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Fungi in PAH-contaminated marine sediments: cultivable diversity and tolerance
 capacity towards PAH

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17 Abstract

The cultivable fungal diversity from PAH-contaminated sediments was examined for the tolerance 18 19 to polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon (PAH). The 85 fungal strains, isolated in non-selective media, 20 revealed a large diversity by ribosomal internal transcribed spacer (ITS) sequencing, even including 21 possible new species. Most strains (64%) exhibited PAH-tolerance, indicating that sediments retain 22 diverse cultivable PAH-tolerant fungi. The PAH-tolerance was linked neither to a specific taxon nor 23 to the peroxidase genes (LiP, MnP and Lac). Examining the PAH-removal (degradation and/or 24 sorption), Alternaria destruens F10.81 showed the best capacity with above 80% removal for 25 phenanthrene, pyrene and fluoranthene, and around 65% for benzo[a]pyrene. A. destruens F10.81 26 internalized pyrene homogenously into the hyphae that contrasted with Fusarium pseudoygamai 27 F5.76 in which PAH-vacuoles were observed but PAH removal was below 20%. Thus, our study 28 paves the way for the exploitation of fungi in remediation strategies to mitigate the effect of PAH 29 in coastal marine sediments. 30 31 32 33 Keywords: peroxidase genes, fungal ITS, PAH-uptake, Alternaria, PAH-contamination 34

36 Introduction

Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) are important pollutants threatening the marine environment due to their toxicity (Duran and Cravo-Laureau, 2016). Although the more spectacular input of PAHs in marine environments is due to accidental oil spills, the main source remains on natural oil seeps (Duran and Cravo-Laureau, 2016). PAHs accumulate in sediments because of their hydrophobicity constituting a chronic contamination (Rothermich et al., 2002). Their fate in the environment depends on biotic and abiotic factors (Duran and Cravo-Laureau, 2016).

44 Many microorganisms including archaea, bacteria, algae and fungi are able to degrade PAHs 45 (Duran and Cravo-Laureau, 2016; Bordenave et al., 2008; Germouche M'rassi et al., 2015; Haritash 46 and Kaushik, 2009). In the last years, the interest on PAHs removal and biodegradation by fungi 47 has increased (Mineki et al., 2015; Morales et al., 2017). The fungal removal of PAHs consists in 48 three main processes: two oxidation processes involving extracellular peroxidases (lignin 49 peroxidase, manganese peroxidase and laccase; Chen et al., 2001; Scheel et al., 2000), and membrane attached monooxygenases (cytochrome P450; Črešnar and Petrič, 2011; Syed et al., 50 51 2010), and absorption and storage of PAHs in lipid vacuoles (Verdin et al., 2005). The ability of 52 fungi to use PAHs as sole carbon and energy sources has been described (Rafin et al., 2000). 53 However, it has been reported that most of fungi require co-metabolism with another carbon 54 source for PAH degradation (Cerniglia et al., 1986).

55 Fungi have been found in all marine habitats (Orsi et al., 2013), revealing their high diversity 56 (Jones, 2000). Ascomycota and Basidiomycota are the main fungal phyla found in marine 57 environments as described for soil ecosystems (Clemente et al., 2001; Field et al., 1992; Godoy et 58 al., 2016; Li et al., 2008; Mineki et al., 2015; Potin et al., 2004; Valentín et al., 2006). Although 59 fungi of terrestrial origin have been isolated from marine ecosystems (Li and Wang, 2009), recent 60 molecular analysis revealed specific fungal sequences suggesting the existence of novel species of 61 marine fungi (Amend et al., 2019; Grossart and Rojas-Jimenez, 2016). Fungi isolated from marine 62 habitats exhibit similar morphological characteristics to their terrestrial counterparts (Méjanelle et 63 al., 2000). However, they might possess particular properties to survive in marine environments 64 (Amend et al., 2019), particularly in PAHs contaminated sediments (Greco et al., 2018). Such 65 properties, as salinity tolerance and the capacity to degrade and accumulate PAHs, less bioavailable due to adsorption solid materials, remain to be explored (Bonugli-Santos et al., 2015; 66 67 Bugni and Ireland, 2004; Trincone, 2010).

