representative strains of each species isolated in pure culture during this work are preserved at *Mycotheca Universitatis Taurinensis* (MUT- www.mut.unito.it) of the Department of Life Sciences and Systems Biology, University of Turin (Italy). The Accession numbers of the sequences deposited in GenBank are available in the supplementary material 1.



Table 1. Gene loci sequenced, primers for molecular analysis and PCR programs.

Fungi	Gene loci and DNA regions sequenced ^a	Primers (Forward and Reverse)	PCR amplification Conditions	References for primers ^b
Alternaria	GAPDH	GPD1 and GPD2	96 °C: 2 min, (96 °C: 1 min, 50 °C: 1 min, 72 °C: 50 sec) × 35 cycles; 72 °C: 5 min	(1)
Aspergillus	CAL	CL1 and CL2a	95 °C: 10 min, (95 °C: 50 sec, 55 °C: 50 sec, 72 °C: 1 min) × 35 cycles; 72 °C: 7 min	(2)
Aspergillus, Penicillium, Thelebolus	TUB	BT–2a and BT–2b	94 °C: 4 min, (94 °C: 35 sec, 58 °C: 35 sec, 72 °C: 50 sec) × 35 cycles; 72 °C: 5 min	(3)
Cladosporium	ACT	ACT-512F and ACT-783R	94 °C: 8 min, (94 °C: 15 sec, 61 °C: 20 sec, 72 °C: 40 sec) × 35 cycles; 72 °C: 10 min	(4)
Yeast like fungi (<i>Holtermanniella, Metschnikowia, Pseudozyma,</i> Sporidiobolales)	D1-D2	NL1-NL2	94 °C: 4 min, (94 °C: 1 min, 52 °C: 35 sec, 72 °C: 1.5 min) × 35 cycles; 72 °C: 5 min	(5)
Alternaria, Thelebolus, sterile mycelia and taxa for whom no specific primers are required	ITS	ITS1 and ITS4	95 °C: 5 min, (95 °C:40 s, 55 °C: 50 s, 72 °C: 50 sec) × 35 cycles; 72 °C: 8 min	(6)
Sterile mycelia	LSU	LROR and LR7	95 °C: 5 min, (95 °C: 1 min, 50 °C: 1 min, 72 °C: 2 min) × 35 cycles; 72 °C: 10 min	(7)

^a *GAPDH*: partial glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase gene; *CAL*: partial calmodulin gene; *TUB*: partial beta-tubulin gene; *ACT*: partial actin gene; D1-D2: D1-D2 region of the nuclear ribosomal DNA large subunit; ITS: internal transcribed spacer regions and intervening 5.8S nrRNA gene; LSU: partial nuclear ribosomal DNA large subunit.

Table 2. Fungal taxa isolated from *D. fragilis* (DF), *P. johnstonia* (PJ) and *S. ciliatum* (SY) and their relative abundance (RA) in percentage. The species already found in marine environment (MA) and associated with sponges (SP) are reported, as well as the first record (FR).

		RA %	6		
	DF	PJ	SY	MA	SP
Ascomycota					
Acremonium breve	0.6			(20)	FR
Acremonium implicatum	0.6			(1), (2), (3), (4), (5), (19)	(3)
Acremonium persicinum	1.3			(7)	(33)
Acremonium potroniiª	5.8		1.0	(7), (34)	FR
Acremonium tubakii	5.8			(1), (34)	FR
Acremonium zonatum			2.9	FR	FR
Alternaria molestaª		1.4		(30)	FR
Alternaria sp.ª			1.0	-	-
Aspergillus creber	4.5	2.7		(23)	FR
Aspergillus flavipes		5.4		(22)	(35)
Aspergillus fumigatus	2.6		1.0	(1), (4), (5), (7), (19)	(6), (18), (27)
Aspergillus jensenii	0.6	2.7		FR	FR
Aspergillus puulaauensis	3.8			FR	FR
Aureobasidium pullulans	1.3	2.7		(2), (7), (19), (22), (34)	(9), (36)
Beauveria bassiana	1.9		2.9	(7), (34)	(17), (37)
Bimuria novae-zelandiaeª	0.6			(31)	FR
Boeremia exiguaª	0.6			(32), (34)	FR
Botrytis cinerea	0.6			(5), (24), (34)	FR
Cadophora luteo-olivacea	0.6		4.9	(11)	FR
Cladosporium aggregatocicatricatum	0.6			FR	FR
Cladosporium allicinum	2.6	1.4	3.9	(2)	FR
Cladosporium cladosporioides	2.6	6.8	1.0	(1), (2), (5), (7), (19), (21), (22), (34)	(9), (12), (14), (15), (18), (27
Cladosporium halotolerans		5.4	10.8	(5), (11), (22)	FR

^b(1) Berbee *et al.* 1999, (2) O'Donnell *et al.* 2000, (3) Glass & Donaldson 1995, (4) Carbone & Kohn 1999, (5) De Barros Lopes *et al.* 1998, (6) White *et al.* 1990, (7) Vilgalys & Hester 1990.



Table 2. (Continued).

		RA %		_	
	DF	PJ	SY	MA	SP
Cladosporium perangustum	0.6			(25)	FR
Cladosporium pseudocladosporioides	2.6	4.1		(5)	FR
Cladosporium psychrotolerans	1.3			(22)	FR
Cladosporium subtilissimum	0.6			(22)	FR
Cladosporium subuliforme		2.7		FR	FR
Cladosporium xylophilum	0.6			FR	FR
Coniothyrium obiones ^a			1.0	(7)	FR
Cyphellophora sp.ª			1.0	-	-
Emericellopsis alkalina (asexual morph)	1.3			FR	FR
Emericellopsis maritima (asexual morph)		1.4		(7)	FR
Emericellopsis pallida (asexual morph)	1.3			(7)	FR
Epicoccum nigrum			4.9	(5), (34)	(40)
Fusarium pseudograminearum	0.6			FR	FR
Fusarium solani			1.0	(26)	(3), (41)
Gremmenia infestans ^a			1.0	FR	FR
Hypocreaceae sp.ª	0.6			-	-
Metschnikowia bicuspidata			5.9	(7), (22)	(38)
Microascaceae sp.ª	0.6			-	-
Mollisia sp.ª			1.0	-	-
Myrothecium cinctum ^a	1.3			(39)	(39)
Neocamarosporium betae			1.0	FR	FR
Neocamarosporium calvescens	0.6			FR	FR
Paraphaeosphaeria neglecta (asexual morph)	0.6		1.0	FR	FR
Penicillium antarcticum	10.9	37.8	18.6	(2), (5)	(16)
Penicillium brevicompactum	3.2			(1), (2), (3), (4), (5), (7), (19), (22), (34)	(3), (10), (27)
Penicillium canescens		1.4		(5), (21), (34)	(40)
Penicillium chrysogenum	12.2	13.5		(5), (7), (22), (34)	(3), (6), (10), (27), (40)
Penicillium citreonigrum			1.0	(5), (7), (21)	(40)
Penicillium inflatum	0.6			FR	FR
Penicillium janczewskii	5.8			(7), (34)	FR
Penicillium roqueforti			1.0	(40)	(40)
Penicillium spinulosum		2.7		(1), (7), (34)	FR
Penicillium thomii		1.4		(7), (34)	FR
Penicillium waksmanii	1.3			(7), (34)	(12)
Periconia minutissima			1.0	(7)	FR
Periconia sp.ª		1.4		-	-
Phaeosphaeria olivaceaª			1.0	(7)	FR
Phaeosphaeria oryzaeª			1.0	FR	FR
Phaeosphaeriopsis sp.ª	0.6		4.9	-	-
Pleosporales sp.ª			1.0	-	-
Pleosporaceae sp.ª	0.6			-	-
Pochonia suchlasporia	0.6			(34)	FR
Preussia sp.ª	0.6			-	-
Pseudeurotium bakeri			1.0	FR	FR
Pseudocercosporella sp.ª		1.4		-	-
Pyrenochaetopsis microspora ^a	1.9			FR	FR



Table 2. (Continued).

		RA %	6	_	
	DF	PJ	SY	MA	SP
Roussoellaceae sp.ª	0.6			-	-
Sarocladium strictum			14.7	(2), (7), (34)	FR
Scopulariopsis brevicaulis			1.0	(5)	(6), (13)
Thelebolus balaustiformis	0.6			FR	FR
Thelebolus spongiae	0.6			FR	FR
Thyronectria sp.ª			1.0	-	-
Tilachlidium brachiatum	0.6			(28)	FR
Tolypocladium album	1.9			FR	FR
Tolypocladium cylindrosporum	2.6	1.4	4.9	(29), (34)	FR
Volutella ciliata	0.6			(4)	(40)
Xanthothecium peruvianum	0.6			FR	FR
Basidiomycota					
<i>Bjerkandera</i> sp.ª	0.6			-	-
Holtermanniella sp.ª			1.0	-	-
Agarycomycetes sp.ª	0.6			-	-
Pseudozyma sp.ª		1.4		-	-
Sporidiobolales sp.ª		1.4		-	-
Trametes gibbosaª	1.3			FR	FR
Mucoromycota					
Absidia glauca	0.6			(19)	FR
Total taxa	54	21	32		
Total exclusive taxa	39	11	21		

(1) Panno et al. 2013, (2) Gnavi et al. 2017, (3) Paz et al. 2010, (4) Costello et al. 2001, (5) Bovio et al. 2017, (6), Ding et al. 2011, (7) Jones et al. 2015, (8) Thirunavukkarasu et al. 2012, (9) Henríquez et al. 2014, (10) Passarini et al. 2013, (11) Garzoli et al. 2015, (12) Rozas et al. 2011, (13) Yu et al. 2008, (14) Manriquez et al. 2009, (15) San-Martin et al. 2005, (16) Park et al. 2014, (17) Yamazaki et al. 2012, (18) Sayed et al. 2016, (19) Oren & Gunde-Cimerman 2012, (20) Kis-Papo et al. 2001, (21) Raghukumar & Ravindran 2012, (22) Zajc et al. 2012, (23) Jurjevic et al. 2012, (24) Suryanarayanan 2012, (25) Liu et al. 2016, (26) Hatai 2012, (27) Pivkin et al. 2006, (28) Gomes et al. 2008, (29) Rämä et al. 2014, (30) Tóth et al. 2011, (31) Suetrong et al. 2009, (32) Di Piazza et al. 2017, (33) Fraser et al. 2013, (34) Rämä et al. 2011, (41) Bolaños et al. 2015.

Thelebolus spp. growth conditions and molecular study

Thelebolus spp. MUT 2357 and MUT 2359 were pre-grown on Potato Dextrose Agar - PDA (Potato extract 4 g, dextrose 20 g, agar 15 g, up to 1 L dH₂O) at 25 °C and then inoculated in triplicate onto Petri dishes (9 cm Ø) containing MEA, PDA and Carrot Agar (grated carrot 20 g boiled and filtered, agar 20 g, up to 1 L dH₂O) alone and with different concentration of NaCl (2.5 %, 5 %, 10 %, 15 %) and incubated at 4 °C, 15 °C and 25 °C. The fungal growth, as well as macroscopic and microscopic features, were evaluated at three, seven, 10, 14, 17, 21 d after the inoculum. Mature reproductive structures were observed and photographed with an optical microscope (LEICA DM4500 B) equipped with a camera (LEICA DFC320). Morphological data (micro- and macroscopic) were compared with the available description of Thelebolus species. DNA was extracted as mentioned above and the ITS and beta-tubulin regions were amplified as recommended by previous studies (de Hoog et al. 2005, Crous et al. 2015). A two-marker dataset (supplementary material 2) was built for a phylogenetic analysis, which was performed as described in the previous section.

Statistical analyses

Statistical analyses on the fungal community associated with sponges were performed using PRIMER v. 7.0 (Plymouth Routines In Multivariate Ecological Research; Clarke and Warwick 2001). The Similarity Percentages (SIMPER) analysis mostly highlighted the dissimilarity within the fungal community of the three sponges. The Permutational Multivariate Analysis of Variance (PERMANOVA; pseudo-F index; p<0.05) allowed the differences between the sponge mycobiotas to be assessed. Principal Coordinate Analysis (PCO) visualised data.

RESULTS

The use of different isolation techniques or culture conditions resulted in an increase in the number of fungal isolates. As reported in Fig. 1A the majority of the taxa were isolated exclusively by homogenisation of sponge tissues, while the remaining by directly plating the sponge tissue; less than 18 % were recovered with both techniques. Overall, from 67 % (*P. johnstonia*) to 75 % (*S. ciliatum*)

^aSterile mycelia.



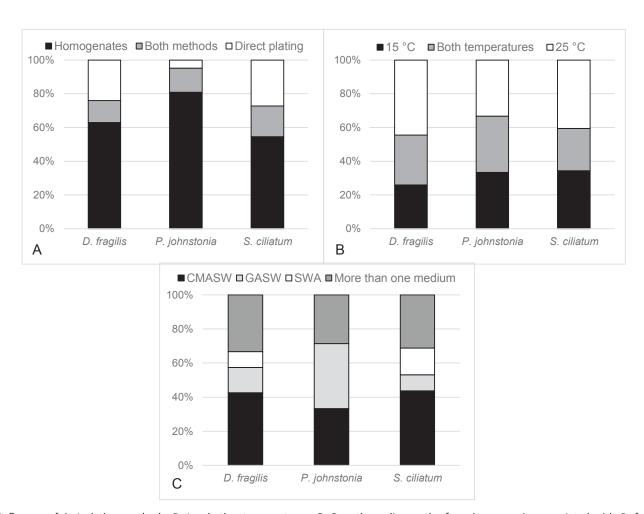


Fig. 1. Influence of **A.** Isolation methods. **B.** Incubation temperatures. **C.** Growth media, on the fungal community associated with *D. fragilis, P. johnstonia* and *S. ciliatum*.

