Diversity and biotechnological potential of filamentous fungi isolated from sediments of Basque estuaries.

A. Otamendi[a] (ORCID: 0000-0002-1475-321X), Z. Agirrezabala[a], C. Perez-Cruz[b] (ORCID: 0000-0003-2796-5315), R. Liébana[b] (ORCID: 0000-0002-2196-5632), I. Berregi[a] (0000-0002-5567-8404), L. Alonso-Sáez[b] (0000-0003-1757-4767), MT. Dueñas[a] (0000-0001-7551-7037), A. Lanzén[c,d] (0000-0002-7138-6364), O. Etxebeste[#,a] (0000-0002-9786-6091).

[a]Laboratory of Biology, Department of Applied Chemistry, Faculty of Chemistry, University of the Basque Country (UPV/EHU), 20018 San Sebastian.

[b]AZTI, Marine Research, Basque Research and Technology Alliance (BRTA), Sukarrieta.

[c]AZTI, Marine Research, Basque Research and Technology Alliance (BRTA), Pasaia.

[d]IKERBASQUE, Basque Foundation for Science, Bilbao

[#] Corresponding author: E-mail: oier.echeveste@ehu.eus; Tel: (+34)943018517; Fax: (+34)943015270; Lab. of Biology, Dept. of Applied Chemistry, Faculty of Chemistry, University of the Basque Country, Manuel de Lardizabal, 3, 20018, San Sebastian.

Keywords. Marine microbes, marine fungi, estuarine fungi, filamentous fungi Sordariomycetes, Hypocreales, CAZYmes, secondary metabolite gene clusters, fucoidan.

Running title. Filamentous fungi from sediments of Basque estuaries

One-sentence summary. Isolation and characterization of filamentous fungi from sediments of Basque estuaries and an assessment of their biotechnological potential.

Importance.

Marine microbes are considered an unlimited source of molecules for biotechnology in fields such as pharmaceutics, biomedicine, cosmetics, nutraceutics, food, feed or agriculture. Thus, it is believed that blue biotechnology will make a significant contribution to the sustainability of global economy. However, the study of marine fungi lags behind that of marine bacteria and it is considered that the potential impact of fungi at the biotechnological level is underestimated. In this work, filamentous fungi from sediment samples of estuaries of the Basque Country have been isolated and the genomes of the Sordariomycete fungi *Marquandomyces marquandii* and *Albophoma yamanashiensis* sequenced and analyzed. Their characterization will contribute to the inventory of the genomic diversity within filamentous fungi and the identification of species and activities with biotechnological potential.

Abstract.

Marine environments harbor a vast diversity of microorganisms, which have developed multiple strategies to adapt to stress conditions such as high salt concentrations and nutrient scarcity and, thus, are a source of natural products and high-value enzymes, as they have the ability to degrade complex polymeric substrates. These features make marine microorganisms a valuable source for the development of new biotechnological tools. Here, we focused on the isolation of filamentous fungi, using sediment samples collected from estuaries of the Basque Country in the Bay of Biscay. The phenotype of these isolates was characterized based on the potential to grow on complex marine polysaccharides or to secrete pigments to the culture medium. Based on this screening, the genomes of two isolates of the order Hypocreales, *Marquandomyces marquandii* and *Albophoma yamanashiensis*, were sequenced and are described here for the first time.

The analysis of their CAZYme (carbohydrate-active enzyme) and secondary metabolite

gene-cluster repertoires suggest that these estuarine isolates could be used as a source of

novel enzymatic activities and secondary metabolites.

Introduction.

Fungi probably represent the largest and most diverse eukaryotic kingdom (1, 2), with an

estimated number of species ranging from 2 to 4 million. Fungi have adapted to very

diverse environments and niches (3), including high salt concentrations, nutrient

limitation, or environments where the main source of carbon and nitrogen is in form of

recalcitrant polymers. The first records of marine fungi have more than a century (4) and

the research interest on marine mycology has grown considerably in the last years.

However, the state-of-the-art in this field lags behind that of marine bacteria. As a

reference, the number of total marine fungal species listed in the Marine Fungi website

(https://www.marinefungi.org/; (5)) is 1,857, as of July 2022. In contrast, the bacterial

database BacDive (6) includes a subset of 7,916 strains with the tag "*aquatic*", 2,040

strains with the tag "*marine*" and 1,550 strains with the tag "*sediment*" (accessed in July

2023). These numbers would significantly increase if results from culture-independent

metabarcoding analyses were considered (7).

It is hypothesized that the number of marine fungal species and their diversity is far larger

than presently known. Marine fungal species already deposited in culture collections

account for approximately 10 % of the total number of fungal species present in marine

environments (4, 8). One of the biggest problems for the advance in this research field is

the difficulty for cultivating slow-growing marine fungi under laboratory conditions (9).

Overall, it can be concluded that the potential impact of fungi at environmental and

biotechnological levels is underestimated (4, 10).

Genome sequencing of some of the cultivable marine fungal strains has revealed

biotechnological potential in several fields, such as the identification of new

antimicrobials, compounds with antitumoral activity and other secondary metabolites, as

well as in bioremediation and wastewater treatment (see references within (11)). Fungal

marine strains capable of degrading polysaccharides of marine origin have also been

identified (11–13), which are interesting at the biotechnological level. On the one hand,

marine polysaccharides include linkages that are difficult to break and thus require

specific enzymatic activities. On the other hand, these polysaccharides and the

oligosaccharides generated after their partial degradation have shown

immunomodulatory, anti-inflammatory, virucidal or anti-cancer activities (14–18).

In this work, sediment samples collected in five estuaries of the Basque Country (Bay of

Biscay) were processed in an attempt to isolate filamentous fungi. Within our library of

isolates, mainly formed by Sordariomycetes and Eurotiomycetes fungi, we focused our

analysis on isolates M60 (*Marquandomyces marquandii*) and M98 (*Albophoma*

yamanshiensis), based on their phenotype on culture medium supplemented with

polysaccharides of marine origin or their ability to produce and secrete pigments. Genome

analysis of both isolates (to our knowledge, the first reported in the literature for these

species) included the analysis of their carbohydrate-active enzymes (CAZYmes) and

secondary metabolite gene-cluster repertoires. Our results could be used as a source of

novel enzymatic activities and secondary metabolites.

Results.

Sordariomycetes, Dothideomycetes and Eurotiomycetes dominate cultivable fungi

in coastal marine sediments of the Basque Country

A total of 273 isolates were obtained from coastal sediment samples (including 6 estuarine

stations and 1 coastal marine station; see the procedure in Materials and Methods), while

21 additional isolates were obtained from a *F. spiralis* sample (Figure 1A). Figure 1B

shows the phenotypic diversity of some of the isolates of our collection when they were

cultured on the culture medium used for their isolation. The phenotypes of 235 isolates

(80.0 % of the library) were characterized in four of the culture media used for isolation

(PDA, MEA, Pc and Lc; Figure S1). The aim was to identify isolates showing the same

or similar phenotypes. Our results suggest that multiple isolates correspond to the same

strains, or strains of the same species showing subtle phenotypic differences (colored

squares in Figure S1).

Genomic DNA of a number of isolates (50; 17.0 % of the library) was extracted. The ITS

(internal transcribed spacer) region and/or an internal region of the gene *rpb1* were

amplified by PCR from each DNA sample and sequenced (Figure 1C and 1D). Results

suggest that Sordariomycetes (genus *Marquandomyces*), Dothideomycetes (genus

Cladosporium) and Eurotiomycetes (genus *Penicillium*) were the most represented

classes and genera in the cultivable mycobiota of estuarine sediments of the Basque

Country.

Potential pigment producers.