This study aimed to explore the cultivable marine fungi, recovered from oil-contaminated saline sediments, for their PAH-tolerance capacity. For this purpose fungal strains were isolated from various marine coastal environments, characterized and identified by ITS sequence analysis, and their features explaining the PAH tolerance examined.

72

73 Material and Methods

74 Culture media

75 The culture media used in this study were based on the seawater minimal medium (swMM; Brito 76 et al., 2006), which composition was as follow: KCl 0.75 g/L, CaCl·2H₂O 1.47 g/L, NH₄Cl 1.5 g/L, 77 MgSO₄·7H₂O 6.64 g/L, NaCl 20 g/L, Na₂CO₃ 0.265 g/L, 1 mL of trace elements solution (H₃BO₃ 300 mg/L, FeSO₄·7H₂O 1.1 g/L, CoCl₂·6H₂O 190 mg/L, MnCl₂·2H₂O 50 mg/L, ZnCl₂ 42 mg/L, NiCl₂·6H₂O 78 79 24 mg/L, Na₂MoO₄·2H₂O 2mg/L), 1mL of vitamin solution (biotine 2 mg/L, ρ-aminobenzoate 10 80 mg/L, thiamine 10 mg/L, pantothenate 5 mg/L, pyridoxamine 50 mg/L, vitamin B_{12} 20 mg/L, 81 nicotinate 20 mg/L), and 100 µL of phosphate buffer 50 mM. The pH was adjusted with HCl to 6.5. 82 Chemicals were purchased from Sigma Aldrich (Germany).

The malt dextrose agar (MDA) and malt dextrose (MD) media, in which distillated water was exchanged by swMM (MDAsw and MDsw respectively) to keep salinity conditions, were used for the isolation and for maintaining fungal strains.

86 Selection and conservation of fungal strains

Oil polluted sediment collected from different coastal areas were used as inoculum for the
isolation of fungal strains with the ability to degrade PAHs. Each sample was inoculated directly in
MDAsw and incubated for 5 days. Also, dilutions at 10⁻¹, 10⁻² and 10⁻³ were performed taking 100
mg of each source.

The isolated fungal strains were conserved as conidia and mycelia in glycerol at -70°C. Fungi were inoculated in MDsw grown until conidia overwhelmed cultures. Mycelia and conidia were recovered from the flask and then dispatched in at least 3 Eppendorf tubes (100 mg of biomass each) for each strain. After addition of 1 mL glycerol (30% solution), the tubes were frozen and kept at -70 °C until use. In order to check viability one tube with mycelia was tested after 7 days of storage by inoculating MDsw culture.

97 Fungi identification sequencing and phylogenetic analysis

98 Fungi were harvested from MDAsw cultures from 10 days of incubation and DNA was extracted 99 using the QUIAGEN DNeasy® UltraClean® Microbial Kit (Cat. No. 12224-40) following the 100 manufacturer instructions. The identification was based on ITS sequences, which were amplified 101 using the primers ITS1F (CTTGGTCATTTAGAGGAAGTAA) and ITS4 (TCCTCCGCTTATTGATATGC) that 102 amplify the ITS1, 5.8S and ITS2 region of the rRNA genes operon. The amplified region allows the 103 identification at the species level and even at the subspecies level (Fajarningsih, 2016). The PCR 104 reaction mix was prepared with 1 μ L of extracted DNA in 9.5 μ L of DEPC-treated water, 1 μ L of 105 each primer (20 μM), 12.5 μL AmpliTaq Gold 360 Master Mix 2X (Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA). 106 The amplification was performed through 35 cycles of 95 °C (30 s), 55 °C (30 s) and 72 °C (1 min), 107 with a previous activation start of 95 °C (10 min) and final extension step at 72 °C (10 min). ITS 108 amplified fragments were sequenced at the Eurofins platform (France).