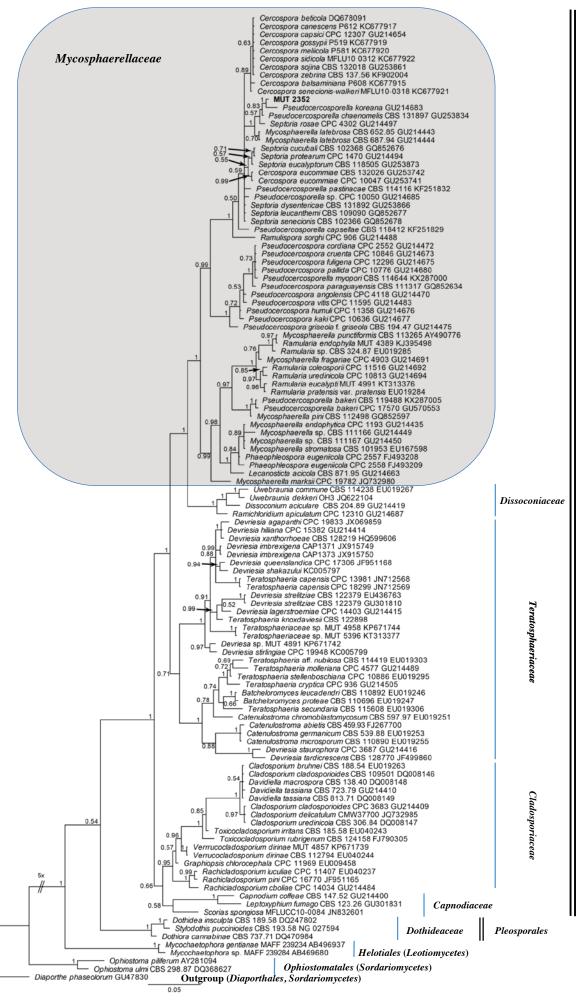
of taxa were isolated only on one temperature condition (15 °C or 25 °C) as reported in Fig. 1B. Regarding the growth media (Fig. 1C), almost half of the taxa of *D. fragilis* (43 %) and of *S. ciliatum* (44 %) grew exclusively on CMASW; while 24 % and 25 % of taxa associated with *D. fragilis* and *S. ciliatum* were isolated only on oligotrophic media, mimicking sponges' composition (GASW) or marine water (SWA). The majority of the fungi associated with *P. johnstonia* were only isolated on GASW (38 %) or on CMASW (33 %); no exclusive taxa were reported on SWA. Interestingly, 66 %, 56 % and 38 % of taxa from *S. ciliatum*, *D. fragilis* and *P. johnstonia*, respectively, not only were recovered in one condition but were isolated only from one plate.

A total of 87 taxa were isolated: 54 taxa from *D. fragilis*, 32 from *S. ciliatum* and 21 from *P. johnstonia*; 79 % of the taxa were recognised at species level, 13 % at genus level, 5 % at family level, 2 % at order level, and 1 % at class level (Table 2). About one third of taxa were sterile despite the attempt to stimulate the production of reproductive structures using different culture media and incubation under near-UV light. Several sterile mycelia (Table 2) showed the same similarity percentages with different species and/or low homology with sequences deposited in public databases. In addition, some cryptic strains belonging to the *Pleosporales* order (MUT 2482, MUT 2870, MUT 2952, MUT 3080 and MUT 2425) presented only

the asexual form in axenic culture (for many genera, only the description of the sexual morph is available). For these reasons, a phylogenetic analysis based on LSU region was necessary to achieve their best identification. In detail, *Capnodiales* (Fig. 2) and *Chaetothyriales* (Fig. 3) were represented by one isolate each; 17 strains belonged to *Pleosporales* order (Fig. 4); two and eight strains were grouped in *Leotiomycetes* (Fig. 5) and *Sordariomycetes* (Fig. 6), respectively.

The majority of taxa belonged to Ascomycota (92 %), with few representatives of Basidiomycota (7 %) and Mucoromycota (1 %). The genera Cladosporium and Penicillium (11 species), Acremonium (six species) and Aspergillus (five species) were the most represented in terms of species. In terms of first reports, 49 and 21 species were first recorded here as being associated with sponges and the marine environment, respectively (Table 2). Four species (Cladosporium allicinum, Cladosporium cladosporioides, Penicillium antarcticum and Tolypocladium cylindrosporum) were common among the three sponges (Fig. 7). Dysidea fragilis and S. ciliatum shared an additional six species (Acremonium potronii, Aspergillus fumigatus, Beauveria bassiana, Cadophora luteo-olivacea, Paraphaeosphaeria neglecta, Phaeosphaeriopsis sp.); while, D. fragilis and P. johnstonia had five additional species in common (Aspergillus creber, Aspergillus jensenii, Aureobasidium pullulans, Cladosporium pseudocladosporioides

Fig. 2. Bayesian phylogram of *Capnodiales* (*Dothideomycetes*) based on rDNA large subunit (LSU). One fungal isolate (MUT 2352) is included and identified as *Cercospora* sp. within the *Mycosphaerellaceae*. Branch numbers indicate BPP values.



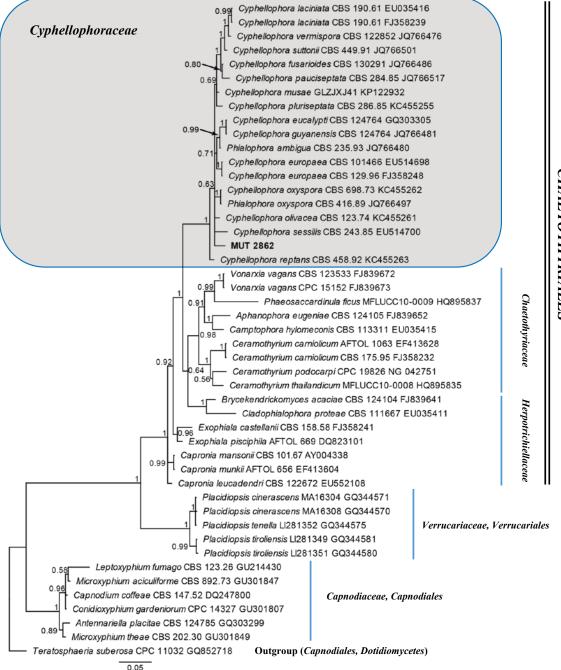


Fig. 3. Bayesian phylogram of Chaetothyriales (Eurotiomycetes) based on rDNA large subunit (LSU). MUT 2862 is included and clusters within the genus Cyphellophora. Branch numbers indicate BPP values.

and Penicillium chrysogenum). Sycon ciliatum and P. johnstonia shared one additional species (Cladosporium halotolerans).

Despite this species overlap, the three sponges host specific fungal communities (Fig. 7); Dysidea fragilis mycobiota was represented by 72.2 % exclusive taxa, followed by S. ciliatum (65.6 %) and P. johnstonia (52.4 %). The specificity of the sponge-mycobiota association was highlighted also by the Permanova analysis that reported a significant difference (p = 0.011) among sponges. Almost 45 % of the multivariate variability via two-dimensional Principal Coordinate Analysis (PCO) can be explained by the different fungal communities associated with the sponges (Fig. 8). The dissimilarity among the sponges, highlighted by the SIMPER analysis, was higher between P. johnstonia and S. ciliatum (89.9 %), with the major contribution given by P. chrysogenum, C. pseudocladosporioides

and C. luteo-olivacea. The dissimilarity value of S. ciliatum and D. fragilis was still high (87.4 %) and A. potronii, Sarocladium strictum and Cladosporium psychrotolerans mostly contribute to the value. The lowest dissimilarity was between D. fragilis and P. johnstonia (82.6 %), with the major contribution given by A. potronii, C. psychrotolerans and Tolypocladium album.

Overall, D. fragilis presented the most diverse mycobiota, including two fungi MUT 2357 and MUT 2359, attributed to the genus Thelebolus both by molecular and morphological analyses. No matches in morphological features were observed among our strains and the 16 species and two varieties of *Thelebolus* known (CBS-KNAW Collection, Westerdijk Fungal Biodiversity Institute, MycoBank). The phylogenetic tree (Fig. 9) based on two markers (ITS and beta-tubulin) confirmed the uniqueness of Thelebolus MUT 2357 and Thelebolus MUT 2359.



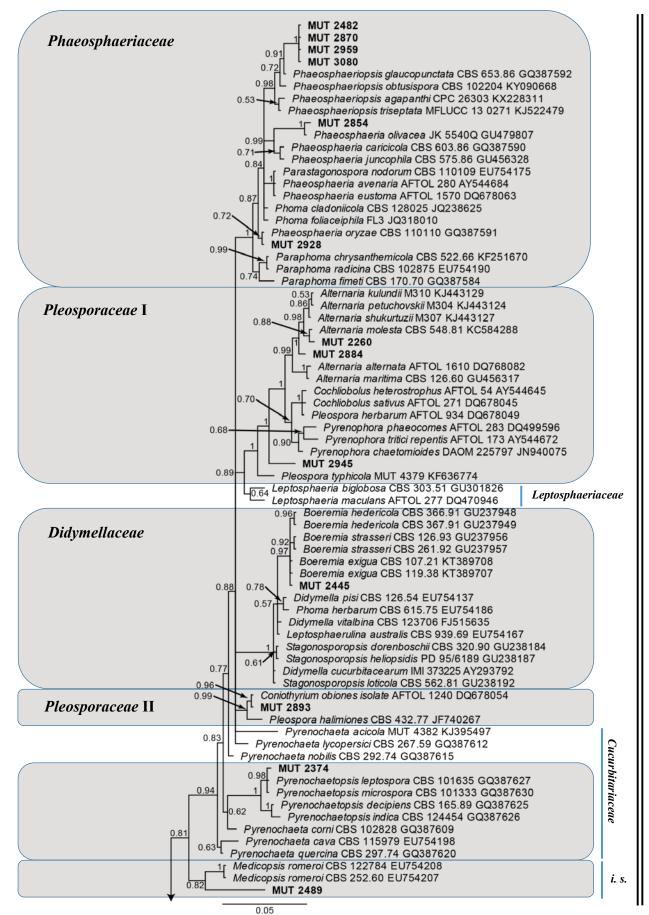


Fig. 4. Bayesian phylogram of *Pleosporales* (*Dothideomycetes*) based on rDNA large subunit (LSU). Six and four fungal isolates clustered within the *Phaeosphaeriaceae* and the *Pleosporaceae*, respectively. Six fungal taxa clustered individually within the *Didymellaceae*, *Cucurbitariaceae*, *Montagnulaceae*, *Periconiaceae*, *Sporormiaceae* and *Roussoellaceae/Thyridariaceae*. One fungus was included in the *Pleosporales* order. Branch numbers indicate BPP values. *i.s.* = *incertae sedis*.

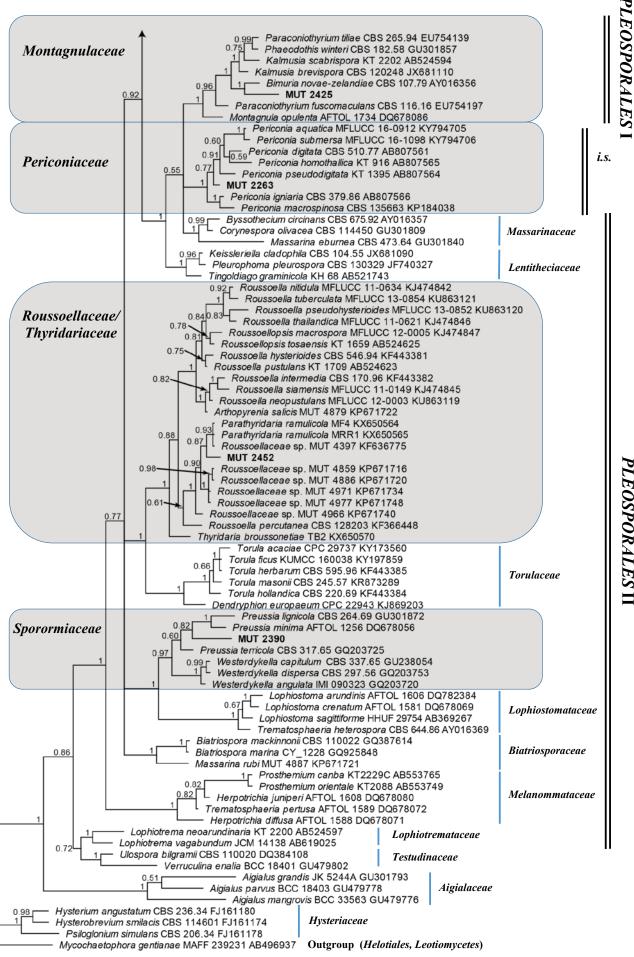


Fig. 4. (Continued).