After a preliminary characterization of the isolates, we initially directed our search

towards the identification of producers of pigments (see examples in Figure 2A). Among

pigment producers, isolate M60 (estuary of river Artibai, winter 2021) developed purple

colonies and stained MEA and mainly PDA media in yellow (Figure 2A-2B), indicating

the secretion of pigment(s). Sanger sequencing of the ITS region suggested that isolate

M60 was affiliated with *Marquandomyces marquandii*, with a nucleotide identity above

99.4 % when compared with the best hits GU566261.1 and OM647857.1) (19). To our

knowledge, there are no previous genomes deposited for this species and, thus, isolate

M60 was selected for genome sequencing.

Our microscopic analyses showed that M60 generated hyphal and developmental

structures similar to those described for *M. marquandii* (Figure 2B) (19, 20). In liquid

minimal medium and after 6 days of culture at 30 ºC and 180 rpm, we did not observe the

formation of fully developed conidiophores but formation of side-branches in hyphae,

each developing a single conidium (20). The formation of these simplified asexual

structures could be a consequence of carbon starvation, as occurs in the model fungus

Aspergillus nidulans (21, 22).

Phenotypic characterization of isolated fungi on culture medium supplemented with

algal polysaccharides.

Three types of fucoidan were used in the phenotypic screening, since the monosaccharide

content, linkage type, degree of sulfation and the position of sulfate groups vary

significantly among them (23–26). Initially, we found that most isolates were able to grow

with fucoidan from *L. japonica* (Figure S2), but this result may be biased due to the fact

that the purity of this polysaccharide is not detailed on the website of the supplier. In the

case of fucoidan from *F. vesiculosus* or *U. pinnatifida*, which guaranteed a purity above

95 %, differences were found in the growth patterns of the isolates. In general, *the radii*

of colonies were higher when fucoidan from *U. pinnatifida* was used compared to that of

F. vesiculosus (Figure S3), and in both cases, radial growth was significantly restricted

compared to the use of fucoidan from *L. japonica*.

Isolate M98, isolated from the estuary of Artibai river in winter 2021, showed a slightly

bigger radial growth in minimal medium supplemented with fucoidan of *F. vesiculosus*

than in the negative control, both when ammonium tartrate and sodium nitrate were used

as the nitrogen source (Figure 3A). The same phenotype was observed in isolate M127,

isolated from a sample of Oria river collected in summer 2021 (Figure 3A). M98 showed

a characteristic phenotype, producing pycnidia when cultured on PDA or MEA culture

media (Figure 3B) (27). These phenotypic traits had been previously described by

Kobayashi and colleagues for *A. yamanashiensis* (28). Thus, isolate M98 was initially

associated to this hypocrealean fungus. Sanger sequencing of the ITS region of isolate

M98 suggested that this isolate was affiliated with the genus *Tolypocladium* (nucleotide

identity above 99.8 % in all cases; accession number of the best hit: AB457003.1) or the

species *Albophoma yamanashiensis* (nucleotide identity above 99.6 % in all cases;

accession number of the best hit: OW983802.1). Sequencing of *rpb1* suggested that it

was affiliated with the genus *Tolypocladium* (nucleotide identity above 96.1 %; accession

number of the best hit: KF747240.1). Due to its characteristic phenotype, including the

capability of growing on medium supplemented with fucoidan, M98 was selected for

genome sequencing.

Genome sequencing and features of isolates M60 and M98.

The size of the assemblies of isolates M60 and M98 was 43.69 Mb and 31.29 Mb,

respectively (see general data in Table 1). The number of *contigs* longer than 1,500 bp

were 111 and 44 for the two isolates (98 and 41 *contigs*, respectively, longer than 3000

bp). The largest *contigs* of M60 and M98 assemblies were of 5,622,403 and 4,468,825

bp, respectively. Annotation of each assembly led to the prediction of 12,946 and 10,696

proteins for isolates M60 and M98, respectively (Table 1). Completeness estimates were

of 97.1 for both assemblies and single-copy BUSCO shares ranged between 96.1 and 96.3

%, indicating high completeness and low redundancy of processed genomic data based

on universal single-copy orthologs of Hypocreales (M60 and M98).

Average nucleotide identity (ANI) values were calculated among isolates and different

species of the order Hypocreales (Figure 4). The highest ANI value for isolate M98 was

obtained, as expected, with *A. yamanshiensis* (99 %) (Figure 4A). Both genomes were

phylogenetically related, appearing in the same clade (Figure 4B), next to the main clade

of the genus *Tolypocladium* (ANI values between 83 and 92 %).

Isolate M60 was also placed in a clade next to those of the genera *Metarhizium* and

Pochonia (Figure 4; ANI values of 80 %), which is in agreement with the results

described by (19). AAI (average amino acid sequence identity) analyses supported the

above-mentioned predictions (not shown).

CAZYme repertoires of *M. marquandii* M60 and *A. yamanashiensis* M98.

There is no public genome sequence of *M. marquandii* (isolate M60), and the genome of

A. yamanashiensis (99 % ANI with isolate M98) is publicly available (GenBank

GCA_001600555.1) but it has not been described in detail. Here, we carried out a

characterization of the predicted CAZYme (carbohydrate-active enzymes) and secondary

metabolite gene cluster repertoires of both isolates.

A total of 593 and 355 CAZYmes were predicted for M60 and M98, respectively, by at

least two of the tools used by dbCAN3 (Figure 5A; Tables S1 and S2). A total of 200

(33.7 %; M60) and 125 (35.2 %; M98) were predicted to include a signal peptide in their

sequence and would therefore represent the set of potentially secreted CAZYmes of those

isolates. In the case of isolate M60, 95 of the predicted CAZYmes were listed as AA

(auxiliary activity family protein), 27 as CBM (carbohydrate-binding module), 22 as CE

(carbohydrate esterase), 323 as GH (glycoside hydrolase), 118 as GT (glycosyl

transferase) and 8 as PL (polysaccharide lyase). For M98, dbCAN3 predicted a

significantly lower number of GHs, 167, together with 51 AAs, 10 CBMs, 13 CEs and

114 GTs (no PLs were predicted).

Focusing on the CAZYmes and sulfatases potentially involved in the degradation of

fucoidan, several relevant protein families were found, such as GH29 (2 and 1 in M60

and M98, respectively), GH95 (6 and 1), GH141 (1 and 0), GH36 (8 and 1) and GH28 (7

and 1). In addition, glycosyl hydrolase families potentially involved in the degradation of

ulvan, another sulfated algal polysaccharide, were identified, such as GH2 (16 and 4),

GH3 (17 and 8), GH39 (4 and 0), GH43 (9 and 0), GH78 (2 and 0), GH88 (4 and 0) and

GH105 (4 and 1). Predictions by dbCAN3 agreed with the prediction of the three-

dimensional fold of the corresponding families with ColabFold (see specific examples in

Figure 5B).

SulfAtlas predicted that the genomes of fungal isolates M60 and M98 included a few

sulfatases of families S1_4 (4 and 0, respectively), S1_6 (2 and 2), S1_8 (2 and 0), S1_11

(0 and 1) S1_12 (1 and 1), S2 (2 and 1) and S3 (3 and 2, in M60 and M98, respectively).

Overall, the repertoire of predicted fucoidan-degrading enzymes in the fungal isolates

characterized here is far more limited than the one described in the literature for fucoidan-

degrading marine bacteria (26) (see Discussion).

Secondary metabolite gene cluster analyses.

The fungal version of antiSMASH was used to assess the potential of isolates M60 and

M98 to produce secondary metabolites (29). Figure 6 summarizes the number of genes

coding for backbone enzymes found by antiSMASH in the genomes of *M. marquandii*

(M60) and *A. yamanashiensis* (M98) isolates (see also Figures S4-S5).