109 Sequence data were edited using Chromas Pro version 1.34. For identification, fungal ITS rRNA 110 sequences were compared with NCBI (National Centre for Biotechnology Information; 111 http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov) database as previously described (Giloteaux et al., 2010). Fungal ITS 112 sequences in this study and reference sequences from GenBank were edited and aligned using 113 CLUSTAL-W (Thompson et al., 2003) as described (Bruneel et al., 2008). The aligned sequences 114 were imported into MEGA 3.1 (Kumar, 2004) for creating Neighbour-joining (NJ) trees based on 115 pairwise genetic distances. The quality of the branching patterns for NJ was assessed by bootstrap 116 resampling of the data sets with 1,000 replications and rooted to *Rhizopus oryzae* CBS 112.07^T (NR 103595.1) and *Trametes versicolor* CFMR FP-135156-Sp^T (NR 154494.1). The sequences 117 118 determined in this study have been submitted to the ITS NCBI database and assigned Accession 119 nos. MT889820 to MT889904.

120 Fungal tolerance to PAHs

The tolerance to hydrocarbons was tested by inoculating and cultivating the fungi in swMM supplemented with 25 mg/L of each fluoranthene, phenanthrene, pyrene and 5 mg/L of benzo[*a*]pyrene as only carbon source. The analytical grade PAHs (Aldrich Chemical Co) were added to the media as solution in acetone. Fungal strains were inoculated in the plates and incubated at 20 °C in darkness during 15 days in order to maintain culture condition closer to that observed in the environment. The capacity of fungi to grow and develop conidia was considered as tolerance while in absence of development the strain was classified as no-tolerant.

128 Fungal PAHs removal rates

129 Between 80-100 mg of mycelia and conidia were recovered of MDAsw plates and inoculated in 80 130 mL flasks with 30 mL of MDsw (1% MD). Fluoranthene, phenanthrene, pyrene and benzo[*a*]pyrene were then added from a stock solution prepared in acetone that contain 20 mg/L of each 131 132 hydrocarbon. Samples were set for 1 hour before incubation to let acetone evaporate. An un-133 inoculated flask was used as abiotic control and PAHs concentration reference. Cultures were 134 incubated in darkness for 20 days at 20 °C with gentle shaking at 80 rpm, in order to maintain 135 culture condition closer to that observed in the environment. Hydrocarbons were extracted after 136 incubation adding 30 mL of ethyl acetate and shacked for 15 min at 600 rpm. The recovery yield 137 was estimated to be about 98% of the initial concentration using the abiotic controls as reference. 138 Chrysene was used as internal standard during extraction in a concentration of 10 mg/L. Two 139 milliliters of organic phase was pulled in a glass vial for its analysis in Gas Chromatography 140 equipped with Flame Ionization Detector (GC-FID) (Agilent Technologies®, Network 6850 GC 141 System) with a capillarity C18 reverse column (30 m*0.25 mm*0.25 µm). For the analysis, 1 µL was 142 injected with a split ration of 1/50 using helium as carrier gas. Column temperature ramp settle from 200 to 240 °C with stepped temperature increase of 5 °C/min and held during 1 min at 240°C. 143 Flame ionization detector was settled at 290 °C. 144

145 The removal capacities (degradation and/or sorption) for selected strains (Alternaria destruens 146 F10.81 and Fusarium pseudonygamai F5.76 strains exhibiting the highest and the lowest removal 147 capacities, respectively) was determined in triplicate with an incubation period of 15 days at with 148 gentle shaking at 80 rpm in order to maintain culture condition closer to that observed in the 149 environment. PAHs extraction was performed as above described. Phanerochaete chrysosporium 150 strain was used as reference for PAH-removal capacity, which often serves as reference for the comparison of PAH-removal capacities even between strains from different phyla, as it is the fungi 151 152 the most studied in PAH-degradation (Cao et al., 2020). A one-way of analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to assess the significance of PAH-removal differences between samples with a 153 154 significance level of p < 0.05.