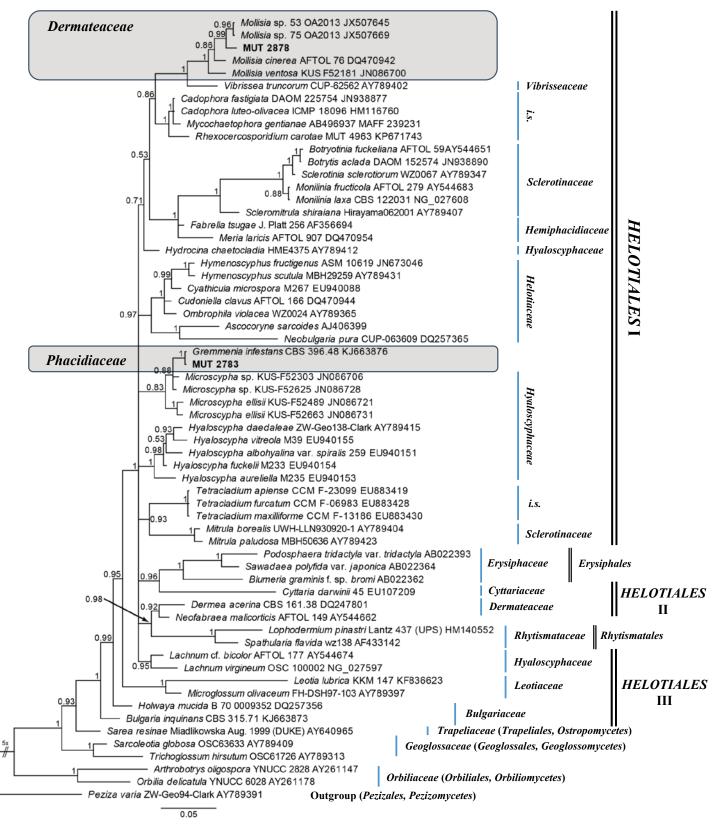


Fig. 5. Bayesian phylogram of *Leotiomycetes* based on rDNA large subunit (LSU). Two fungal isolates were identified as *Mollisia* sp. and *Gremmenia infestans* within the *Dermateaceae* and *Phacidiaceae*, respectively. Branch numbers indicate BPP values.

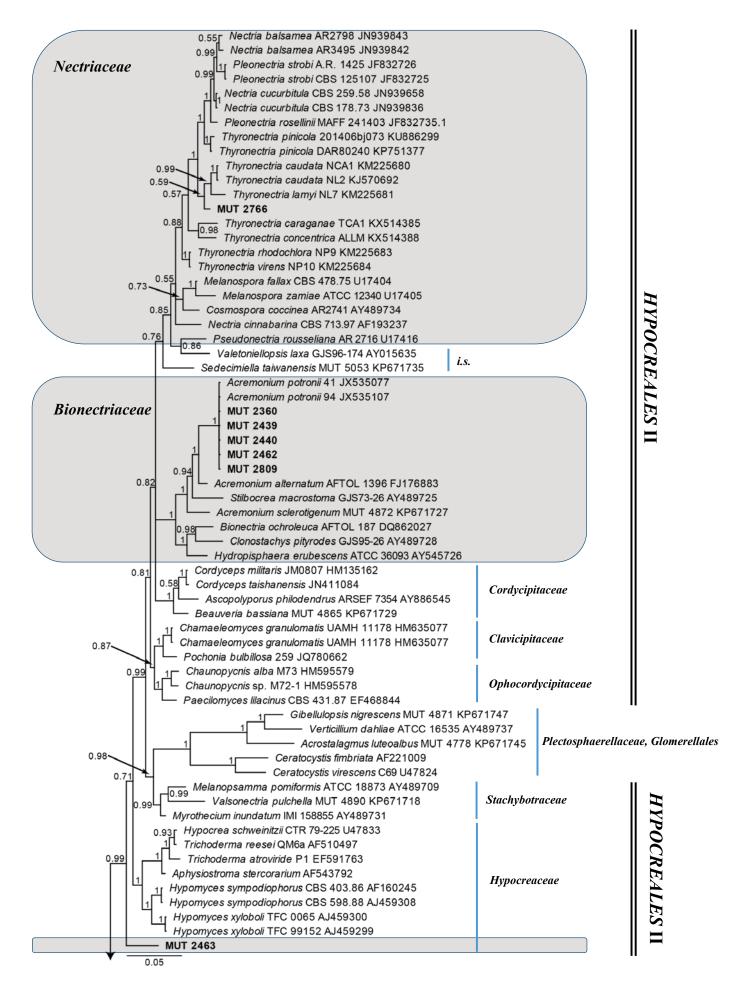


Fig. 6. Bayesian phylogram of *Sordariomycetes* based on rDNA large subunit (LSU). Three fungal taxa clustered individually within the *Nectriaceae*, *Hypocreaceae* and *Microascaceae*. Five fungal isolates clustered within the *Bionectriaceae*. Branch numbers indicate BPP values.



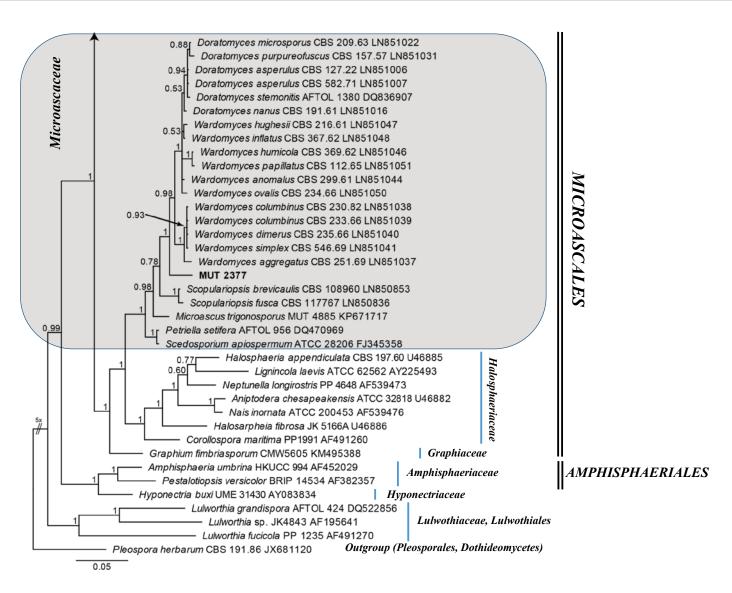


Fig. 6. (Continued).

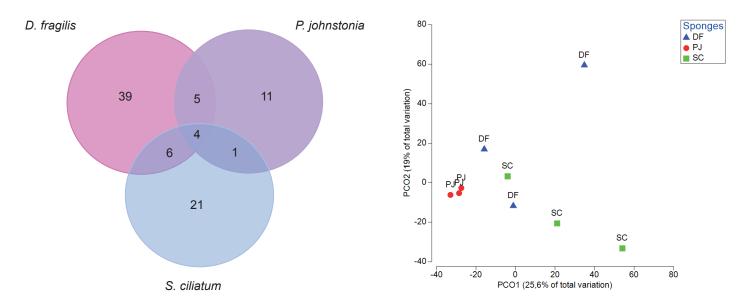


Fig. 7. Exclusive and common fungal taxa species occurring in *D. fragilis, S. ciliatum* and *P. johnstonia*

Fig. 8. PCO on the fungal communities of the three Atlantic sponges *D. fragilis* (DF), *P. johnstonia* (PJ) and *S. ciliatum* (SC).



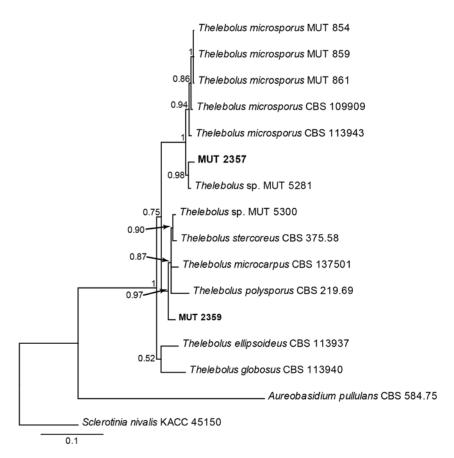


Fig 9. Bayesian phylogram of the genus *Thelebolus* based on a combined dataset of ITS and beta-tubulin partial sequences. MUT 2357 and MUT 2359 were identified as new species, *T. balaustiformis* and *T. spongiae*, respectively. Branch numbers indicate BPP values

Taxonomy

Classification: Thelebolaceae, Thelebolales, Leotiomycetes.

Thelebolus balaustiformis E. Bovio, L. Garzoli, A. Poli, V. Prigione, G.C. Varese, *sp. nov*. MycoBank MB824102. Figs 10–13.

Etymology: The specific epithet balaustiformis is derived from the similarity of ascomata, either whole or in section, with the pomegranate (Punica granatum) fruit, which, in botanical terms, is called balaustium.

Ascomata were produced only on MEA at 4 °C, after 3 wk of incubation (Fig. 10). Mycelium hyaline to pale yellow consisting of irregularly swollen, septate hyphae 1.5-5 µm wide. Ascomata hyaline or pale yellow, partially immersed in the colony, (87–)100– $120 \times 100 \mu m$, at first subglobose cleistohymenial then opening by rupturing of the cortical excipulum in the upper part and becoming semiglobular, appearing 'apothecioid' at maturity. Hymenium with a palisade of asci. Cortical excipulum ca. 6–10 μm thick, consisting of several layers of flattened cells (textura epidermoidea). Asci 20–30 per ascoma, broadly clavate, rather thick-walled (1–1.5 μ m), 48–64-spored, 11–20 × 43–57 μm. Ascospores irregularly disposed, ellipsoid with rounded ends (length/width ratio 1.4-1.6), 4-4.7 × 2.8–3 µm, hyaline with a homogenous content, smooth-walled, without mucilaginous substance. Spores are forcefully discharged as a single projectile through the subapical part of the ascus. Paraphyses absent. Asexual morph not observed.

Colony description and physiological features: Colonies on CA attaining 12–17 mm diam in 21 d at 25 °C, plane, thin, mycelium

mainly submerged, margins irregular (also at 5 % NaCl), becoming regular in presence of 2.5 % NaCl; at 15 °C and 4 °C colonies very similar with regular margins, reaching 56-59 mm and 36–37 mm diam in 21 d, respectively. The sizes of the colonies (diam in mm) at different salt concentrations and temperature are shown in Fig. 14A-C; the morphologies in Fig. 11. Colonies on PDA attaining 8-9 mm diam in 21 d at 25 °C, developing in height, pink to orange, reverse of the same colour of the surface. At 15 °C colonies reaching 65-73 mm diam in 21 d, plane, pinkorange, margins regular (slightly irregular at 5 % NaCl), slimy; reverse of the same colour of the surface. At 4 °C colonies very similar, reaching 42-48 mm diam in 21 d. Colonies' sizes (diam in mm) and morphologies are shown in Fig. 14D-F and Fig. 12, respectively. Colonies on MEA not growing at 25 °C in 21 d; in presence of 2.5 % and 5 % NaCl, mycelium developing in height, pale orange, attaining 11-13 mm (2.5 % NaCl) and 8-11 mm (5 % NaCl) diam in 21 d. At 15 °C and 4 °C colonies plane, pink, reverse as the surface, reaching 46-48 mm and 25-27 mm diam in 21 d, respectively; Fig. 14 (G-I) report the growth curves (diam in mm); Fig. 13 show the colonies morphologies.