AntiSMASH predicted the presence of 77 secondary metabolite gene clusters in the

genome of isolate M60 (Figure 7). It includes 10 secondary metabolite gene clusters

(Figure 7) with similarity percentages higher than 70 % (similarity, in this case, refers to

the percentage of genes within the closest known cluster that have a significant BLAST

hit to genes within the predicted cluster) (Figure S4). A similarity percentage of 100 %

was assigned to clusters N2-C4 (ε-Poly-L-lysine, a non-ribosomal peptide), N3-C2

(choline; non-ribosomal peptide), N9-C1 (FR901512; polyketide), N12-C1 (metachelin;

non-ribosomal peptide), N15-C1 (1,3,5,8-tetrahydroxynaphthalene; polyketide), N16-C1

(dymethylcoprogen, non-ribosomal peptide) and M19-C1 (peramine; non-ribosomal

peptide).

In the case of the *A. yamanashiensis* isolate (M98), antiSMASH predicted the presence

of 53 secondary metabolite gene clusters (Figure S5), which suggests a more limited

potential for secondary metabolite production than in the case of isolate M60 (*M.*

marquandii). AntiSMASH identified 6 secondary metabolite gene clusters (Figure 8)

with similarity percentages higher than 70 % compared to those known to synthesize the

compounds as indicated in Figure S5. A similarity percentage of 100 % was assigned to

clusters N1-C8 (metachelins; non-ribosomal peptide), N2-C2 (terpendole E; a terpenic

acyl-CoA:cholesterol acyltransferase inhibitor known to be produced by *A.*

yamanashiensis) (30), N5-C1 (choline; non-ribosomal peptide) and N7-C3 (tolypyridone

C; polyketide + non-ribosomal peptide).

Discussion.

The application of the *dilution-to-extinction* method (9) in estuarine sediment samples

enabled the isolation of a large diversity of filamentous fungi showing a variety of growth

patterns. Our results by ITS sequencing suggest that cultivable fungi from the estuaries

of study are mainly represented by Eurotiomycetes and Sordariomycetes species. This

agrees with previous culture-based studies where marine fungi seemed to be dominated

by Eurotiomycetes (*e.g.*, *Aspergillus* and *Penicillium*), Sordariomycetes (*e.g.*, *Fusarium*,

Trichoderma, *Paecilomyces-Marquandomyces*) and Dothideomycetes (*e.g.*,

Cladosporium and *Ulocladium*) (see references within (5)). Nevertheless, the extreme

differences in growth rates among marine fungal species in culture (9) may be biasing the

real composition of fungi in the samples, as typically found for bacteria (*i.e.*, the great

plate-count anomaly; (31)). Additional efforts in isolation and culturing of slow-growing

fungi and the direct identification of fungal taxa by metabarcoding (see, for example, (32–

34)) will contribute to the identification of previously undescribed species, some of them

potentially harboring biotechnological potential.

The repertoire of secondary metabolism backbone enzymes in fungi is composed mainly

of PKS, NRPS, dimethylallyltransferases (DMATs), and terpene synthases (35), and the

number of biosynthetic gene clusters per genome varies dramatically across different

species (35, 36). Here, we have focused on the description of specific genomic features

of two species that were previously described phenotypically (19, 20, 28) but not at the

genomic level. Interestingly, in both cases, the strains characterized phenotypically were

originally isolated from terrestrial environments. On the one hand, *M. marquandii* has

been reported to grow on mushrooms and soil, and their distribution covered Brazil,

Netherlands, Russia, UK and USA (19). On the other hand, *A. yamanshiensis* was isolated

from a forest soil in Japan (28). The isolation of strains of both species in sediment

samples of Basque estuaries suggests that they are ubiquitously distributed and have

adapted also to marine and estuarine environments. While both isolates, M60 and M98,

correspond to species of the order of Hypocreales, the number of backbone enzyme-

coding genes and secondary metabolite gene clusters is clearly higher in isolate M60 than

in the genome of isolate M98, in correlation with the size of their genomes.

Isolate M60 was selected in this work for genome sequencing as the *M. marquandii*

genome (synonims *Metarhizium marquandii* and *Paecilomyces marquandii*) had not been

previously deposited and described. This strain was able to produce a yellow pigment,

which synthesis and secretion clearly depended on the composition of the culture medium

(Figure 2A), as previously shown (19). Using a *M. marquandii* strain isolated from a

marine sediment sample collected in Argentina, Cabrera *et al.* described that the yellow

pigment is a nitrogen-containing sorbicillinoid (sorbicillinoid urea) and proposed a

biosynthetic pathway (37, 38). In general, sorbicillinoids represent an important family

of hexaketide compounds produced by terrestrial and marine fungi, including species of

Marquandomyces/Paecilomyces, and have a variety of biological activities including

cytotoxic, antioxidant, antiviral and antimicrobial activity (39). Remarkably, we found

that isolates closely related to M60, such as M43-45, affiliated with *Marquandomyces*

marquandii, showed similar but not identical phenotypes. In the case of isolate M45, we

have not observed the production of the characteristic yellow metabolite secreted by M60

(19, 20). Comparative genomic analysis of these strains could contribute to the

identification of point substitutions or insertions/deletions causing an inhibition of the

synthesis of the mentioned yellow pigment.

We identified a biosynthetic gene cluster in the genome of M60 (N6-C5) which is

probably related to sorbicillin biosynthesis, as it shows high identity with the sorbicillin

gene cluster of *Penicillium chrysogenum* (Figure S4) (35). The sorbicillin biosynthesis

gene cluster described in *P. chrysogenum* includes two PKS-encoding genes, *sorA* and

sorB, and two transcription factor-coding genes, *sorR1* and *sorR2* (SorR1 acts as an

activator, while SorR2 controls the expression of *sorR1*) (40). Sorbicillin clusters have

been described in additional fungal species, such as *T. reesei* (41). Here, cluster N6-C5

included genes encoding the two PKSs (g7028 and g7029) and the two transcription

factors (g7023 and g7025) (Figure 7). RNA sequencing experiments comparing samples

cultured in PDA versus MEA media would confirm the upregulation of cluster N6-C5 in

PDA and would inform of up- or downregulation of the rest of secondary metabolism

gene clusters identified in the genome of isolate M60. Considering that, across fungi, the

vast majority of gene cluster families are species specific (35), transcriptomic analyses

will be important to determine the biosynthetic potential of isolate M60 and the rest of

isolates of our library.

In the case of M98, this isolate was selected for genome analysis because the genome of

A. yamanshiensis had not been described in detail and due to their apparent growth on

fucoidan. For the degradation of this marine polysaccharide, several glycosyl hydrolases

have been described belonging to families GH29 (α-L-fucosidase), GH95 (α-L-

fucosidase/α-L-galactosidase), GH141 (α-L-fucosidase/xylanase) and GH107 (endo-α-L-

fucanase) (Sichert et al., 2020). The same authors also described that families GH36 (α-

galactosidase, α-N-acetylgalactosaminidase, stachyose synthase, raffinose synthase),

GH116 (β-glucosidase, β-xylosidase, acid β-glucosidase/β-glucosylceramidase, β-N-

acetylglucosaminidase), and GH117 (β-D-galactofuranosidase, α-neoagaro-

oligosaccharide hydrolase) may be fucoidanases with a yet unknown function, and that

families GH28 (polygalacturonase) and GH155 (glucuronidase; family removed from the

CAZYme database; (42)) remove acetate, galacturonic acid and glucoronic acid, which

are present in specific types of fucoidan.