155 PCR detection of peroxidase and laccase genes

The presence of genes encoding for enzymes known to be related to PAHs degradation: laccase (lac), manganese peroxidase (MnP1, MnP2, MnP3) and lignin peroxidase (LiP1, LiP2, LiP3, LiP4, LiP5, LiP6) was checked by PCR amplification. *Phanerochaete chrysosporium*, an effective PAH

degrader (Bamforth and Singleton, 2005; May et al., 1997), was used as positive control for the 159 160 presence of the peroxidase genes. The sequences of the primers and the Tm for the amplification 161 of the different genes are presented in Table 1. The reaction mix was prepared with 1 μ L of 162 extracted DNA in 9.5 μ L of DEPC-treated water, 1 μ L of each primer (20 μ M), 12.5 μ L AmpliTag 163 Gold 360 Master Mix 2X (Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA). The amplification was performed through 164 35 cycles of 95 °C (30 s), Tm (Table1, 45 s) and 72 °C (45 s), with a previous activation start of 95 °C 165 (10 min) and final extension step at 72 °C (10 min). Peroxidase genes amplified fragments were 166 sequenced at the Eurofins platform (France).

167 **PAHs internalization and transport**

168 The capacity to internalize and transport PAHs through hyphae was examined for selected strains 169 (F. pseudonygamai F5.76 and A. destruens F10.81). The experimental setup consisted on an empty 170 petri dish with two MDAsw cubes over a crystal slide with a separation of 6 mm between them. 171 One of the cubes contained pyrene at 30 mg/L while the other no. The fungi were inoculated in 172 the cube with pyrene and incubated for 7 days in darkness at 20°C. The transport of PAHs was 173 evaluated inside the mycelia that reach the cube without pyrene using an epifluorescence 174 microscope (Nikon, Eclipse E600) with DAPI light filter (excitation 345 nm, emission 485 nm) for 175 PAH detection (fluorescence wavelengths range from 210-380 nm) (Verdin et al., 2005).

176

177 Results and discussion

178 Identification of fungal strains Isolated from coastal sediments

179 In total, 85 fungal strains were isolated from PAHs contaminated coastal sediments in seawater 180 media containing malt dextrose agar (swMDA). The strains were identified with the complete ITS 181 sequence (including ITS1, 5.8S rRNA gene, and ITS2 regions), which provide accurate identification 182 of fungi species even at the subspecies level (Fajarningsih, 2016). The phylogenetic analysis 183 showed that 83 strains belong to the Ascomycota Phylum and two strains belong to the 184 Basidiomycota Phylum (Fig. 1 and 2). Such result was not surprising since fungi belonging to 185 Ascomycota have been found prevalent in marine sediments (Babu et al., 2010; Birolli et al., 2018; 186 Ravelet et al., 2000) and other environments (Reyes-César et al., 2014). The 85 fungal strains fall 187 into six different Orders: Capnodiales (59 strains), Eurotiales (14 strains), Trichosphaeriales (1

strain), Hypocreales (2 strains), Pleosporales (7 strains) and Polyporales that belong toBasidiomicota Phylum (2 strains).