Thelebolus balaustiformis reached the optimal growth at 15 °C, regardless of media and/or salt concentrations utilised (Fig. 14); 25 °C was the most inhibiting temperature (Fig. 14). Regarding the salt concentration, the fungus grew up to 10 % NaCl only on CA at 4 °C (Fig. 14A) and 15 °C (Fig. 14B). On CA at 4 °C and 15 °C the faster growth was reached at 2.5 % NaCl, followed by 0 %, 5 % and 10 % NaCl (Fig. 14A, B). At 25 °C the media with NaCl (2.5 % and 5 %) better supported the fungal growth (Fig. 14C). On PDA at 4 °C the growth was faster with the decreasing of salt (until 0 % NaCl). At 15 °C the conditions with 0 % and 2.5



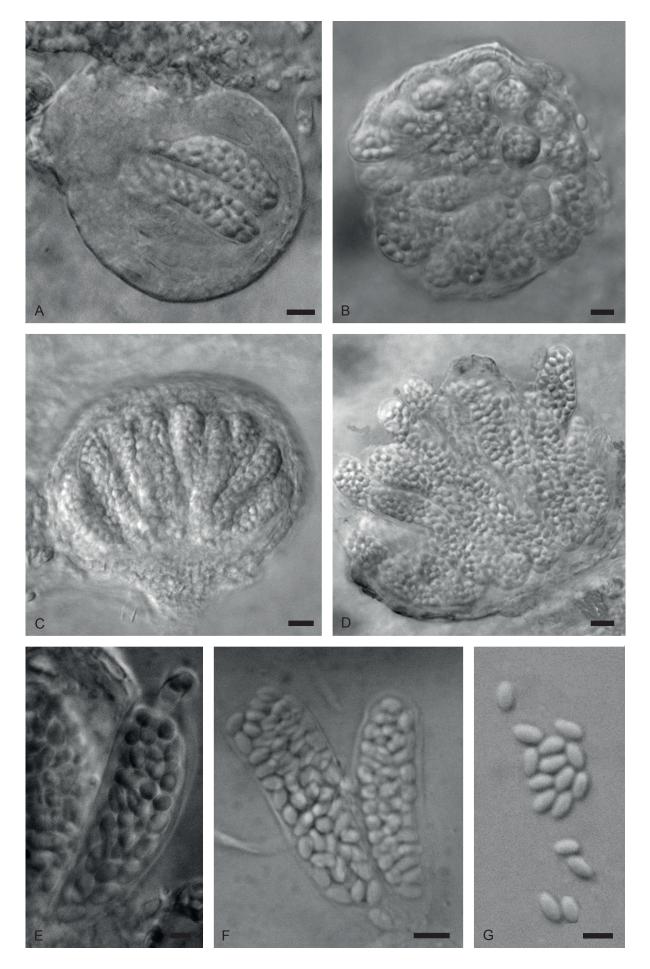


Fig. 10. *Thelebolus balaustiformis* MUT 2357. **A, B.** Closed subglobosus ascoma in the first stage of development. **C.** Ascoma becoming apothecial with mature asci. **D.** Apothecial ascoma with cortical excipulum dehiscent. **E, F.** Mature asci with 48–64 ascospores. **G.** Ascospores. Scale bars: A–D, $F = 10 \mu m$; E, $G = 5 \mu m$.



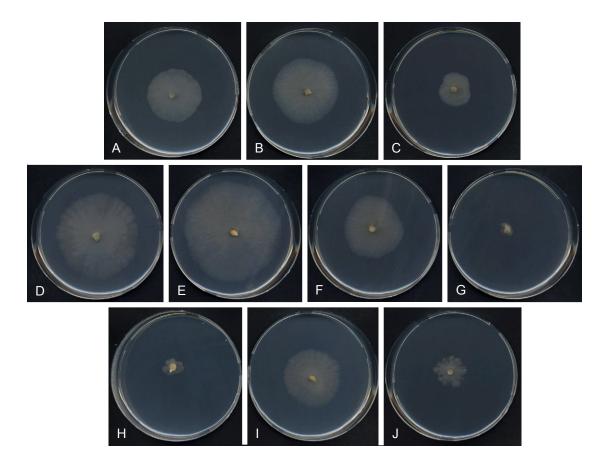


Fig. 11. Thelebolus balaustiformis MUT 2357: 21-d-old colonies on CA at 4 °C with **A.** 0 % NaCl, **B.** 2.5 % NaCl, **C.** 5 % NaCl; at 15 °C with **D.** 0 % NaCl, **E.** 2.5 % NaCl, **F.** 5 % NaCl, **G.** 10 % NaCl; at 25 °C with **H.** 0 % NaCl, **I.** 2.5 % NaCl.

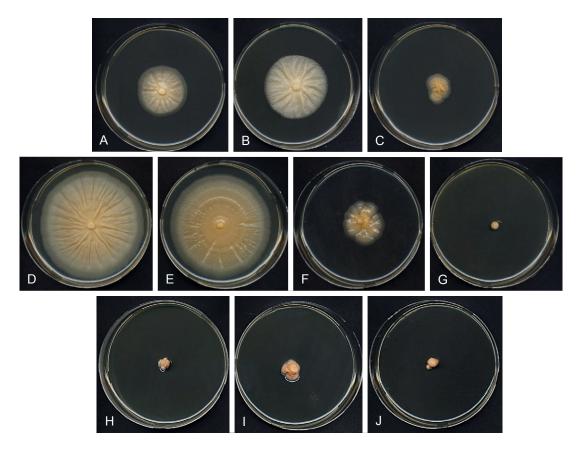


Fig. 12. *Thelebolus balaustiformis* MUT 2357: 21-d-old colonies on PDA at 4 °C with **A.** 0 % NaCl, **B.** 2.5 % NaCl, **C.** 5 % NaCl; at 15 °C with **D.** 0 % NaCl, **E.** 2.5 % NaCl, **F.** 5 % NaCl, **G.** 10 % NaCl; at 25 °C with **H.** 0 % NaCl, **I.** 2.5 % NaCl.



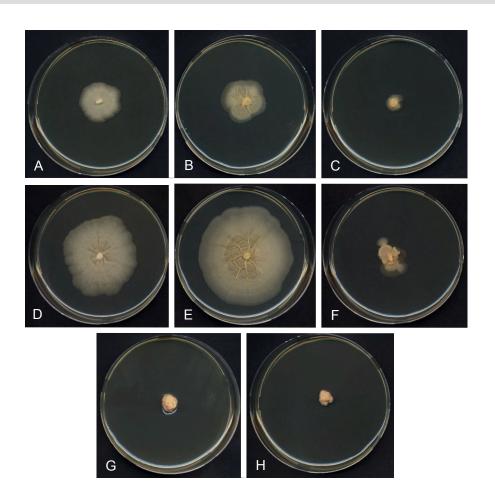


Fig. 13. Thelebolus balaustiformis MUT 2357: 21-d-old colonies on MEA at 4 °C with **A.** 0 % NaCl, **B.** 2.5 % NaCl, **C.** 5 % NaCl; at 15 °C with **D.** 0 % NaCl, **E.** 2.5 % NaCl, **F.** 5 % NaCl; at 25 °C with **G.** 2.5 % NaCl, **H.** 5 % NaCl.

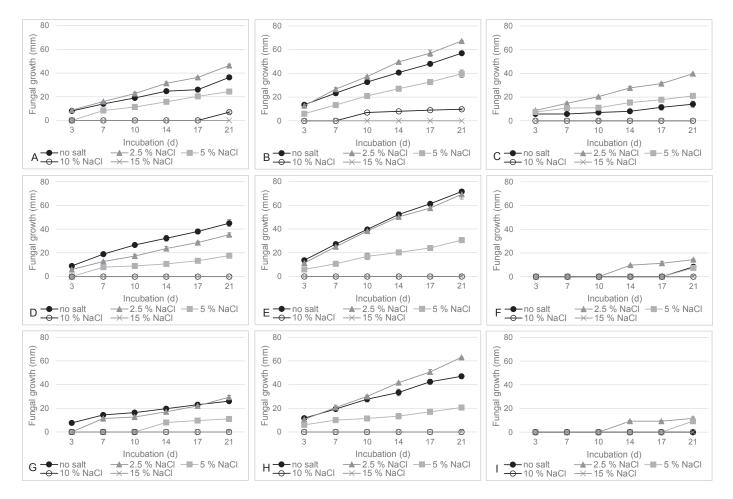


Fig. 14. *Thelebolus balaustiformis* MUT 2357 growth curve with no and different NaCl concentrations on CA at **A.** 4 °C, **B.** 15 °C, **C.** 25 °C; on PDA at **D.** 4 °C, **E.** 15 °C, **F.** 25 °C; on MEA at **G.** 4 °C, **I.** 15 °C, **I.** 25 °C.



% NaCl were comparable, while the slower growth was observed at 5 % NaCl (Fig. 14E). At 25 °C the fungus displayed a similar behaviour compared to CA at the same temperature, the growth was slow and better supported by salt (Fig. 14F). The growth of T. balaustiformis on MEA at 4 °C (Fig. 14G), 15 °C (Fig. 14H) and 25 °C (Fig. 14I) was similar to CA (in the same conditions), but there was a less evident difference between 0 % and 2.5 % NaCl at 4 °C, that became more evident at 15 °C, with a faster growth.

Specimen examined: Ireland, Galway, Gurraig Sound, Co. Galway, N 53°, 18.944; W 09°, 40.140, on the sponge *Dysidea fragilis*, 4 Jun. 2015, *G. McCormack & D. Firsova*. Holotype preserved as metabolically inactive culture MUT 2357.

Note: *Thelebolus balaustiformis* MUT 2357 was isolated by homogenisation of sponge tissues on CMASW, incubated at 15 °C.

Thelebolus spongiae E. Bovio, L. Garzoli, A. Poli, V. Prigione, G.C. Varese, *sp. nov*. MycoBank MB824103. Figs 15–18.

Etymology: The specific epithet *spongiae* is derived from the isolation of the fungus from a marine sponge and its strict association with it, due to the isolation by direct plating of the sponge.

Ascomata were produced only on PDA at 4 °C, after 3 wk of incubation (Fig. 15). *Mycelium* hyaline consisting of septate hyphae 3.2–4.7 μ m wide, sometimes organised into bundles. *Ascomata* hyaline, superficial, scattered to grouped, from 50 × 40 μ m for uni-ascal to 250 × 200 μ m diam for multi-ascal, globose to subglobose cleistohymenial not becoming "apothecioid" with age. *Cortical excipulum* clearly differentiated, pale, 6–7 μ m thick of 1–2 layers of flattened cells (*textura epidermoidea*). *Asci* 1–6 per ascoma, from globular to sacciform, rather thick-walled (1.5–3 μ m), containing hundreds of spores, 37–57 × 50–70 μ m. *Ascospores* irregularly disposed, ellipsoid with rounded ends (length/width ratio 2.2–2.4), 7–9.5 × 3.2–4 μ m, hyaline with a homogenous content, smooth-walled, without mucilaginous substance. *Paraphyses* absent. *Asexual morph* not observed.

Colony description and physiological features: Colonies on CA attaining 47-51 mm diam in 21 d at 15 °C, smooth, mycelium sparse, pale pink, margins irregular also in presence of NaCl, reverse of the same colour of the surface. At 15 °C colonies similar but with more regular margins, reaching 49-50 mm diam in 21 d. Colonies with regular margins at 4 °C, 28-30 mm diam in 21 d. The sizes of the colonies (diameters in mm) and the morphologies at different salt concentrations and temperature are shown in Fig. 19A-C and Fig. 16, respectively. Colonies on PDA attaining 70–74 mm diam in 21 d at 25 °C, smooth, pale pink, radially sulcate (also in presence of 2.5 % NaCl, not with 5 % NaCl), margins mainly submerged; reverse of the same colour of the surface. At 15 °C and 4 °C colonies very similar, reaching 60-64 mm and 35-38 mm diam in 21 d, respectively. Colonies not radially sulcate, mucoid at 4 °C. Colonies' sizes (diam in mm) and morphologies are shown in Fig. 19D-F and Fig. 17, respectively. Colonies on MEA 30-32 mm diam in 21 d at 25 °C, smooth, mycelium partially submerged, pale pink, margins irregular (regular in presence of 2.5 % and 5 % NaCl); reverse of the same colour of the surface. At 15 °C and 4 °C colonies very similar with margins only slightly irregular, reaching 28–29 mm and 16 mm diam in 21 d, respectively. Fig. 19 (G-I) report the growth curves (diam in mm); Fig. 18 shows the colonies morphologies.

Thelebolus spongiae, as reported in Fig. 19, grew without NaCl and at 2.5 % and 5 % of NaCl; while at 10 % NaCl exhibited no growth, with the exception of PDA at 15 °C where the growth started 17 d after the inoculum and reached 7–9 mm diam in 21 d (Fig. 19E). The fungus grew better with the increasing of the incubation temperature, from 4°C to 25 °C. On PDA and CA at all temperatures, the growth of *T. spongiae* without and with 2.5 % NaCl was comparable (Fig. 19A–F); only at 25 °C on CA the difference was more pronounced: after 10 d the fungus started to grow faster with 2.5 % NaCl (Fig. 19C). The presence of 5 % NaCl made slower *T. spongiae* growth. *T. spongiae* grew faster on MEA in the presence of NaCl (2.5–5 %) compared to its absence; this difference was evident since the firsts stage of development at 15 °C and 25 °C (Fig. 19H, I), while at 4 °C it took 10 d to take shape (Fig. 19G).

Specimen examined: Ireland, Galway, Gurraig Sound, Co. Galway, N 53°, 18.944; W 09°, 40.140, on the sponge *Dysidea fragilis*, 4 Jun. 2015, *G. McCormack & D. Firsova*. Holotype preserved as metabolically inactive culture MUT 2359.

Note: Thelebolus spongiae MUT 2359 was isolated by direct plating of the sponge on SWA plate and incubated at 15 °C.

DISCUSSION

Isolation techniques

Our study clearly demonstrates the astonishing diversity of fungi inhabiting marine environments: 87 taxa were isolated from three sponges, many of them representing new records in marine ecosystems. This was chiefly due to the use of different isolation techniques and culture conditions. The homogenisation of sponge tissues yielded the highest number of taxa compared to the direct plating. This could be due to the specific requirements of marine fungi and the technique itself. Direct plating resulted in the isolation of only one fungus for each piece of sponge plated; on the contrary, the homogenization best suits the isolation of more marine fungi. These results are in agreement with other comparative studies (Paz *et al.* 2010, Sayed *et al.* 2016). Noteworthy, the direct plating, even if performing less well, allowed the isolation of fungi that otherwise would have not been recorded.