Regarding the analysis of sulfatases, subfamilies S1_15, S1_16, S1_17 and S1_25 have

been reported as necessary for fucoidan degradation or enriched in fucoidan-degrading

marine bacterial proteomes (26). On the other hand, glycosyl hydrolases and sulfatases

required for the degradation of ulvan, another algal polysaccharide composed of sulfated

rhamnose, glucuronic and iduronic acids, and xylose (43), belong to families GH2, GH3,

GH39, GH43, GH78, GH88, GH105, S1_7, S1_25 and PL28 (44). Our results show that

the predicted repertoire of fucoidan-degrading protein families in *A. yamanashiensis* is

more limited than in *M. marquandii*, and the set of sulfatases in these two fungal isolates

is completely different compared to fucoidan-degrading bacteria. Interestingly, M60

includes at least one member of families GH29, GH95 and GH141, and all the glycosyl

hydrolase families described to be involved in ulvan degradation. It must be considered,

however, that dissimilar modes of action have been described within the same subfamily

of glycosyl hydrolases (44). In this context, the ability of both isolates to degrade sulfated

algal polysaccharides should be analyzed in detail in the future.

Results by Sichert and colleagues support the idea that the complex structures of

fucoidans require a large number of enzymes for their degradation (26). It is yet to be

determined whether this subset of CAZYmes has expanded in bacteria as a result of

functional redundancy, specific functionality on the different types of linkages of

fucoidans, or both, but this seems not to be the trend in fungi. Alternatively, degradation

of recalcitrant marine polysaccharides such as fucoidan could follow completely different

mechanisms in bacteria and fungi, with different subsets of CAZYmes involved.

Transcriptomic analyses will be essential to confirm or discard this possibility.

Conclusions.

Cultivable filamentous fungal populations in sediments of the studied sites from Basque

estuaries consist of mainly Sordariomycete, Dothideomycetes and Eurotiomycete

species, including some species with biotechnological potential. The genomes of our

Marquandomyces marquandii and *Albophoma yamanashiensis* isolates encode

CAZYmes potentially involved in the degradation of sulfated polysaccharides and

include secondary metabolite gene clusters of potential interest, and these activities will

have to be confirmed and analyzed in detail in the future.

Materials and Methods.

Sample collection and Processing.

Seven stations along the Basque coast (Bay of Biscay) were selected for sampling (Figure

9) based on organic content and granulometry properties. One of these stations is located

offshore, at approximately 0.8 km from the coast, and the depth is 37 m (black square in

Figure 9). Samples were collected during winter and spring of 2021, in 50 mL

polypropylene tubes, which were stored at 4 ºC until processing. Additionally, samples

of the macroalgae *Fucus spiralis* were collected in Hondarribia (Basque Country) for the

isolation of their associated fungi.

For isolation of fungi from both sources, the *dilution-to-extinction* method was used (9)

based on the procedure developed by Velez and coworkers (45). Briefly, approximately

two centimeters of the upper layer of the sediment were removed using a sterile spatula.

Samples of 1.4-2.2 g were taken from the center of each tube (material that was not in

contact with the wall of the tube) and transferred to 15 mL polypropylene tubes. Sediment

samples were diluted serially (1/5 once and 1/10 twice) in artificial seawater (see below).

In the case of the *Fucus spiralis* samples, the macroalgae were washed with artificial sea

water and samples were collected from the surface and diluted serially in a similar

procedure. Aliquots of 50 µL per well were inoculated in 24-well plates previously filled

with the culture medium (see below) plus penicillin. One well per plate was inoculated

with artificial sea water as a control for potential contaminations. Plates were covered

with aluminum paper and cultured under aerobic conditions at atmospheric pressure and

25 ºC. Growth of microorganisms was checked regularly and samples of isolates

generating filaments were transferred to plates containing the same culture medium used

for isolation, until homogeneous phenotypes, and thus probably axenic cultures, were

obtained. Specific isolates showed an invasive behavior, colonizing adjacent wells in

multi-well plates. To minimize the risk of contamination, the latter isolates were

discarded from the analysis. Samples of all selected isolates were stored at -80 ºC in a

glycerol solution (18% in artificial sea water).

Preparation of culture media and solutions.

Artificial sea water solutions were prepared by diluting 90 g of sea salts purchased from

Sigma-Aldrich per liter of distilled water (3x stock; 9%) (12). Alternatively, a 4x stock,

sterilized by vacuum filtration (pore diameter: 0.45 µm), was prepared by adding 46.94 g

NaCl, 7.84 g Na_2SO_4, 21.28 g $MgCl_2.6H_2O$, 2.2 g $CaCl_2$, 0.384 g $NaHCO_3$, 1.328 g KCl,

0.192 g KBr, 0.052 g H_3BO_3, 0.048 g $SrCl_2$ and 0.006 g NaF per liter of distilled water

(46). Penicillin sodium salt was added to all culture media (0.018 mg/mL; 30 units/mL).

Six types of media were used for isolation of filamentous microbes from estuarine

sediments. In a first screen, the following culture media (1/5 dilution of the standard; 15

g of agar per liter) were used: 1) malt extract agar (MEA; Condalab; 2.69 g of the powder,

133 mL of the 3x sterile artificial sea water solution and distilled water to 400 mL); 2)

potato dextrose agar (PDA; Condalab; 3.12 g of the powder, 133 mL of the 3x sterile

artificial sea water solution and distilled water to 400 mL); 3) corn meal agar (CMA;

Condalab; 1.36 g of the powder, 133 mL of the 3x sterile artificial sea water solution and

distilled water to 400 mL); 4) Lc medium (2g Arabic gum, 2 g olive oil, 0.2 g yeast extract,

0.4 g peptone, 2.42 g PIPES (1,4-Piperazinediethanesulfonic acid), 133 mL of the 3x

sterile artificial sea water solution and distilled water to 400 mL; pH adjusted to 7.5 with

NaOH); and 5) Pc medium (3.6 g brain heart infusion, 9.2 g NaCl, 2.42 g PIPES, 133 mL

of the 3x sterile artificial sea water solution and distilled water to 400 mL; pH adjusted to

7.5 with NaOH) (45, 47, 48).

A minimal medium supplemented with different carbon and nitrogen sources was also

prepared by adding, per liter, 250 mL of the 4x stock of artificial sea salt solution and 10

mL of a salts plus trace elements solution (25 mL of a trace elements solution, 50 g

KH_2PO_4, 10 g $MgSO_4.7H_2O$, 5 g $CaCl_2.2H_2O$ per liter) (12). The trace elements solution

(40x) was prepared by adding, per liter, 20 g monohydrated citric acid, 20 g $ZnSO_4.7H_2O$,

2.84 g $FeSO_4.7H_2O$, 0.15 g $MnSO_4.H_2O$, 1.04 g $CuSO_4.5H_2O$, 0.2 g H_3BO_3, 0.15 g

$(NH_4)_6Mo_7O_{24}.4H_2O$ and 0.2 g biotin.

To ease the screening of isolates with biotechnological potential, we decided to use solid

minimal medium. First, agar concentration had to be decreased as low as possible because

it could be used by the isolates as a carbon source. Agar concentration was decreased

from 1.5 % (45) to 0.4-0.5 %, which was the minimum agar concentration allowing

solidification of the culture medium and clean point inoculation (Figure S6). Minimal

medium (0.5 % agar) without the addition of an extra carbon source was used as a

negative control, while the addition of glucose (2 g/L) was used as a positive control of

growth. The polysaccharides alginate (Sigma-Aldrich) or fucoidan (*Laminaria japonica*,

Carbosynth; *Fucus vesiculosus*, Sigma-Aldrich; or *Undaria pinnatifida*, Sigma-Aldrich)

were added at a concentration of 2 g/L (20 g/L stocks). The phenotypes in these culture

media were compared to those shown in minimal medium with the polysaccharide

laminarin (from *Thallus laminariae*; Carbosynth; also, at 2 g/L), which in general is more

easily degraded by microorganisms (11). Ammonium tartrate (positive balance of

protons; 9.2 g/100mL; 100x) or sodium nitrate (negative balance of protons; 4.25

g/100mL; 100x) were added as the main nitrogen sources, to compare any possible effect

of the proton balance in the growth of fungal isolates, and also a hypothetic use of tartrate

as a carbon source. Overall, we considered an isolate for further analysis when it showed

greater radial growth rate on minimal medium supplemented with the polysaccharide than

on minimal medium without an extra carbon source (negative control; only

bacteriological agar). This phenotype had to be observed both when ammonium tartrate

or sodium nitrate was used as the nitrogen source.