190 The isolated strains affiliated to Eurotiales included strains belonging to Talaromyces (T. helicus), 191 Aspergillus (A. fumigatus and A. chevalieri), and Penicillium (P. glandicola, P. crustosum, and P. 192 bialowiezense) genera (Fig. 1). Talaromyces and Aspergillus genera are known for their ability of 193 PAH degradation in soil (Fayeulle et al., 2019), while Aspergillus genera, especially A. fumigatus, 194 has been detected in oil-contaminated mangrove sediments (Ghizelini et al., 2019). The isolated 195 strains related to the Nigrospora genus (Trichosphaeriales), N. rubi and N. gorlenkoana, are 196 described for the first time in marine sediments. The presence of these strains in the sediments 197 might be explained by plant material entering into the sea by air transportation or runoff, as they 198 are known to be associated with plants (Hao et al., 2020). Similarly, the strains affiliated to the 199 Hypocreales, Fusarium pseudonygamai (plant pathogen), Lecanicillium longisporum and 200 Akanthomyces muscarius (entomopathogens) have been described only in soil so far (Ansari and Butt, 2012; Bashyal et al., 2016; Danilovich et al., 2020). Regarding the Pleosporales, the strain 201 F1.72, closely related to Neosulcatispora strelitziae and Phaeosphaeria podocarpi, recently 202 203 described fungal species (Crous et al., 2014, 2016), represents probably also a novel fungal 204 species. However, further analysis, including multi-locus based phylogeny, is required to 205 characterize the strain. Two other strains were closely related to species within the Pleosporales, 206 Alternaria destruens and Epicoccum poae, which have been isolated from plants (Kumar and 207 Kaushik, 2013; Chen et al., 2017). So far, these strains have not been shown to exhibit 208 hydrocarbon degradation capacity. The strains affiliated to the Polyporales were related to 209 Trametes versicolor and Bjerkandera adusta that are known to be able to degrade hydrocarbon 210 (Lladó et al., 2012; Andriani et al., 2016).

211 All the Capnodiales were affiliated to two complexes of the *Cladosporium* genus (Fig. 2) defined by 212 a multi-locus phylogeny (Schubert et al., 2007). Among the Cladosporioides complex, the isolated strains were affiliated to species known to be associated with human and animals diseases such as 213 214 C. crousii, C. welwitschiicola, C. austroafricanum, C. pini-ponderosae, and C. puyae (Sandoval-Denis 215 et al., 2016), and with marine organisms such as C. colombiae (Ravi Theja and Chandra, 2020). 216 Similarly, the isolated strains belonging to the Herbarum complex, C. rhusicola, C. subcinereum, C. 217 angustiherbarum have been described involved in human and animals infections (Sandoval-Denis 218 et al., 2016), while C. allicinum was found associated with marine organisms (Poli et al., 2020; 219 Bovio et al., 2019) and several strains related to C. herbarum have been described for their ability 220 to degrade PAH in marine sediment (Marco-Urrea et al., 2015; Xiao et al., 2020). Noteworthy, the 221 strain D16.68 is the more distant from *Cladosporium* species (Fig. 2) suggesting that it might 222 represent a novel species within the *Cladosporium* genus, but further phylogenetic analysis based 223 on multi-locus are required to elucidate the taxonomic position. Although *Cladosporium* has been 224 already reported in saline environments (Zalar et al., 2007), in hydrocarbon contaminated 225 sediments (Ravelet et al., 2000) showing as well resistance to metals (Shao and Sun, 2007), it was 226 surprising to obtain mainly strains of this genus. It is likely that members of the Cladosporium 227 genus are well adapted to the culture conditions imposed during the screening procedure. The 228 cultural approach owns some limitations. Indeed, the development of conidia is controlled by 229 different factors (Tan et al., 1995), such as the presence of PAHs (Zafra et al., 2015), influencing 230 the selection of cultivable strains. In order to overcome such limitations, the application of 231 different culture conditions will enlarge the diversity of isolated strains.

232 Despite the limitations inherent of the cultivable approach, a large diversity of cultivable fungi was 233 obtained from hydrocarbon-contaminated marine sediments, spanning 11 fungal genera. The 234 isolated strains included not only strains affiliated to Orders which members were isolated from 235 marine sediments (Mouton et al., 2012; Ravelet et al., 2000) showing the capacity to degrade PAHs (Fedorak et al., 1984; Simister et al., 2015), but also some isolated strains yet not described 236 237 in marine sediments, nor for their tolerance to the presence of PAHs. Thus, our study shows that a 238 large fungal diversity remains hidden in marine sediments, which represent a metabolic potential 239 for the development of remediation strategies for the mitigation of the effect of PAHs.