As for the isolation techniques, the use of three different media, also mimicking marine environment and sponge composition resulted in an increase of the number of cultivable fungi. The best performing condition for both *D. fragilis* and *S. ciliatum* was CMASW, a complete medium able to support fungal growth, not extremely rich in nutrients but containing sea salts to provide a condition as much as possible similar to marine environment. Interestingly, the medium that yielded the higher number of isolates in *P. johnstonia* was the gelatine-based medium, specially developed in this research to mimic the host organisms. Usually, media rich in nutrients allow for the isolation of a high number of fungi, but this not necessary means a high biodiversity (Caballero-George *et al.* 2013).

We considered the possible influence of temperature in the isolation of marine fungi from sponges. To mimic marine conditions as much as possible, two different temperatures were set: 25 °C commonly used to culture fungi and 15 °C closer to the environmental conditions of the sponge sampling sites.



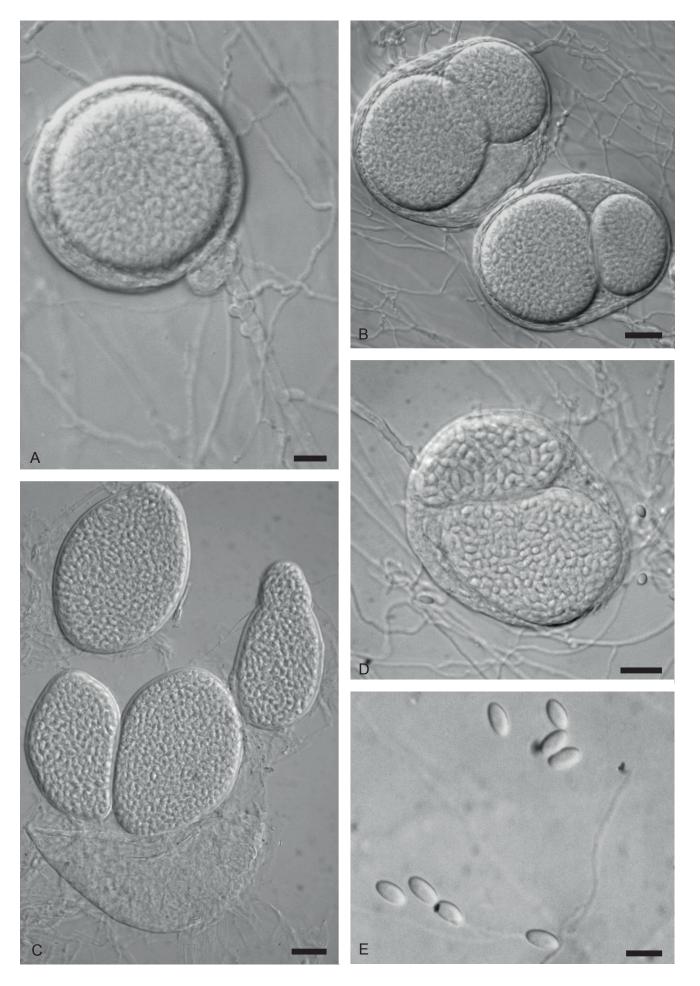


Fig. 15. *Thelebolus spongiae* MUT 2359: **A.** Initial ascoma. **B.** Ascomata with two globular asci. **C.** Mature ascoma opening with four asci. **D.** Ascoma with two sacciform asci. **E.** Ascospores. Scale bars: A, $E = 10 \mu m$; $B-D = 30 \mu m$.



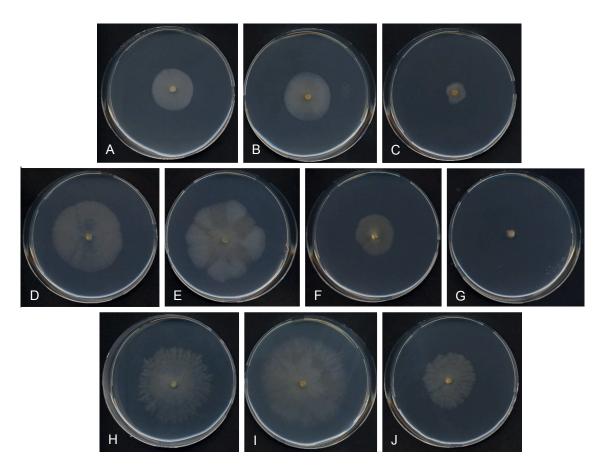


Fig. 16. *Thelebolus spongiae* MUT 2359: 21-d-old colonies on CA at 4 °C with **A.** 0 % NaCl, **B.** 2.5 % NaCl, **C.** 5 % NaCl; at 15 °C with **D.** 0 % NaCl, **E.** 2.5 % NaCl, **F.** 5 % NaCl, **G.** 10 % NaCl; at 25 °C with **H.** 0 % NaCl, **I.** 2.5 % NaCl.

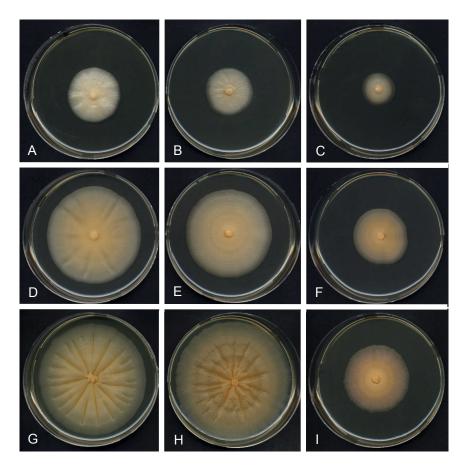


Fig. 17 *Thelebolus spongiae* MUT 2359: 21-d-old colonies on PDA at 4 °C with **A.** 0 % NaCl, **B.** 2.5 % NaCl, **C.** 5 % NaCl; at 15 °C with **D.** 0 % NaCl, **E.** 2.5 % NaCl, **F.** 5 % NaCl; at 25 °C with **G.** 0 % NaCl, **H.** 2.5 % NaCl.



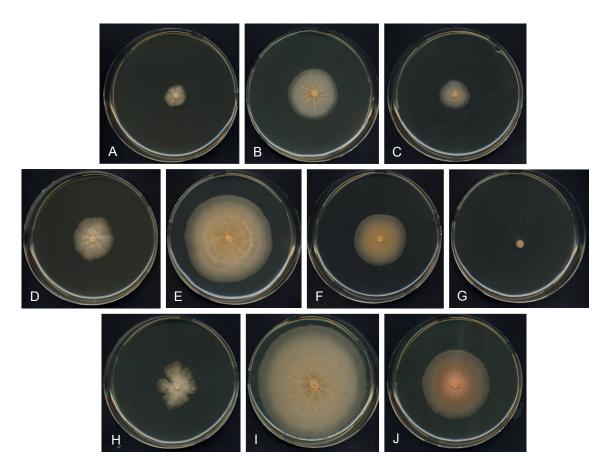


Fig. 18. *Thelebolus spongiae* MUT 2359: 21-d-old colonies on MEA at 4 °C with **A.** 0 % NaCl, **B.** 2.5 % NaCl, **C.** 5 % NaCl; at 15 °C with **D.** 0 % NaCl, **E.** 2.5 % NaCl, **F.** 5 % NaCl, **G.** 10 % NaCl; at 25 °C with **H.** 0 % NaCl, **I.** 2.5 % NaCl.

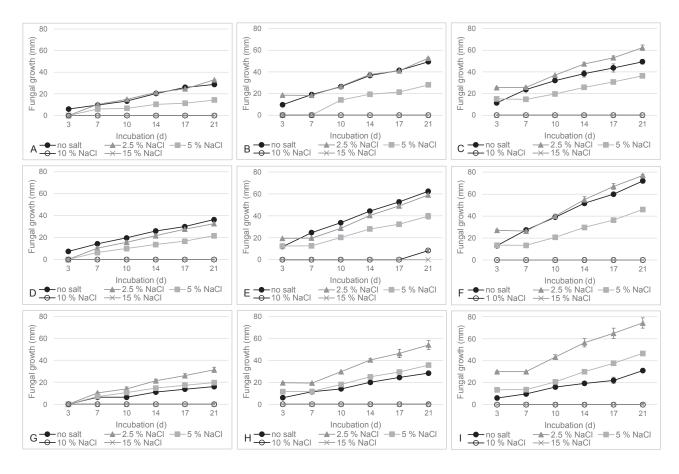


Fig. 19. Thelebolus spongiae MUT 2359 growth curve with no and different NaCl concentrations on CA at A. 4 °C, B. 15 °C, C. 25 °C; on PDA at D. 4 °C, E. 15 °C, F. 25 °C; on MEA at G. 4 °C, H. 15 °C, I. 25 °C.



Interestingly, the majority of the taxa grew exclusively at one temperature condition; this is particular evident for *P. johnstonia*, whose fungi were half isolated at 15 °C and half at 25°C.

Currently, several works on sponge-associated fungi employed different isolation techniques (Höller *et al.* 2000, Proksch *et al.* 2008, Wang *et al.* 2008, Li & Wang 2009, Ding *et al.* 2011, Wiese *et al.* 2011, Passarini *et al.* 2013, Henríquez *et al.* 2014, Diep *et al.* 2016). It would be extremely important to share these results to point out if some methods are more promising than other ones. In the attempt to increase the number of cultivable fungi, more efforts should be focused on development of innovative isolation techniques. For example, Rozas *et al.* (2011) succeeded in the isolation of fungi from single sponge cells. In parallel, the micro-Petri dishes as well as the iChip could be promising tools for the isolation of "uncultivable" (marine) microorganisms (Ingham *et al.* 2007, Nichols *et al.* 2010).

Mycobiota

Ascomycota (92 %) was the dominant phylum, as already reported for the marine environment (Jones et al. 2015) and for studies dealing with sponges' mycobiota (Suryanarayanan 2012). Basidiomycota represented a small percentage of isolates and were inferred phylogenetically by Poli et al. (in prep.). Their ecological role should not be underestimated: members of Agaricales, also detected in the present study, have already been acknowledged for their predominant role the mineralization of the organic matter in marine environment (Hyde et al. 1998).

Only one fungus (Absidia glauca) belonging to the phylum Mucoromycota was detected in association with D. fragilis. This species has already proven to withstand high salinities, as it was isolated also from Dead Sea waters. Members of Mucoromycota were also recorded in a small percentage in a few sponges (Höller et al. 2000, Thirunavukkarasu et al. 2012, Passarini et al. 2013).

According to Raghukumar (2017), sponges generally yield from zero to 21 genera of culturable fungi: while *P. johnstonia* (11 genera) is hosting an average biodiverse community, *S. ciliatum* (25) and *D. fragilis* (32) host a mycobiota communities above the mean values reported from other sponges worldwide. The most represented genera in terms of number of species were *Cladosporium* and *Penicillium* (11), followed by *Acremonium* (six) and *Aspergillus* (five). The presence of these genera and their abundance is not a surprise: they are among the most common within sponges and the most investigated for new secondary metabolites (Imhoff 2016).

Li & Wang (2009), worked on the mycobiota of three marine sponges and in the attempt to discriminate between fungi not strictly associated with sponges from those closely associated, proposed the following classification: "sponge specialist" for those genera exclusive of one sponge species, "sponge associates" for genera present in more than one species of sponge and "sponge generalist" for fungal genera present on all the species of sponges analysed. By applying this classification to the species of the present study, it was clear that the three sponges species host a specific mycobiota, as supported also by statistical analysis. For confirmation of how restricted the fungal strains are to specific sponges versus specific habitat, additional sponge species from each location should be assessed and compared to the diversity reported here.

In detail, "sponge specialist" fungi, represented more than half of the fungal community of each sponge species. Interestingly, in this group, the phylogenetic analysis highlighted several putative new species. Within the *Chaetothyriales*, MUT 2862 belongs to the genus *Cyphellophora*, which includes widespread species recorded on both animals and plants, but never described before in marine environment. This genus is in constant revision and three new species have been recently described by Gao *et al.* (2015). Within *Leotiomycetes*, MUT 2878 is well supported in the genus *Mollisia*, also known from the marine environment (Costello *et al.* 2001).

Pleosporales represent the largest group of Dothideomycetes and in this study, one of the most represented in terms of entities. Several fungi belong to genera already reported in the marine environment by Raghukumar (2017), this is the case of MUT 2884 (Alternaria sp.) MUT 2263 (Periconia sp.) and MUT 2390 (Preussia sp.). More cryptic are the position of the strains MUT 2945 (Pleosporaceae sp.), MUT 2489 (Pleosporales sp.) and MUT 2452 (Roussoellaceae sp.) for which further studies, are necessary. Within the Sordariomycetes, MUT 2766 belong to the genus Thyronectria, whose presence was described in the Antarctic environment by Seeler et al. (1940). More doubtful is the systematic classification of MUT 2463 and MUT 2377, that cluster within Hypocreaceae and Microascaceae, respectively; they both represent families already recorded in the marine environment (Jones et al. 2015).

Fourteen species were "sponge-associated" and common to two sponges; *D. fragilis* and *S. ciliatum* with six of these being the most similar sponges in terms of cultivable mycobiota. Among the "sponge-associated" strains, three species (*A. jensenii, A. puulaauensis* and *P. neglecta*) were reported for the first time from a marine environment. An additional seven species have never been retrieved in sponge samples but were present in the marine environment, from water samples to plants and algae samples (References details in Table 1). Two species were widespread, reported both in marine environment and associated with sponges: *B. bassiana* and *P. chrysogenum* (references in Table 2).