Microscopic analysis of fungal growth and development.

Isolates were inoculated in liquid minimal medium supplemented with glucose and

ammonium tartrate and cultured at 180 rpm and 30 ºC. Culture times varied depending

on the growth rate of each isolate. Samples of each culture were analyzed using a Nikon

Eclipse E100 microscope equipped with an Imaging Source DFK23UP031 camera.

Alternatively, a Nikon Eclipse Ci manual upright microscope was used, which included

40× and 100× (oil) Nikon CFI Plan Fluor lenses and a Teledyne Photometrics Moment

camera. ImageJ (https://imagej.nih.gov/ij/) (US. National Institutes of Health, Bethesda,

MA, USA) was used to process phase contrast images.

Extraction of genomic DNA, ITS amplification and Sanger sequencing.

Isolates were cultured in liquid minimal medium (28 ºC, 170 rpm) supplemented with

ammonium tartrate and glucose as nitrogen and carbon sources. Incubation times varied

depending on the growth rate of each isolate. Mycelia were filtered using Miracloth paper

and lyophilized. Samples were processed with a Next Advance Bullet Blender

homogenizer and genomic DNA fractions were extracted following the 1)

phenol:chloroform:isoamylalcohol (25:24:1; Panreac AppliChem) method or 2) the

guidelines of the NucleoSpin Plant II Mini kit (Macherey-Nagel). The integrity of the

samples was checked by agarose electrophoresis (0.8 %).

Using genomic DNA samples as template, ITS regions or a fragment of the gen *rpb1*,

which encodes the main subunit of the RNA polymerase II complex, were amplified using

oligonucleotide pairs ITS5 (GGAAGTAAAAGTCGTAACAAGG) and ITS4

(TCCTCCGCTTATTGATATGC), ITS4 and ITS1 (TCCGTAGGTGAACCTGCGG),

and/or Rpb1-Up (GAATGCCCAGGTCATTTCGG) and Rpb1-Dw

(CCAGCGATATCGTTGTCCATATA) (45, 49, 50). The Kapa Taq DNA polymerase

(Kapa Biosystems) was used for amplification (denaturation: 30 seconds at 95 ºC;

annealing: 30 seconds at 54 ºC; elongation: 60 seconds at 72 ºC; 25 cycles). Amplification

and specificity of the amplicons were checked by agarose electrophoresis (2 %).

Amplicons were purified using the Macherey-Nagel NucleoSpin gel and PCR clean-up

kit and Sanger sequenced at Secugen S.L. (Madrid, Spain).

Genome sequencing.

Genomes of isolates M60 and M98 were initially sequenced using the Illumina MiSeq

platform at the General Services of the University of the Basque Country (UPV/EHU),

and later re-sequenced at the CNAG (https://www.cnag.crg.eu/) by combining the

Illumina NovaSeq platform and nanopore (GridION) sequencing. Samples were quality-

checked at the UPV/EHU and CNAG facilities before sequencing. The two whole

genome shotgun projects were deposited in the GenBank database under accession

numbers JAUIRS000000000 for isolate M60 (BioProject PRJNA990752; BioSample

SAMN36274215), and JAUIRT000000000 for isolate M98 (BioProject PRJNA990765;

BioSample SAMN36274349).

Bioinformatic analyses.

The platform Galaxy (v22.05.1) was used to process genome-sequencing data (51). The

workflow   *Itsas_Genomak*   can   be   accessed   in   the   following   link:

https://usegalaxy.org/u/oilier/h/itsasgenomak. Spades (versions v3.13.1) was used to

assemble genomes from all Illumina and nanopore sequencing files (52). Augustus

(v3.4.0) (53) was used for gene annotation. BUSCO (Benchmarking Universal Single-

Copy Orthologs; v5.2.2) was used for the assessment of the completeness of genome

assemblies (54, 55). BLASTs and HMM analyses were carried out at NCBI (56) and

Sulfatlas websites (v2.3.1) (57). ANI (average nucleotide identity) and AAI (average

amino acid identity) for species proximity were carried out at enveomics (58) and with

AAI-profiler (59) (both websites were accessed in September 2022, and May 2023). The

genomes and proteomes used in ANI and AAI analyses were downloaded from the NCBI

database (Table S3). CAZYme analyses were carried out at the dbCAN website (accessed

in May 2022, and June 2023; (60, 61)). The dbCAN website uses three tools for

automated CAZYme annotation: HMMER for annotated CAZYme domain boundaries,

DIAMOND for fast blast hits in the CAZY database and HMMER for dbCAN-sub, a

database of carbohydrate active enzyme subfamilies for substrate annotation. Following

the recommendation of the website, we excluded from our analyses all the CAZYmes

predicted only by one of those three tools (431 and 305 in the case of M60 and M98,

respectively). AntiSMASH 6.0 and 7.0 were used for the identification of secondary

metabolite gene clusters (29, 62). ColabFold was used to predict the three-dimensional

structure of proteins (63).

Acknowledgements.

We want to thank all groups and members of the EMOTION consortium, funded by the

Basque Government (see Funding), for their support. The authors would like to thank the

General Research Services of the UPV/EHU (SGIker) and the CNAG-CRG for assistance

with genome sequencing projects.

Work at UPV/EHU and AZTI labs was funded by the Basque Government, projects KK-

2021/00034 and KK-2022/00107. UPV/EHU lab also thanks the University of the Basque

Country for grant GIU19/04 and the Basque Government for grants IT1662-22 and

PIBA_2020_1_0032_GVB0. The funders had no role in study design, data collection

and interpretation, or the decision to submit the work for publication.

O.E. and L.A.-S. conceived the project. A.O., Z.A., C.P.-C, R.L., A.L. and O.E.

performed the experiments. All authors analyzed the results. O.E. and A.O. wrote the first

version of the manuscript. All authors reviewed and improved the manuscript.

Conflict of interest.

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

References.

1. Spatafora JW, Aime MC, Grigoriev I V., Martin F, Stajich JE, Blackwell M. 2017. The fungal tree of life: from molecular systematics to genome-scale phylogenies. Microbiol Spectr 5.

2. Stajich JE. 2017. Fungal genomes and insights into the evolution of the kingdom. Microbiol Spectr 5.

3. Hawksworth DL, Lücking R. 2017. Fungal diversity revisited: 2.2 to 3.8 million species. Microbiol Spectr 5.

4. Amend A, Burgaud G, Cunliffe M, Edgcomb VP, Ettinger CL, Gutiérrez MH, Heitman J, Hom EFY, Ianiri G, Jones AC, Kagami M, Picard KT, Quandt CA, Raghukumar S, Riquelme M, Stajich J, Vargas-Muñiz J, Walker AK, Yarden O, Gladfelter AS. 2019. Fungi in the marine environment: open questions and unsolved problems. MBio 10:e01189-18.

5. Jones EBG, Pang K-L, Abdel-Wahab MA, Scholz B, Hyde KD, Boekhout T, Ebel R, Rateb ME, Henderson L, Sakayaroj J, Suetrong S, Dayarathne MC, Kumar V, Raghukumar S, Sridhar KR, Bahkali AHA, Gleason FH, Norphanphoun C. 2019. An online resource for marine fungi. Fungal Divers 96:347–433.

6. Reimer LC, Sardà Carbasse J, Koblitz J, Ebeling C, Podstawka A, Overmann J. 2022. BacDive in 2022: the knowledge base for standardized bacterial and archaeal data. Nucleic Acids Res 50:D741–D746.

7. Klemetsen T, Raknes IA, Fu J, Agafonov A, Balasundaram S V, Tartari G, Robertsen E, Willassen NP. 2018. The MAR databases: development and implementation of databases specific for marine metagenomics. Nucleic Acids Res 46:D692–D699.