240

241 PAHs tolerance and removal capacities of the fungal isolated strains

242 Most of the isolated fungal strains (54 strains, 64%) were able to grow in the presence of at least 243 the presence of one PAH showing their tolerance to hydrocarbons (Fig. 3). Among them, 61% 244 tolerate the presence of benzo[a]pyrene, 52% pyrene and 45% fluoranthene. Few fungal strains 245 were able to develop in presence of phenanthrene either alone (19%) or in mixture with other 246 PAHs (14%). Similar results showing high tolerance of fungal strains to pyrene, and low tolerance 247 to phenanthrene and PAHs mixture have been reported in the same range of concentrations (Lee 248 et al., 2014). Toxic effects on fungal growth have been observed with phenanthrene (Lisowska, 249 2004) and metabolites produced from PAHs mixture (Lundstedt et al., 2003). Interestingly, the tolerance capacity is consistent with the phylogeny (Fig. 3), the members of the same Order showing similar tolerance patterns. Noteworthy, the two groups Cladosporioides and Herbarum within the Capnodiales Order showed distinct tolerance capacities, which further support the classification into two distinct groups.

254 In order to assess the PAHs removal capacity (degradation and/or sorption) of fungal isolated 255 strains, maltose and dextrose were added as extra carbon source, since fungi have been shown to 256 have low ability to use PAHs as sole carbon source (Harrison, 2009). In these conditions, fungal 257 strains belonging to the Pleosporales Order showed the most efficient removal capacities while 258 strains affiliated to the Hypocreales Order showed the lowest removal capacity (Fig. 3). In the 259 Pleosporales Order, 85% of the strains showed removal capacity above 70%. The Cladosporoides 260 group of the Capnodiales Order exhibited the less number of strains with removal capacities above 261 70%. The comparison of the removal capacities of the isolated strains showed two main clusters 262 (Fig. 4) separating the strains with high removal capacities from those with low removal capacities. 263 Interestingly, members of the same species showed divergent removal capacities. Such 264 discrepancies have been described (Lee et al., 2014), strains from the same species showing 265 different metabolic capacities.

The analysis also showed that pyrene and fluoranthene (4 rings PAHs) clustered together, further confirmed by strong correlation between pyrene and fluorentene removal capacities (Pearson coefficient: 0.996, R²: 0.993), indicating that they were removed by almost a similar pattern of fungal strains (Fig. 3). The benzo[*a*]pyrene (5 rings PAH) and phenanthrene (3 rings PAH) were apart indicating that the patterns of fungal strains able to remove them were different. Such observations highlighted that the removal capacity depends also on the PAH structure as previously suggested (Ghosal et al., 2016).

273 In order to further characterize the genetic PAH degradation potential of the isolated fungal 274 strains, the presence of genes encoding manganese peroxidase (MnP), lignin peroxidase (LiP) and 275 laccase (Lac), known to participate in the degradation of PAHs (Ghosal et al., 2016), was examined 276 in their genomes by PCR (Fig. 4). All strains posses at least one of these genes, the LiP2 being the 277 most distributed (82/85 strains, 96%) among the isolated fungal strains (Fig. 4). Noteworthy, when 278 the LiP2 gene was not present, the strain possessed the MnP2 gene. Almost all strains (80/85 279 strains, 94%) possessed at least a manganese peroxidase gene, MnP2 gene being the most 280 detected (75/85 strains, 88%). Such results were not surprising since most of the peroxidase