In the present study, the "sponge generalist" fungi were represented by C. allicinum, C. cladosporioides, P. antarcticum and T. cylindrosporum; all of them have been previously recorded in the marine environment and can be considered as widespread species (Bensch et al. 2012). Penicillium antarcticum is well-known both in marine (contaminated) water (Bovio et al. 2017) and on leaving organisms as sponges (Park et al. 2014) algae (Gnavi et al. 2017) and sea cucumbers (Marchese et al. 2016). Cladosporium cladosporioides has been reported in several marine environments, from the coral reef (Raghukumar & Ravindran 2012) to the extreme conditions of the salterns (Oren & Gunde-Cimerman 2012, Zajc et al. 2012) or from crude oil contaminated environments (Bovio et al. 2017). Cladosporium cladosporioides was also reported in association with marine algae (Gnavi et al. 2017), plants (Panno et al. 2013) and wood (Garzoli et al. 2014). Not least the presence on the sponges Amphilectus digitata (Pivkin et al. 2006), Haliclona melana (Rozas et al. 2011), Cliona sp. (San-Martin et al. 2005) and on four Red Sea sponges (Sayed et al. 2016). Cladosporium allicinum and T. cylindrosporum were recorded only once in the marine environment, on algae (Gnavi et al. 2017) and wood substrates (Rämä et al. 2014), respectively; while, here we documented the first report in association with marine sponges.

Considering the fact that some species, common to more than one sponge, have never been retrieved in the marine environment, it is hard to say if the classification proposed by Li & Wang (2009) is suitable to distinguish between transient



mycobiota, abundant in the water columns and true spongeassociated mycobiota. This is probably due to our still scant knowledge on fungi inhabiting sea sponges and the marine environment.

The specificity of the fungal community of each sponge could be related to several factors. Pivkin et al. (2006) highlighted that the number of fungi associated with sponges can be influenced by the sponge structure: the harder the structure, the lower the number of fungi. Interestingly, this hypothesis is well supported in our study. Dysidea fragilis which has a soft structure hosted the highest number of fungal taxa (54). Actually, the sponge name is due to its fragility outside water (Marine species identification portal http://speciesidentification.org/index.php). Sycon ciliatum was the second sponge in terms of number of taxa (32) and also in a scale of body rigidity since it presents calcareous spicules although the choanocyte chambers are free from each other, giving a "loose" consistency (Marine species identification portal http://species-identification.org/index.php). **Pachymatisma** johnstonia, which hosted the lowest number of taxa (21 taxa), is characterised by the hardest structure, given by the strong cortex of up to 1 mm thickness and the presence of both macro (megascleres) and micro (microscleres) spicules.

Several other factors could be involved in sponge recruitment of specific fungi, not least the sponge bioactivity; two sponges (*D. fragilis* and *P. johnstonia*) are known for the production of bioactive metabolites, although their antifungal activity has never been demonstrated. However, the strongest proof supporting the hypothesis of the ability of the sponge to recognise and select fungi is the discovery of sponge mitochondrial introns of fungal origin and of $(1\rightarrow 3)$ - β -d-glucan-binding proteins on the sponge surface for fungus recognition (Suryanarayanan 2012).

Overall, the mycobiota examined in this study was one of the most diverse compared to other sponges even from the same environment. For instance, Baker et al. (2009) identified 19 fungal genotypes from the sponge Haliclona simulans isolated in the same study area (Gurraig Sound, Co. Galway) and interestingly 85 % of the identified fungal orders were also recorded in our research. In other environments too, the biodiversity recorded was lower: seven sponges collected in the Red Sea (Egypt) yielded 22 species (Sayed et al. 2016); 10 Antarctic sponges hosted 24 fungal genotypes (Henríquez et al. 2014) while 78 taxa were isolated from six sponges of Sakhalin Island, Russia (Pivkin et al. 2006). Contrast the Mediterranean sponge Psammocinia sp. with 85 fungal taxa (Paz et al. 2010) and an Atlantic sponge Dragmacidon reticulatum with 64 taxa (Passarini et al. 2013).

Finally, few species reported in the present study and isolated from healthy sponges, have been previously reported as pathogenic on marine plants and animals. *Alternaria molesta* was found on a skin lesion of *Phocaena phocaena*, a marine mammal (Tóth *et al.* 2011), and was first recorded in association with a sponge in the present study. *Fusarium solani* and *Metschnikowia bicuspidata* are a threat for shrimp and prawn aquaculture (Baker *et al.* 2009, Hatai *et al.* 2012); both species have already been reported in apparently healthy sponges (Baker *et al.* 2009, Paz *et al.* 2010, Bolaños *et al.* 2015). Concerning plants, *Cladosporium perangustum* (isolated from marine water) showed pathogenic activity against mangrove leaves under laboratory conditions (Liu *et al.* 2016). These fungi are probably opportunistic pathogens, not properly able to

affect healthy organisms, like the sponges of the present studies; however, further studies will be necessary to better understand their ecological role.

Two novel species of Thelebolus

Proving the still untapped biodiversity of marine fungi in this study it was possible to describe two new *Thelebolus* species. *Thelebolus balaustiformis* and *T. spongiae* were isolated from the Atlantic sponge *Dysidea fragilis*.

The genus *Thelebolus* has been isolated from Tropical to Artic regions, often on animal dung and from freshwater and saline lakes (de Hoog *et al.* 2005). In the marine environment, members of *Thelebolus* were recorded also associated with *Padina pavonica*, a Mediterranean brown algae (Garzoli *et al.*, in prep) and from an Antarctic marine sponge (Henríquez *et al.* 2014). In both cases, isolates were reported as *Thelebolus* sp. and the identification was based on molecular data.

Morphological characters useful to classify this genus have been long debated and, since the '70s, the number of spores per ascus represents the main character for species definition (de Hoog *et al.* 2005). At present, the genus *Thelebolus* includes 16 species and two varieties, most of which described at the end of the 19th or in the first half of the 20th century. For this reason, many of the described species, are lacking of: i) original exhaustive descriptions (i.e. microscopic characters poorly described); ii) DNA barcode sequences available in public databases; iii) ex-type strains preserved in culture collections.

Since the two *Thelebolus* species isolated in this study presented unique morphological and molecular features, we performed a deep bibliographic search to define the main characters for each described *Thelebolus* species (Table 3) and for those available in culture collections, we obtained comparable sequences, which are now available to the scientific community. The two new marine species can be easily distinguished because they form well-defined lineages within the genus (Fig. 9). Interestingly, the isolates MUT 2357 clustered with a marine strain (Thelebolus sp. MUT 5281), already present in MUT culture collection and isolated from a Mediterranean brown alga; this indicates the strong affinity of this species with the marine environment. From a morphological point of view, all the dichotomous keys of the genus point out as first statement the presence of 8-spored or multisporic asci (Doveri 2004, de Hoog et al. 2005). Therefore, considering only the multispored species (not included in the tree because there were no available sequences) we can first exclude the similarity of T. balaustiformis with T. monoascus and T. pilosus, in fact, the last two mentioned species present only one ascus per ascoma and a higher number of spores compared to MUT 2357. Thelebolus balaustiformis differs also from the two varieties of T. dubius, by presenting a higher number of asci (20–30) and a lower number (48-64) of smaller spores.

Thelebolus spongiae MUT 2359, is characterised by a variable number of asci (from one to six), while in *T. monoascus* and *T. pilosus* is strictly limited to one; the latest mentioned species differs from *T. spongiae* MUT 2359 also for the shape and size of ascospores. Thelebolus dubius var. lagopi and Thelebolus dubius var. dubius present a variable number of asci, starting from three; the shape of asci, as well as those of ascospores differ from *T. spongiae*. In fact, MUT 2359 present globular to sacciform asci and peculiar ascospores with different ratio (2.2–2.4) from *T. dubius* var. lagopi (1.5) and *T. dubius* var. dubius (1.7).



Table 3. Thelebolus species and main morphological features (ascomata, asci and ascospores).

Species	Ascomata	Number of asci per ascoma	Asci	Number of ascospores	Ascospores	References
T. coemansii	-	numerous	85–110 × 20–25 μm, cylindrical- clavate	8	-	(13)
T. delicatus ^a	Subglobosus	-	-	-	-	(5)
T. dubius var. dubius	-	3–5	40–45 × 24.4 μm, broadly ovate or oblong-ovate	128 (?)	6 × 4 μm, ellipsoid, rather pointed at the ends	(4)
T. dubius var. lagopi	80–150 μm diam subglobosus	10–16	μm, cylindrical-		$6.2-7.6 \times 3.6-4.3$ µm, ellipsoid to ovoid	(4)
T. ellipsoideus	17–46 μm diam, subglobosus or ovoid to ellipsoid 1–8 (rarely up to 25) 22 × 11–16 μm, shortly ellipsoid to subglobose		5–9.2 × 4–5.3 μm, shortly-ellipsoid	(6)		
T. globosus	300–520 μm diam, 1–4 12–15 × 9–12 8 5–7		$5-7.5 \times 4.1-5.1 \mu m$, broadly ellipsoid	(6)		
T. hirsutus ^a	-	-	-	-	-	(2)
T. lignicola	-	-	-	60–100	3.4 x 4–4.5 μm	(8)
T. microcarpus	18–70 μm diam, globose to subglobose	1–5	12-17 × 10-15 μm, subglobose to broadly ellipsoid	8	5–9 × 3–4 μm, ellipsoid	(1)
T. microsporus	45–500 μm diam, subglobosus, hemispheric or subcylindric	5–100	80–125 × 20–26 μm, cylindrical to cylindrical-clavate	8	6-10 × 3-5	(4), (6), (7)
T. minutissimus ^a	-	-	-	-	-	(3)
T. monoascus	150–200 μm diam, hemispheric	1	150–170 μm	500	5–6.5 × 4– 4.5 μm, ovate	(9)
T. pilosus	-	1	300 × 250 μm	about 100	9–11 × 7– 8 μm	(11)
T. polysporus	60–200 μm diam	2–5	50–160 × 18–90 μm, subellipsoid to ovoid or sacciform	256	$5-7.5 \times 3-4 \mu m$, ovoid to oblong-ellipsoidal	(4), (7), (13)
T. stercoreus	135–400 μm diam, ellipsoid to ovoid or subglobose	1, rarely 2–3	165–262 × 120–205 μm, ellipsoid to ovoid or subglobose	up to 3 000 spores	5 –7.7 × 2.3–4.5 μm, spores smooth, broadly elliptic, ellipsoid or oblong	(4), (7), (13)
T. striatus	-	-	124–162 × 9–10.8 μm, elongate cylindrical	8	11.3–13.5 × 6–6.7 μm, narrow ellipsoid	(12)
T. terrestris	-	-	-	-	18.4–25.6 × 8–9.6 μm	(10)

⁽¹⁾ Crous et al. 2015, (2) De Lamarck & De Candolle 1815, (3) De Schweinitz 1834, (4) Doveri 2004, (5) Fries 1823, (6) de Hoog et al. 2005, (7) Kimbrough 1981, (8) Lloyd 1918, (9) Mouton 1886, (10) Pfister 1993, (11) Schroeter 1908, (12) Thind et al. 1959, (13) Van Brummelen 1998.

Interestingly, *T. balaustiformis* was isolated by homogenisation of sponges tissues on CMASW at 15 °C, while *T. spongiae* was isolated by direct plating of sponge tissue on SWA at 15 °C, highlighting once more the importance of using different isolation techniques and culture conditions.

In conclusion, with the present work, we highlighted the great and still unexplored fungal diversity that characterises

the marine environment. The use of several isolation methods improved the yield of cultivable fungi that with few techniques and growth media, would have been impossible to isolate. The sponges proved to host a specific mycobiota and several fungi identified with the contribution of morphological, molecular and phylogenetic approach, were first reported from a marine environment, while *T balaustiformis* and *T*.

^aThe original descriptions do not contain any information about the microscopic structures.



spongiae were here described as new. The present study again highlights the great mosaic of largely unknown marine microbial diversity.