8. Jones EBG, Suetrong S, Sakayaroj J, Bahkali AH, Abdel-Wahab MA, Boekhout T, Pang K-L. 2015. Classification of marine Ascomycota, Basidiomycota, Blastocladiomycota and Chytridiomycota. Fungal Divers 73:1–72.

9. Overy DP, Rämä T, Oosterhuis R, Walker AK, Pang K-L. 2019. The neglected marine fungi, *sensu stricto*, and their isolation for natural products' discovery. Mar Drugs https://doi.org/10.3390/md17010042.

10. Kramer A, Labes A. 2020. 16 Biotechnology of Marine Fungi: New Workhorses and Applications BT - Genetics and Biotechnology, p. 399–412. *In* Benz, JP, Schipper, K (eds.), . Springer International Publishing, Cham.

11. Balabanova L, Slepchenko L, Son O, Tekutyeva L. 2018. Biotechnology potential of marine fungi degrading plant and algae polymeric substrates. Front Microbiol 9:1527.

12. Wang Y, Barth D, Tamminen A, Wiebe MG. 2016. Growth of marine fungi on polymeric substrates. BMC Biotechnol 16:3.

13. Kumar A, Sørensen JL, Hansen FT, Arvas M, Syed MF, Hassan L, Benz JP,
Record E, Henrissat B, Pöggeler S, Kempken F. 2018. Genome sequencing and
analyses of two marine fungi from the North Sea unraveled a plethora of novel
biosynthetic gene clusters. Sci Rep 8:10187.

14. Kwon PS, Oh H, Kwon S-J, Jin W, Zhang F, Fraser K, Hong JJ, Linhardt RJ,
Dordick JS. 2020. Sulfated polysaccharides effectively inhibit SARS-CoV-2 in
vitro. Cell Discov 6:50.

15. Yim S-K, Kim K, Kim I, Chun S, Oh T, Kim J-U, Kim J, Jung W, Moon H, Ku
B, Jung K. 2021. Inhibition of SARS-CoV-2 virus entry by the crude
polysaccharides of seaweeds and Abalone Viscera *In Vitro*. Mar Drugs
https://doi.org/10.3390/md19040219.

16. Feng Y, Wassie T, Gan R, Wu X. 2022. Structural characteristics and
immunomodulatory effects of sulfated polysaccharides derived from marine
algae. Crit Rev Food Sci Nutr 1–17.

17. Yao W, Qiu H-M, Cheong K-L, Zhong S. 2022. Advances in anti-cancer effects
and underlying mechanisms of marine algae polysaccharides. Int J Biol
Macromol 221:472–485.

18. Wang M, Veeraperumal S, Zhong S, Cheong K-L. 2023. Fucoidan-derived
functional oligosaccharides: Recent developments, preparation, and potential
applications. Foods https://doi.org/10.3390/foods12040878.

19. Mongkolsamrit S, Khonsanit A, Thanakitpipattana D, Tasanathai K, Noisripoom
W, Lamlertthon S, Himaman W, Houbraken J, Samson RA, Luangsa-ard J. 2020.
Revisiting *Metarhizium* and the description of new species from Thailand. Stud
Mycol 95:171–251.

20. Samson RA. 1974. *Paecilomyces* and some allied Hyphomycetes. Stud Mycol
6:1–119.

21. Skromne I, Sanchez O, Aguirre J. 1995. Starvation stress modulates the
expression of the *Aspergillus nidulans brlA* regulatory gene. Microbiology
141:21–28.

22. Etxebeste O, Markina-Iãrrairaegui A, Garzia A, Herrero-García E, Ugalde U,
Espeso EA. 2009. Kapl, a non-essential member of the Pse1p/Imp5 karyopherin
family, controls colonial and asexual development in *Aspergillus nidulans*.
Microbiology 155:3934–3945.

23. Ale MT, Mikkelsen JD, Meyer AS. 2011. Important determinants for fucoidan
bioactivity: A critical review of structure-function relations and extraction
methods for fucose-containing sulfated polysaccharides from brown seaweeds.
Mar Drugs https://doi.org/10.3390/md9102106.

24. Zhao Y, Zheng Y, Wang J, Ma S, Yu Y, White WL, Yang S, Yang F, Lu J. 2018.
Fucoidan extracted from *Undaria pinnatifida*: Source for
nutraceuticals/functional foods. Mar Drugs https://doi.org/10.3390/md16090321.

25. Koh HSA, Lu J, Zhou W. 2019. Structure characterization and antioxidant
activity of fucoidan isolated from *Undaria pinnatifida* grown in New Zealand.
Carbohydr Polym 212:178–185.

26. Sichert A, Corzett CH, Schechter MS, Unfried F, Markert S, Becher D,
Fernandez-Guerra A, Liebeke M, Schweder T, Polz MF, Hehemann J-H. 2020.
Verrucomicrobia use hundreds of enzymes to digest the algal polysaccharide
fucoidan. Nat Microbiol 5:1026–1039.

27. Uchida R, Imasato R, Yamaguchi Y, Masuma R, Shiomi K, Tomoda H, Ōmura
S. 2005. New Sesquicillins, insecticidal antibiotics produced by *Albophoma sp.*
FKI-1778. J Antibiot (Tokyo) 58:397–404.

28. Kobayashi T, Masuma R, Omura S, Watanabe K. 1994. Materials for the fungus
flora of Japan (47). Mycoscience 35:399–401.

29. Blin K, Shaw S, Kloosterman AM, Charlop-Powers Z, van Wezel GP, Medema
MH, Weber T. 2021. antiSMASH 6.0: improving cluster detection and
comparison capabilities. Nucleic Acids Res 49:W29–W35.

30. Huang X, Tomoda H, Nishida H, Masuma R, Omura S. 1995. Terpendoles, novel
ACAT inhibitors produced by *Albophoma yamanashiensis*. I. Production,
isolation and biological properties. J Antibiot (Tokyo) 48:1–4.

31. Staley JT, Konopka A. 1985. Measurement of *in situ* activities of
nonphotosynthetic microorganisms in aquatic and terrestrial habitats. Annu Rev
Microbiol 39:321–346.

32. Banos S, Gysi DM, Richter-Heitmann T, Glöckner FO, Boersma M, Wiltshire
KH, Gerdts G, Wichels A, Reich M. 2020. Seasonal dynamics of pelagic
mycoplanktonic communities: Interplay of taxon abundance, temporal
occurrence, and biotic interactions. Front Microbiol 11:1305.

33. da Silva MK, de Souza LMD, Vieira R, Neto AA, Lopes FAC, de Oliveira FS,
Convey P, Carvalho-Silva M, Duarte AWF, Câmara PEAS, Rosa LH. 2022.
Fungal and fungal-like diversity in marine sediments from the maritime Antarctic
assessed using DNA metabarcoding. Sci Rep 12:21044.

34. Ogaki MB, Pinto OHB, Vieira R, Neto AA, Convey P, Carvalho-Silva M, Rosa
CA, Câmara PEAS, Rosa LH. 2021. Fungi present in Antarctic deep-sea
sediments assessed using DNA Metabarcoding. Microb Ecol 82:157–164.

35. Robey MT, Caesar LK, Drott MT, Keller NP, Kelleher NL. 2021. An interpreted
atlas of biosynthetic gene clusters from 1,000 fungal genomes. Proc Natl Acad
Sci 118:e2020230118.

36. Khaldi N, Seifuddin FT, Turner G, Haft D, Nierman WC, Wolfe KH, Fedorova
ND. 2010. SMURF: Genomic mapping of fungal secondary metabolite clusters.
Fungal Genet Biol 47:736–741.