281 enzymes are known to be produced in marine environment (Bonugli-Santos et al., 2015). 282 Surprisingly, the Lac gene, found in many marine fungal species (Ben Ali et al., 2020; D'Souza-Ticlo 283 et al., 2009), was detected in only 4 strains, which exhibited the most genetic potential possessing 284 more than 5 of the targeted genes. However, since various types of Lac genes have been described 285 in fungi (Moreno et al., 2017; Yang et al., 2016), the primers used to detect the presence of Lac 286 genes are probably not well suited for recovering the entire Lac gene diversity. The use of primers 287 targeting broader Lac gene diversity or targeting at least Lac gene detected within the Ascomycota 288 phyla (the major phyla of the isolated strains) is required to better define the presence of Lac 289 genes in the isolated strains. Similar observations can be drawn for the LiP and MnP genes 290 indicating that further efforts are needed for in depth characterization of the genetic potential of 291 the isolated strains.

292 Interestingly, the genetic potential of Alternaria destruens F10.81, exhibiting the highest PAH 293 removal capacity, was different to that of Fusarium pseudonygamai F5.76, showing the lowest 294 removal capacity, by just the presence of the LiP1 gene. Although it cannot be excluded that the 295 expression of the genes might be controlled by different regulation mechanisms in both strains, 296 such observation suggested that the presence of the LiP, MnP and Lac genes was not linked with the PAH-removal capacity. In the same way, Pearson correlation analysis was unable to establish 297 298 correlation between the genetic profiles (LiP, MnP and Lac) and PAH-removal capacity of the 299 isolated fungal strains, but confirmation by determining the activity of the enzymes would be 300 required in order to conclude on the involvement of the enzymes in PAH-removal. Anyway, 301 considering the observed genetic potential and despite the inherent bias of the molecular tools 302 used in our study, these results suggested that other mechanisms are probably involved in PAH 303 removal. Thus, further studies are required for elucidating whether the PAH-removal potential of 304 the isolated strains involves degradation and/or sorption mechanisms. The mechanisms described 305 so far involve monooxygenase genes (Cerniglia, 1997; Cerniglia and Sutherland, 2010), particularly 306 the intracellular P450 monooxygenase gene that implies the internalization of PAH into fungal cells 307 (Cerniglia, 1997). In order to determine whether the internalization of PAH and the hyphae PAH 308 transport are mechanisms involved in PAH removal, the Alternaria destruens F10.81 and Fusarium 309 pseudonygamai F5.76 strains were selected, because they exhibited the highest and lowest PAH 310 removal capacities respectively, for further characterization.

PAH removal characterization of Alternaria destruens F10.81 and Fusarium pseudonygamai F5.76

314 The removal capacity of Alternaria destruens F10.81 and Fusarium pseudonygamai F576 was 315 compared with that of Phanerochaete chrysosporium, which is the most studied fungi for PAH-316 degradation (Cao et al., 2020). It serve often as control fungi even for comparing PAH-removal 317 capacity from strains belonging to different phyla (Cao et al., 2020), because it exhibit the capacity 318 to degrade a broad range of organic compounds (Deschler et al., 1998; Duran et al., 2002), 319 including several PAHs (Pointing, 2001). Under our conditions P. chrysosporium presented low 320 rates of PAHs removal (< 30%), just above to that exhibited by *F. pseudoygamai* F5.76 and around 321 3 times less to that observed for A. destruens F10.81 (Fig. 5). In fungi, gene regulation involves 322 complex control mechanisms as those observed for peroxidases genes. It is known that in most 323 fungal strains the LiP, MnP and Lac genes are expressed during the idiophase, the fungal 324 secondary phase, when nitrogen is limited and under the control of complex regulation signals 325 (Junghanns et al., 2005; Kamitsuji et al., 2004; Knop et al., 2015; Duran et al., 2002; Solé et al., 326 2012), although the expression of MnP genes have been observed under high nitrogen content in 327 fungal genera such as Pleurotus and Trametes (Kaal et al., 1995; Janusz et al., 2013; Stajić et al., 2006). Thus, the differences observed in removal capacities between the fungal strains are 328 329 probably due to the medium composition and culture conditions.