REFERENCES

- Baker PW, Kennedy J, Dobson AD, et al. (2009). Phylogenetic diversity and antimicrobial activities of fungi associated with *Haliclona simulans* isolated from Irish coastal waters. *Marine Biotechnology* **11**: 540–547.
- Bensch K, Braun U, Groenewald JZ, et al. (2012). The genus Cladosporium. Studies in Mycology 72: 1–401.
- Berbee ML, Pirseyedi M, Hubbard S (1999). *Cochliobolus* phylogenetics and the origin of known, highly virulent pathogens, inferred from ITS and glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase gene sequences. *Mycologia* **91**: 964–977.
- Bolaños J, De León LF, Ochoa E, et al. (2015). Phylogenetic diversity of sponge-associated fungi from the Caribbean and the Pacific of Panama and their *in vitro* effect on angiotensin and endothelin receptors. *Marine Biotechnology* **17**: 533–564.
- Bovio E, Gnavi G, Prigione V, et al. (2017). The culturable mycobiota of a Mediterranean marine site after an oil spill: isolation, identification and potential application in bioremediation. Science of the Total Environment 576: 310–318.
- Braun U, Crous PW, Dugan F, et al. (2003). Phylogeny and taxonomy of Cladosporium-like hyphomycetes, including *Davidiella* gen. nov., the teleomorph of *Cladosporium s. str. Mycological Progress* 2: 3–18.
- Caballero-George C, Bolaños J, De León LF, et al. (2013). Fungal diversity in marine sponges from highly diverse areas in the Isthmus of Panama. In: Proceedings of the 2013 AAUS/ESDP Curaçao Joint International Scientific Diving Symposium, October 24–27, 2013, Curaçao.
- Carbone I, Kohn LM (1999). A method for designing primer sets for speciatioin studies in filamentous ascomycetes. *Mycologia* **91**: 553–556.
- Clarke KR, Warwick RM (2001). Change in Marine Communities: An Approach to Statistical Analysis and Interpretation. Primer-E Ltd, Plymouth, UK. http://www.primer-e.com/
- Costello MJ, Emblow C, White RJ (2001). European register of marine species: a check-list of the marine species in Europe and a bibliography of guides to their identification. Collection Patrimoines Naturels, Paris.
- Crous PW, Wingfield MJ, Guarro J, *et al.* (2015). Fungal Planet description sheets: 320–370. *Persoonia* **34**: 167–226.
- De Barros Lopes M, Soden A, Martens AL, et al. (1998). Differentiation and species identification of yeasts using PCR. *International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology* **48**:279–286.
- De Hoog GS, Gottlich E, Platas G, et al. (2005). Evolution, taxonomy and ecology of the genus *Thelebolus* in Antarctica. *Studies in Mycology* **51**: 33–66.
- De Lamarck MM, De Candolle (1815). Flore française: ou descriptions succintes de toutes les plantes qui croissent naturellement en France, disposées selon une novelle méthode d'analyse, et précédées par un exposé des principes élémentaires de la botanique (Vol. 2). 3rd edn. M. Agasse, France.
- De Schweinitz LD (1834). Synopsis fungorum in America boreali media degentium. Secundum observationes. *Transactions of the American Philosophical Society* **4**: 141–316.
- Di Piazza S, Baiardo S, Cecchi G, et al. (2017). Microfungal diversity in the swash zone interstitial water (SZIW) of three Ligurian urban

- beaches (NW, Italy). Italian Journal of Mycology 46: 8-20.
- Diep CN, Phong NT, Tam HT (2016). Phylogenetic diversity of culturable fungi associated with sponges *Leucosolenia* sp. and *Hexactinosa* sp. In Ha Tien sea, Kien Giang, Vietnam. *World Journal of Pharmacy and Pharmaceutical Sciences* **5**: 294–308.
- Ding B, Yin Y, Zhang F, et al. (2011). Recovery and phylogenetic diversity of culturable fungi associated with marine sponges *Clathrina luteoculcitella* and *Holoxea* sp. in the South China Sea. *Marine Biotechnology* **13**: 713–721.
- Domsch KH, Gams W, Anderson TH (1980). *Compendium of soil fungi*. Vol. 1. Academic Press, London.
- Doveri F (2004). Fungi Fimicoli Italici: A guide to the recognition of basidiomycetes and ascomycetes living on faecal material.

 Associazione Micologica Bresadola, Trento.
- Ferreira M, Cabado AG, Chapela MJ, et al. (2011). Cytotoxic activity of extracts of marine sponges from NW Spain on a neuroblastoma cell line. *Environmental Toxicology and Pharmacology* **32**: 430–437.
- Fraser JA, Lambert LK, Pierens GK, et al. (2013). Secondary metabolites of the sponge-derived fungus Acremonium persicinum. Journal of Natural Products **76**: 1432–1440.
- Fries EM (1823). Systema Mycologicum, sistens fungorum ordines, genera et species. Vol. 2. Sumtibus Ernesti Mauritti, London.
- Gao L, Ma Y, Zhao W, et al. (2015). Three new species of *Cyphellophora* (*Chaetothyriales*) associated with sooty blotch and flyspeck. *PLoS ONE* **10**: 1–21.
- Garzoli L, Gnavi G, Tamma F, et al. (2015). Sink or swim: Updated knowledge on marine fungi associated with wood substrates in the Mediterranean Sea and hints about their potential to remediate hydrocarbons. *Progress in Oceanography* **137**: 140–148.
- Glass NL, Donaldson GC (1995). Development of primer sets designed for use with the PCR to amplify conserved genes from filamentous ascomycetes. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* **61**: 1323–1330
- Gnavi G, Garzoli L, Poli A, *et al.* (2017). The culturable mycobiota of *Flabellia petiolata*: first survey of marine fungi associated to a Mediterranean green alga. *PLoS ONE* **12**: 1–20.
- Gomes D, Cavalcanti MAQ, Fernandes MJS, et al. (2008). Filamentous fungi isolated from sand and water of "Bairro Novo" and "Casa Caiada" beaches, Olinda, Pernambuco, Brazil. Brazilian Journal of Biology 68: 577–582.
- Hatai K (2012). Diseases of fish and shellfish caused by marine fungi. In: *Biology of marine fungi* (Raghukumar ed.). Springer, Berlin Heidelberg: 15–52.
- He L, Liu F, Karuppiah V, et al. (2014). Comparisons of the fungal and protistan communities among different marine sponge holobionts by pyrosequencing. *Microbialecology* **67**: 951–961.
- Henríquez M, Vergara K, Norambuena J, et al. (2014). Diversity of cultivable fungi associated with Antarctic marine sponges and screening for their antimicrobial, antitumoral and antioxidant potential. World Journal of Microbiology and Biotechnology 30: 65–76.
- Höller U, Wright AD, Matthee GF, et al. (2000). Fungi from marine sponges: diversity, biological activity and secondary metabolites. *Mycological Research* **104**: 1354–1365.
- Hyde KD, Jones EG, Leaño E, et al. (1998). Role of fungi in marine ecosystems. *Biodiversity and Conservation* **7**: 1147–1161.
- Imhoff JF (2016). Natural products from marine fungi Still an underrepresented resource. *Marine Drugs* **14**: 1–19.
- Imhoff JF, Stöhr R (2003). Sponge-associated bacteria: general overview and special aspects of bacteria associated with *Halichondria panicea*. In: *Sponges, Porifera* (Werner ed.). Springer, Berlin Heidelberg: 35–57.



- Ingham CJ, Sprenkels A, Bomer J, et al. (2007). The micro-Petri dish, a million-well growth chip for the culture and high-throughput screening of microorganisms. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences USA 104: 18217–18222.
- Jones EG, Suetrong S, Sakayaroj J, *et al.* (2015). Classification of marine ascomycota, basidiomycota, blastocladiomycota and chytridiomycota. *Fungal Diversity* **73**: 1–72.
- Jurjevic Z, Peterson SW, Horn BW (2012). *Aspergillus* section *Versicolores*: nine new species and multilocus DNA sequence based phylogeny. *IMA Fungus* **3**: 59–79.
- Kiffer E, Morelet M (1997). Les deutéromycetes: Classification et clés d'identification genérique. INRA ed, France.
- Kimbrough JW (1981). Cytology, ultrastructure, and taxonomy of *Thelebolus* (Ascomycetes). Mycologia **73** 1–27.
- Kis-Papo T, Grishkan I, Oren A, et al. (2001). Spatiotemporal diversity of filamentous fungi in the hypersaline Dead Sea. *Mycological Research* **105**: 749–756.
- Klich MA (2002). *Identification of common* Aspergillus *species*. Westerdijk Fungal Biodiversity Institute, Utrecht, Netherlands.
- Li Q, Wang G (2009). Diversity of fungal isolates from three Hawaiian marine sponges. *Microbiological Research* **164**: 233–241.
- Liu Y, Li Y, Lin Q, et al. (2016). Assessment of the pathogenicity of marine Cladosporium spp. towards mangroves. Forest Pathology 47: 1–5.
- Lloyd CG (1918). Mycological Notes 52. *Mycological Writings* **5**: 733–748.
- Marchese P, Gnavi G, Garzoli L, et al. (2016). Marine fungi from Holothuria poli (Della Chiaje, 1823): diversity and extracts bioactivity. Biologia Marina Mediterranea 23: 290–291.
- Marin A, Lopez MD, Esteban MA, et al. (1998). Anatomical and ultrastructural studies of chemical defence in the sponge *Dysidea* fragilis. Marine Biology **131**: 639–645.
- Mouton V (1886). Bulletin de la Société Royale de Botanique de Belgique. Royal Botanical Society of Belgium.
- Nichols D, Cahoon N, Trakhtenberg EM, *et al.* (2010). Use of ichip for high-throughput *in situ* cultivation of "uncultivable" microbial species. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* **76**: 2445–2450.
- O'Donnell K, Nirenberg HI, Aoki T, et al. (2000). A multigene phylogeny of the *Gibberella fujikuroi* species complex: detection of additional phylogenetically distinct species. *Mycoscience* **41**: 61–78.
- Oren A, Gunde-Cimerman N (2012). Fungal life in the Dead Sea. In: *Biology of Marine Fungi* (Raghukumar ed.). Springer, Berlin Heidelberg: 115–132.
- Panno L, Bruno M, Voyron S, et al. (2013). Diversity, ecological role and potential biotechnological applications of marine fungi associated to the seagrass *Posidonia oceanica*. *New Biotechnology* **30**: 685–694.
- Park MS, Lee EJ, Fong JJ, et al. (2014). A new record of *Penicillium* antarcticum from marine environments in Korea. *Mycobiology* **42**:109–113.
- Passarini MR, Santos C, Lima N, et al. (2013). Filamentous fungi from the Atlantic marine sponge *Dragmacidon reticulatum*. Archives of *Microbiology* **195**: 99–111.
- Paz Z, Komon-Zelazowska M, Druzhinina IS, et al. (2010). Diversity and potential antifungal properties of fungi associated with a Mediterranean sponge. Fungal Diversity 42: 17–26.
- Pfister DH (1993). A synopsis of the North American species of Byssonectria (Pezizales) with comments on the ontogeny of two species. Mycologia 85: 952–962.
- Pivkin MV, Aleshko SA, Krasokhin VB, *et al.* (2006). Fungal assemblages associated with sponges of the southern coast of Sakhalin Island. *Russian Journal of Marine Biology* **32**: 207–213.
- Proksch P, Ebel R, Edrada R, et al. (2008). Sponge-associated fungi and

- their bioactive compounds: the *Suberites* case. *Botanica Marina* **51**: 209–218.
- Raghukumar C, Ravindran J (2012). Fungi and their role in corals and coral reef ecosystems. In: *Biology of Marine Fungi* (Raghukumar ed.). Springer, Berlin Heidelberg: 89–113.
- Raghukumar S (2017). *Fungi in Coastal and Oceanic Marine Ecosystems*. Springer, Berlin Heidelberg.
- Rämä T, Hassett BT, Bubnova E (2017). Arctic marine fungi: from filaments and flagella to operational taxonomic units and beyond. *Botanica Marina* **60**: 433–452.
- Rämä T, Nordén J, Davey ML, et al. (2014). Fungi ahoy! Diversity on marine wooden substrata in the high North. Fungal Ecology 8: 46–58.
- Ratnaweera PB, Williams DE, De Silva ED, et al. (2016). Antibacterial metabolites from the Sri Lankan demosponge-derived fungus, Aspergillus flavipes. Current Science 111: 1473–1479.
- Rodríguez-Marconi S, De la Iglesia R, Díez B, *et al.* (2015). Characterization of bacterial, archaeal and eukaryote symbionts from Antarctic sponges reveals a high diversity at a three-domain level and a particular signature for this ecosystem. *PloSone* **10**: 1–19.
- Rozas EE, Albano RM, Lôbo-Hajdu G, et al. (2011). Isolation and cultivation of fungal strains from *in vitro* cell cultures of two marine sponges (Porifera: *Halichondrida* and *Haplosclerida*). *Brazilian Journal of Microbiology* **42**: 1560–1568.
- Samson RA, Frisvad JC (2004). *Penicillium* subgenus *Penicillium*: new taxonomic schemes and mycotoxins and other extrolites. *Studies in Mycology* **49**: 1–260.
- San-Martin A, Painemal K, Díaz Y, et al. (2005). Metabolites from the marine fungus *Cladosporium cladosporioides*. The Journal of the Argentine Chemical Society **93**: 247–251.
- Sayed MAE, El-Rahman TMA, El-Diwany AI, et al. (2016). Biodiversity and bioactivity of red sea sponge associated endophytic fungi. International Journal of Advanced in Engineering and Applied Sciences 5: 1–15.
- Schroeter J, Cohn F (1908). Die Pilze Schlesiens, Vol. 2, JU Kern.
- Seeler EV (1940). A monographic study of the genus *Thyronectria*. *Journal of the Arnold Arboretum* **21**: 429–460.
- Shigemori H, Tenma M, Shimazaki K, et al. (1998). Three new metabolites from the marine yeast *Aureobasidium pullulans*. *Journal of Natural Products* **61**: 696–698.
- Suetrong S, Schoch CL, Spatafora JW, et al. (2009). Molecular systematics of the marine *Dothideomycetes*. Studies in Mycology **64**: 155–173.
- Suryanarayanan TS (2012). Fungal endosymbionts of seaweeds. In: *Biology of Marine Fungi* (Raghukumar ed.). Springer, Berlin Heidelberg: 53–69.
- Taylor MW, Radax R, Steger D, *et al.* (2007). Sponge-associated microorganisms: evolution, ecology, and biotechnological potential. *Microbiology and Molecular Biology Reviews* **71**: 29–347.
- Thind KS, Cash EK, Singh P (1959). The Pezizaceae of the Mussoorie hills (India): VII. *Mycologia* **51**: 457–464.
- Thirunavukkarasu N, Suryanarayanan TS, Girivasan KP, et al. (2012). Fungal symbionts of marine sponges from Rameswaram, southern India: species composition and bioactive metabolites. Fungal Diversity 55: 37–46.
- Tóth B, Csosz M, Szabo-Hever A, et al. (2011). Alternaria hungarica sp. nov., a minor foliar pathogen of wheat in Hungary. Mycologia **103**: 94–100.
- Vacelet J, Donadey C (1977). Electron microscope study of the association between some sponges and bacteria. *Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology* **30**: 301–314.
- Van Brummelen J (1998). Reconsideration of relationships within the Thelebolaceae based on ascus ultrastructure. Persoonia 16: 425–469.