37. Cabrera GM, Butler M, Rodriguez MA, Godeas A, Haddad R, Eberlin MN. 2006.
A Sorbicillinoid Urea from an intertidal *Paecilomyces marquandii*. J Nat Prod

69:1806–1808.

38.   Harned AM, Volp KA. 2011. The sorbicillinoid family of natural products:
609   Isolation, biosynthesis, and synthetic studies. Nat Prod Rep 28:1790–1810.

610   39.   Meng J, Wang X, Xu D, Fu X, Zhang X, Lai D, Zhou L, Zhang G. 2016.
611   Sorbicillinoids from fungi and their bioactivities. Molecules
612   https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules21060715.

613   40.   Guzmán-Chávez F, Salo O, Nygård Y, Lankhorst PP, Bovenberg RAL, Driessen
614   AJM. 2017. Mechanism and regulation of sorbicillin biosynthesis by *Penicillium*
615   *chrysogenum*. Microb Biotechnol 10:958–968.

616   41.   Derntl C, Guzmán-Chávez F, Mello-de-Sousa TM, Busse H-J, Driessen AJM,
617   Mach RL, Mach-Aigner AR. 2017. *In vivo* study of the sorbicillinoid gene cluster
618   in *Trichoderma reesei*. Front Microbiol 8.

619   42.   Cartmell A, Muñoz-Muñoz J, Briggs JA, Ndeh DA, Lowe EC, Baslé A, Terrapon
620   N, Stott K, Heunis T, Gray J, Yu L, Dupree P, Fernandes PZ, Shah S, Williams
621   SJ, Labourel A, Trost M, Henrissat B, Gilbert HJ. 2019. Author Correction: A
622   surface endogalactanase in *Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron* confers keystone status
623   for arabinogalactan degradation. Nat Microbiol 4:2021–2023.

624   43.   Kidgell JT, Magnusson M, de Nys R, Glasson CRK. 2019. Ulvan: A systematic
625   review of extraction, composition and function. Algal Res 39:101422.

626   44.   Reisky L, Préchoux A, Zühlke M-K, Bäumgen M, Robb CS, Gerlach N, Roret T,
627   Stanetty C, Larocque R, Michel G, Song T, Markert S, Unfried F, Mihovilovic
628   MD, Trautwein-Schult A, Becher D, Schweder T, Bornscheuer UT, Hehemann J-
629   H. 2019. A marine bacterial enzymatic cascade degrades the algal polysaccharide
630   ulvan. Nat Chem Biol 15:803–812.

631   45.   Velez P, Gasca-Pineda J, Riquelme M. 2020. Cultivable fungi from deep-sea oil
632   reserves in the Gulf of Mexico: Genetic signatures in response to hydrocarbons.
633   Mar Environ Res 153:104816.

634   46.   Wiegand S, Jogler M, Boedeker C, Pinto D, Vollmers J, Rivas-Marín E, Kohn T,
635   Peeters SH, Heuer A, Rast P, Oberbeckmann S, Bunk B, Jeske O, Meyerdierks
636   A, Storesund JE, Kallscheuer N, Lücker S, Lage OM, Pohl T, Merkel BJ,
637   Hornburger P, Müller R-W, Brümmer F, Labrenz M, Spormann AM, Op den
638   Camp HJM, Overmann J, Amann R, Jetten MSM, Mascher T, Medema MH,
639   Devos DP, Kaster A-K, Øvreås L, Rohde M, Galperin MY, Jogler C. 2020.
640   Cultivation and functional characterization of 79 planctomycetes uncovers their
641   unique biology. Nat Microbiol 5:126–140.

642   47.   Burgaud G, Le Calvez T, Arzur D, Vandenkoornhuyse P, Barbier G. 2009.
643   Diversity of culturable marine filamentous fungi from deep-sea hydrothermal
644   vents. Environ Microbiol 11:1588–1600.

645   48.   Thomas LC, Gaëtan B, Stéphane M, Georges B, Philippe V. 2009. Fungal
646   diversity in deep-sea hydrothermal ecosystems. Appl Environ Microbiol
647   75:6415–6421.

648   49.   White TJ. 1990. Amplification and direct sequencing of fungal ribosomal RNA
649   genes for phylogenetics, p. 315–322. *In* Innis, MA, Gelfand, DH, Sninsky, JJ,
650   White, TJ (eds.), PCR Protocols: A Guide to Methods and Applications.
651   Academic Press.

652   50.   Toju H, Tanabe AS, Yamamoto S, Sato H. 2012. High-coverage ITS primers for
653   the DNA-based identification of Ascomycetes and Basidiomycetes in
654   environmental samples. PLoS One 7:e40863.

655   51.   Afgan E, Baker D, Batut B, van den Beek M, Bouvier D, Čech M, Chilton J,
656   Clements D, Coraor N, Grüning BA, Guerler A, Hillman-Jackson J, Hiltemann S,
657   Jalili V, Rasche H, Soranzo N, Goecks J, Taylor J, Nekrutenko A, Blankenberg
658   D. 2018. The Galaxy platform for accessible, reproducible and collaborative
659   biomedical analyses: 2018 update. Nucleic Acids Res 46:W537–W544.

660   52.   Bankevich A, Nurk S, Antipov D, Gurevich AA, Dvorkin M, Kulikov AS, Lesin
661   VM, Nikolenko SI, Pham S, Prjibelski AD, Pyshkin A V, Sirotkin A V, Vyahhi
662   N, Tesler G, Alekseyev MA, Pevzner PA. 2012. SPAdes: A new genome
663   assembly algorithm and its applications to single-cell sequencing. J Comput Biol
664   19:455–477.

665   53.   Stanke M, Keller O, Gunduz I, Hayes A, Waack S, Morgenstern B. 2006.
666   AUGUSTUS: ab initio prediction of alternative transcripts. Nucleic Acids Res
667   34:W435–W439.

668   54.   Simão FA, Waterhouse RM, Ioannidis P, Kriventseva E V, Zdobnov EM. 2015.
669   BUSCO: assessing genome assembly and annotation completeness with single-
670   copy orthologs. Bioinformatics 31:3210–3212.

671   55.   Manni M, Berkeley MR, Seppey M, Zdobnov EM. 2021. BUSCO: Assessing
672   genomic data quality and beyond. Curr Protoc 1:e323.

673   56.   Johnson M, Zaretskaya I, Raytselis Y, Merezhuk Y, McGinnis S, Madden TL.
674   2008. NCBI BLAST: a better web interface. Nucleic Acids Res 36:W5–W9.

675   57.   Barbeyron T, Brillet-Guéguen L, Carré W, Carrière C, Caron C, Czjzek M,
676   Hoebeke M, Michel G. 2016. Matching the diversity of sulfated biomolecules:
677   Creation of a classification database for sulfatases reflecting their substrate
678   specificity. PLoS One 11:e0164846.

679   58.   Rodriguez-R LM, Konstantinidis KT. 2016. The enveomics collection: a toolbox
680   for specialized analyses of microbial genomes and metagenomes. PeerJ Prepr
681   4:e1900v1.

682   59.   Medlar AJ, Törönen P, Holm L. 2018. AAI-profiler: fast proteome-wide
683   exploratory analysis reveals taxonomic identity, misclassification and
684   contamination. Nucleic Acids Res 46:W479–W485.

685   60.   Zhang H, Yohe T, Huang L, Entwistle S, Wu P, Yang Z, Busk PK, Xu Y, Yin Y.
686   2018. dbCAN2: a meta server for automated carbohydrate-active enzyme
687   annotation. Nucleic Acids Res 46:W95–W101.

61.   Zheng J, Ge Q, Yan Y, Zhang X, Huang L, Yin Y. 2023. dbCAN3: automated
carbohydrate-active enzyme and substrate annotation. Nucleic Acids Res
51:W115–W121.