Culturable mycobiota from sponges



- Vilgalys R, Hester M (1990). Rapid genetic identification and mapping of enzymatically amplified ribosomal DNA from several *Cryptococcus* species. *Journal of Bacteriology* **172**: 4238–4246.
- Von Arx JA (1981). The genera of fungi sporulating in pure culture. 3rd edn. Cramer, Vaduz.
- Wang G, Li Q, Zhu P (2008). Phylogenetic diversity of culturable fungi associated with the Hawaiian sponges *Suberites zeteki* and *Gelliodes fibrosa*. *Antonie van Leeuwenhoek* **93**: 163–174.
- Warabi K, Zimmerman WT, Shen J, et al. (2004). Pachymoside AA novel glycolipid isolated from the marine sponge *Pachymatisma johnstonia*. *Canadian Journal of Chemistry* **82**: 102–112.
- Webster NS, Thomas T (2016). The sponge hologenome. mBio 7: 1–14.
- White TJ, Bruns T, Lee S, et al. 1990. Amplification and direct sequencing of fungal ribosomal RNA genes for phylogenetics. In: *PCR protocols:* a guide to methods and applications (Innis MA, et al. eds). Academic Press, San Diego: 315–322.
- Wiese J, Ohlendorf B, Blümel M, et al. (2011). Phylogenetic identification of fungi isolated from the marine sponge *Tethya aurantium* and identification of their secondary metabolites. *Marine Drugs* 9: 561–585.
- Yamazaki H, Rotinsulu H, Kaneko T, et al. (2012). A new dibenz [b, e] oxepine derivative, 1-hydroxy-10-methoxy-dibenz [b, e] oxepin-6, 11-dione, from a marine-derived fungus, *Beauveria bassiana* TPU942. *Marine Drugs* 10: 2691–2697.

- Yarden O (2014). Fungal association with sessile marine invertebrates. *Frontiers in Microbiology* **5**: 1–6.
- Yu Z, Lang G, Kajahn I, et al. (2008). Scopularides A and B, cyclodepsipeptides from a marine sponge-derived fungus, Scopulariopsis brevicaulis. Journal of Natural Products 71): 1052– 1054.
- Yu ZG, Bi KS, Guo YW, et al. (2006). A new spiro-sesquiterpene from the sponge *Dysidea fragilis*: Note. *Journal of Asian Natural Products Research* **8**: 467–470.
- Zajc J, Zalar P, Plemenitaš A, et al. (2012). The mycobiota of the salterns. In: Biology of Marine Fungi (Raghukumar ed) Springer, Berlin Heidelberg: 133–158.
- Zhang H, Zhao Z, Wang H (2017). Cytotoxic natural products from marine sponge-derived microorganisms. *Marine Drugs* **15**: 1–13.
- Zidane M, Pondaven P, Roussakis C, et al. (1996). Effects in vitro of pachymatismin, a glycoprotein from the marine sponge *Pachymatisma johnstonii*, on a non-small-cell bronchopulmonary carcinoma line (NSCLC-N6). *Anticancer Research* **16**: 2805–2812.

Supplementary Table 1. List of fungal strains isolated from *D. fragilis* (DF), *P. johnstonia* (PJ) and *S. ciliatum* (SC) with Mycotheca Universitatis Taurinensis (MUT) accession number (available on: http://www.mut.unito.it/en/Database) and GenBank accession number.

MUT			
Accession	Source	Taxa	GenBank accession number
number			

			ITS	LSU	TUB	ACT	CAL	GAPDH	D1-D2
2436	DF	Absidia glauca	MG813192						
2491	DF	Acremonium breve	MG813193						
2365	DF	Acremonium implicatum	MG813194						
2367	DF	Acremonium persicinum	MG813195						
2360	DF		MG813196	MG816494					
2439	DF		MG813197	MG816495					1
2462	DF	Acremonium potronii	MG813198	MG816496					
2440	DF		MG813199	MG816497					
2809	SC		MG813210	MG816501					·
2355	DF	4	MG813200						·
2378	DF	Acremonium tubakii	MG813201						
2818	SC	Acremonium zonatum	MG813213						·
2370	DF	Agaricomycetes sp.	MF098696 ^a						1
2260	PJ	Alternaria molesta	MG813166	MG816482				MG832209	·
2884	SC	Alternaria sp.	MG813214	MG816502				MG832211	
2513	DF	Agn angillag anghan					MG832144		1
2346	PJ	Aspergillus creber					MG832143		·
2226	PJ	Aspergillus flavipes					MG832141		
2518	DF				MG832191				·
2908	SC	Aspergillus fumigatus			MG832204				·
2520	DF	A					MG832145		
2237	PJ	Aspergillus jensenii					MG832142		
2522	DF	Aspergillus puulaauensis					MG832146		
2441	DF	Aureobasidium pullulans	MG813203						

2348	PJ		MG813169				
2523	DF		MG813172				
2805	SC	Beauveria bassiana	MG813215				
2882	SC		MG813216				
2425	DF	Bimuria novae-zelandiae	MG813173	MG816486			
2492	DF	Bjerkandera sp.	MF140468 ^a				
2445	DF	Boeremia exigua	MG813174	MG816487		MG832210	
2817	SC		MG813217				
2895	SC	Cadophora luteo olivacea	MG813218				
2485	DF		MG813204				
2524	DF	Cladosporium aggregatocicatricatum	MG813175		MG832112		
2525	DF				MG832113		
2528	DF				MG832114		
2241	PJ	Cladosporium allicinum			MG832106		
2842	SC		MG813219		MG832122		
2935	SC				MG832124		
2529	DF				MG832115		
2532	DF	Cladosporium cladosporioides			MG832116		
2243	PJ				MG832107		
2245	PJ				MG832108		
2246	PJ	Cladosporium halotolerans	MG813163		MG832109		
2940	SC				MG832125		
2533	DF	Cladosporium perangustum			MG832117		
2535	DF				MG832118		
2537	DF	Cladosporium pseudocladosporioides			MG832119		
2248	PJ	Cianosportum pseudociadosportoraes			MG832110		
2932	SC				MG832126		
2579	DF	Cladosporium psychrotolerans			MG832120		
2583	DF	Cladosporium subtilissimum			MG832121		
2249	PJ	Cladosporium subuliforme			MG832111		
2589	DF	Cladosporium xylophilum			MG832122		
2893	SC	Coniothyrium obiones	MG813220	MG816503			

2862	SC	Cyphellophora sp.	MG813221	MG816504			
2459	DF	Emericellopsis alkalina (anamorph)	MG813205				
2351	PJ	Emericellopsis maritima	MG813170	MG816484			
2458	DF	Emericellopsis pallida (anamorph)	MG813206				
2874	SC	Epicoccum nigrum	MG813222				
2594	DF	Fusarium pseudograminearum	MG813176				
2850	SC	Fusarium solani	MG813223				
2783	SC	Gremmenia infestans	MG813224	MG816505			
2943	SC	Holtermanniella sp.					MF196244 ^a
2463	DF	Hypocreaceae sp.	MG813207	MG816499			
2941	SC	Metschnikowia bicuspidata					MG845236
2377	DF	Microascaceae sp.	MG813208	MG816500			
2878	SC	Mollisia sp.	MG813225	MG816506			
2599	DF	Myrothecium cinctum	MG813177				
2956	SC	Neocamarosporium betae	MG813233				
2404	DF	Neocamarosporium calvescens	MG813179				
2806	SC	Paraphaeosphaeria neglecta	MG813226				
2453	DF	Paraphaeosphaeria neglecta (anamorph)	MG813209				
2609	DF				MG832193		
2735	DF				MG832192		
2250	PJ	Penicillium antarcticum			MG832184		
2251	PJ				MG832185		
2926	SC				MG832205		
2664	DF	Penicillium brevicompactum			MG832194		
2665	DF	1 chemium orevicomputium			MG832195		
2252	PJ	Penicillium canescens			MG832186		
2666	DF				MG832196		
2704	DF				MG832197		
2253	PJ	Penicillium chrysogenum			MG832187		
2254	PJ				MG832188		
2255	PJ				MG832189		
2903	SC	Penicillium citreonigrum			MG832206		

2705	DF	Penicillium inflatum			MG832198		
2710	DF	D			MG832199		
2713	DF	Penicillium janczewskii			MG832200		
2906	SC	Penicillium roqueforti			MG832207		
2256	PJ	Penicillium spinulosum	MG813164	MG816481	MG832190		
2257	PJ	Penicillium thomii	MG813165				
2734	DF	Penicillium waksmanii			MG832201		
2887	SC	Periconia minutissima	MG813227				
2263	PJ	Periconia sp.	MG813167	MG816483			
2854	SC	Phaeosphaeria olivacea	MG813228	MG816507			
2928	SC	Phaeosphaeria oryzae	MG813229	MG816508			
2482	DF	Phaeosphaeriopsis sp.	MG813178	MG816488			
2959	SC	Phaeosphaeriopsis sp.	MG813230	MG816509			
2870	SC	Phaeosphaeriopsis sp.	MG813231	MG816513			
3080	SC	Phaeosphaeriopsis sp.	MG813232	MG816510			
2945	SC	Pleosporaceae sp.	MG813234	MG816511			
2489	DF	Pleosporales sp.	MG813180	MG816489			
2386	DF	Pochonia suchlasporia	MG813181				
2390	DF	Preussia sp.	MG813182	MG816490			
2812	SC	Pseudeurotium bakeri	MG813235				
2352	PJ	Pseudocercosporella sp.	MG813171	MG816485			
2264	PJ	Pseudozyma sp.					MF521974 ^a
2374	DF	Pyrenochaetopsis microspora	MG813202	MG816498			
2452	DF	Roussoellaceae sp.	MG813183	MG816491			
2830	SC	Sarocladium strictum	MG813211				
2892	SC	Sarociaatum strictum	MG813212				
2849	SC	Scopulariopsis brevicaulis	MG813236				
2266	PJ	Sporidiobolales sp.					MF112036 ^a
2357	DF	Thelebolus balaustiformis	MG813184	MG816492	MG832203		
2359	DF	Thelebolus spongiae	MG813185	MG816493	MG832202		
2766	SC	Thyronectria sp.	MG813237	MG816512			
2364	DF	Tilachlidium brachiatum	MG813186				

2484	DF	Tolypocladium album	MG813187			
2406	DF		MG813188			
2447	DF		MG813189			
2267	PJ	 	MG813168			
2869	SC		MG813238			
2875	SC		MG813239			
2444	DF	Trametes gibbosa	MF098690 ^a			
3263	DF	Trumetes gibbosu	MF098691 ^a			
2397	DF	Volutella ciliata	MG813190			
2496	DF	Xanthothecium peruvianum	MG813191			

^aGently provided by Poli *et al*. (in prep.)

Supplementary Table 2. List of taxa used for the phylogenetic analysis of *Thelebolus* spp.

Species	Strain	Substrate	GenBank accession	n number
			ITS	TUB
Aureobasidium pullulans	CBS 584.75 ^{NT}	Vitis vinifera	KT693733	FJ157869
Sclerotinia nivalis	KACC 45150	Aralia elata	HM746664	JX296012
Thelebolus ellipsoideus	CBS 113937 ^T	Algal mat under perennial ice in lake	AY957550	AY957542
Thelebolus globosus	CBS 113940 ^T	Algal mat in lake	DQ028268	AY957547
Thelebolus microcarpus	CBS 137501	Soil	LN609269	LN609270
	CBS 113943	Catharacta antarctica	AY957554	AY957546
	CBS 109909	Algal mat in lake	AY957551	AY957543
Thelebolus microsporus	MUT 854	Artic soil	MG196311	MG195907
	MUT 859	Artic soil	MG196312	MG195908
	MUT 861	Artic soil	MG196313	MG195909
Thelebolus polysporus	CBS 219.69	Dung of sheep	MG196314	MG195910
Thelebolus stercoreus	CBS 375.58	Forest soil	MG196315	MG195911
Thelebolus sp.	MUT 5281	Padina pavonica	KT715729	MG195912