62.   Blin K, Shaw S, Augustijn HE, Reitz ZL, Biermann F, Alanjary M, Fetter A,
Terlouw BR, Metcalf WW, Helfrich EJN, van Wezel GP, Medema MH, Weber
T. 2023. antiSMASH 7.0: new and improved predictions for detection,
regulation, chemical structures and visualisation. Nucleic Acids Res gkad344.

63.   Mirdita M, Schütze K, Moriwaki Y, Heo L, Ovchinnikov S, Steinegger M. 2022.
ColabFold - Making protein folding accessible to all. Nat Methods 19:679–682.

Figures.

Figure 1: Phenotypic characterization of the library of filamentous microbes isolated from sediments collected along the Basque coast. A) Number of isolates obtained from each sample. See Figure 9 and Materials and Methods. B) Phenotypes of a random subset of isolates of our collection on the same culture medium (PDA, MEA, CMA, Pc or Lc) used for their isolation (see also Figure S1). The diameter of plates is 5.5 cm. (C) Classes and (D) genera represented in the subset of isolates whose ITS and/or *rpb1* regions were amplified (PCR) and Sanger-sequenced.

Figure 2: Some of the isolates staining the culture medium due to the secretion of pigments. A) Lateral view of the culture plates (left) and phenotypes of some of the isolates in MEA culture medium (right). B) Phenotype of isolate M60 in MEA (i, ii) and PDA (iii, iv) media. The diameter of plates is 5.5 cm. Developmental structures are shown in pictures v and vi. Microscopy images show germlings (vii), mature hyphae (viii), and condia formation (ix).

Figure 3: Phenotypic characterization of isolate M98. A) Phenotype of isolates M98 and M127 on minimal medium supplemented with laminarin, or fucoidan from *Fucus vesiculosus* or *Undaria pinnatifida*. Ammonium tartrate and sodium nitrate were tested as the main nitrogen source. glc: glucose; algin: alginate; lam: laminarin; fucoi: fucoidan. B) Phenotype of M98 in MEA medium (i) (5.5 cm plates), with the formation of pycnidia (ii and iii). Microscopy images show germlings (iv and v).

Figure 4: ANI analyses for isolates M60 and M98. The genomes of isolates M60 and M98 were compared to those of multiple Hypocreales species. A) ANI Matrix, and B) phylogenetic tree (BIONJ clustering method; unrooted), both generated at enveomics (http://enve-omics.ce.gatech.edu/g-matrix/index).

Figure 5: A) Predicted CAZYme repertoires of isolates M60 and M98. The graph was generated using the results given by the dbCAN website (Tables S1-S2). Three-dimensional structure prediction by ColabFold for selected glycosyl hydrolases. GH29 domains from isolates B) M60 (*M. marquandii*) and C) M98 (*A. yamanashiensis*) are shown. D) A predicted GH141 from isolate M60.

Figure 6: Number of backbone genes of secondary metabolite gene clusters predicted by antiSMASH in the genomes of M60 (A; see Figure S4) and M98 (B; see Figure S5).

Figure 7: Secondary metabolite gene clusters in the genome of isolate M60, as predicted by antiSMASH.

Figure 8: Secondary metabolite gene clusters in the genome of isolate M98, as predicted by antiSMASH.

Figure 9: Geographic location of the seven sampling points along the Basque coast selected in this work. Circles indicate estuaries while the square indicates a coastal area. EOK: river Oka; EA: river Artibai; EU: river Urola; EO: river Oria; LUR: river Urumea; EOI: river Oiartzun.

Tables.

Table 1: General data for genome sequencing analyses of isolates M60 and M98. C: Complete BUSCOs; S: Complete and single-copy BUSCOs; D: Complete and duplicated BUSCOs; F: Fragmented BUSCOs; M: Missing BUSCOs; n: Total number of BUSCOs for Hypocreales.

Isolate	Assembly (Spades)			Annotation	BUSCO (%)					
	Size (Mb)	Contigs (> 1500 bp)	Contigs (all)	Augustus	C	S	D	F	M	n
M60	43.69	111	461	12,946	97.1	96.1	1.0	0.5	2.4	4494
M98	31.29	44	139	10,696	97.1	96.3	0.8	0.4	2.5	4494

N50 (bp)	N90 (bp)	L50	L90	Largest contig (bp)
2,521,732	242,334	6	25	5,622,403
3,368,458	381,668	4	18	4,468,825

Supplementary Figures.

Figure S1: Phenotypes of a subset of 235 isolates of our library in PDA, MEA, Pc and Lc culture media, all supplemented with penicillin, grown at 25 ºC in the dark. Squares highlight isolates probably corresponding to the same strain (*e.g.*, isolates 106, 107 and 108) or different strains of the same species (*e.g.*, isolates 43, 44, 45 and 60).

Figure S2: Phenotype of selected isolates on plates filled with minimal medium supplemented with glucose, laminarin, alginate or fucoidan from *Laminaria japonica*, or without supplementation of any of these carbohydrate sources (negative control).

Figure S3: Phenotype of selected isolates on plates filled with minimal medium supplemented with 2 g/L of glucose or fucoidan from *Fucus vesiculosus* or *Undaria pinnatifida*, or without supplementation of any of these carbohydrate sources (negative control).

Figure S4: Table showing the results obtained in the analysis of the potential secondary metabolite gene clusters predicted in the genome of isolate M60 (*Marquandomyces marquandii*) by antiSMASH. The table includes the node the potential cluster is located in, the backbone enzyme(s) of each cluster, coordinates, the most similar known cluster, the type of metabolite predictably synthesized and the similarity with the reference cluster.

Figure S5: Table showing the results obtained in the analysis of the potential secondary metabolite gene clusters predicted in the genome of isolate M98 (*Albophoma yamanashiensis*) by antiSMASH.

Figure S6: Phenotype of a subset of isolates of our library in minimal medium with decreasing concentrations of bacteriological agar, without (left column) and with (right column) glucose (2 %). Considering the phenotype of the strains and solidification of the agar, a 0.5 % concentration was selected for the subsequent phenotypic characterization of the isolates.

Supplementary Tables.

Table S1: Predicted CAZYme repertoire for isolate M60. The analysis was carried out at
the dbCAN website (Zhang *et al.*, 2018), and the table includes the CAZYme family each
protein is linked to, the enzyme commission (EC) number, the tools that predicted this
association as well as the hypothetic presence of a signal peptide in each predicted
CAZYme.

Table S2: Predicted CAZYme repertoire for isolate M98.

Table S3: Genomes used as reference in ANI analyses. GenBank and BioSample
accession numbers are included.

A Number of isolates

- EA10
- EO10
- EOI15
- *F. spiralis* samples
- EU8
- EOK5-20
- LUR20

C Classes

- Dothideomycetes
- Leotiomycetes
- Eurotiomycetes
- Sordariomycetes

D Genera

- *Acremonium*
- *Chrysosporium*
- *Marquandomyces*
- *Oidiodendron*
- *Talaromyces*
- *Fusarium*
- *Pithoascus*
- *Albophoma*
- *Cladosporium*
- *Metarhizium*
- *Penicillium*
- *Tolypocladium*
- *Gliomastix*
- *Pseudohumicola*
- *Cephalotricum*
- *Halokirschsteiniothelia*
- *Myriodontium*
- *Scedosporium*
- *Trematosphaeria*
- *Stagonospora*
- *Emericellopsis*
- *Monodictys*
- *Pseudoscopulariopsis*
- *Acrostalagmus*
- *Verrucocladosporium*
- *Aspergillus*

B

A

MEA	MMM + Glc	MMM

M127

MEA	MMM + Glc	MMM

ammonium tartrate

sodium nitrate

MMM + lam	MMM + fucoi. *F. vesicul.*	MMM + fucoi. *U. pinnat.*

M98

MMM + lam	MMM + fucoi. *F. vesicul.*	MMM + fucoi. *U. pinnat.*

M127

B

MEA

MMM (I)

A

B