330 It is likely that the seawater medium with high nitrogen content as well as the culture conditions 331 used in our study limited the removal capacities of P. chrysosporium (Singh and Chen, 2008) and F. 332 pseudoygamai F5.76. In contrast, A. destruens F10.81 exhibited removal rates above 80% for all 333 PAHs except for benzo[a]pyrene (65% removal; Fig. 5). Such higher PAH removal capacity of A. 334 destruens F10.81 suggested that either its genes involved in PAH removal respond to different 335 regulation signals than the other two strains or the PAH removal was performed by other mechanisms. For example, the expression of LiP, MnP and Lac genes has been observed under 336 337 high nitrogen content in some fungal species (i.e. Pleurotus ostreatus and Trametes trogii) and 338 even under both high and low nitrogen content for Dichomitus squalens, while for other fungal species, such as *P. chrysosporium*, the peroxidase genes are expressed under nitrogen limitation 339 340 (Janusz et al., 2013; Stajić et al., 2006). The expression of genes involved in PAH-removal even in 341 high nitrogen content might be an asset for the fungal saprotrophic life-style in marine environments where secreted enzymes, such as peroxidases, are likely to be lost by rapid diffusionin the aquatic environment (Richards et al., 2012).

344 Possible PAH removal has been described through biosorption mechanisms, which include 345 adsorption onto cell surface (Raghukumar et al., 2006) and absorption into the cell (Verdin et al., 346 2005; Yang et al., 2013). Several studies have demonstrated the capacity of fungi to uptake PAHs 347 (Deng et al., 2010; Wu et al., 2009) and also to transport them along the fungal hyphae (Furuno et 348 al., 2012; Schamfuß et al., 2013). Both strains, Fusarium pseudoygamai F5.76 and Alternaria 349 destruens F10.81, were able to uptake and transport pyrene (Fig. 6). Clear pyrene containing 350 vacuoles were observed in F. pseudoygamai F5.76 (Fig. 6c,d) while pyrene was homogeneously 351 distributed in A. destruens F10.81 (Fig. 6e,f) suggesting that the fungal strains have developed 352 different strategies for PAH uptake. It has been demonstrated that the vacuoles serves for possible 353 storage of PAHs as carbon source and for PAH transport along the hyphae allowing the distribution 354 of PAH within the mycelia network (Darrah et al., 2006; Furuno et al., 2012). Consistently, pyrene 355 was also accumulated into conidia in F. pseudoygamai F5.76 (Fig. 6c,d), which represents carbon 356 source reserve for the development of conidia as previously reported (Allaway et al., 1997; Bago et 357 al., 2002). In contrast, the homogenous pyrene distribution in A. destruens F10.81 (Fig. 6e,f) 358 suggested a diffusion mechanism. Such different pyrene uptake mechanism probably explains the 359 highest removal capacities of A. destruens F10.81 in comparison to F. pseudoygamai F5.76 (Fig. 5). 360 However, further studies are required to determine whether higher pyrene absorption or internal 361 degradation by monooxygenease (i.e. cytochrome P450) are the underlying physiological 362 mechanisms of PAH removal in A. destruens F10.81.

363

364 Conclusion

365 The exploration of the cultivable fungal diversity of hydrocarbon-contaminated coastal sediments 366 revealed that coastal sediment hide fungal diversity yet unexplored for their metabolic potential, 367 especially regarding PAH removal capacity. A large proportion of the isolated strains (48%), 368 dispatched within 6 fungal genera, exhibited PAH-tolerance with a removal capacity (degradation 369 and/or sorption) above 60%. Such diversity in PAH-removal capacity represents a functional 370 potential for ecosystem recovery exploitable for bioremediation treatments (Harms et al., 2011). 371 However, the mechanism underlying the PAH-removal capacity (degradation and/or sorption) is 372 unclear because it is probably not related to the presence of extracellular peroxidase genes (LiP,

373 MnP and Lac) and it is strain specific. The comparison of two isolated strains exhibiting contrasted 374 removal capacities showed different PAH-uptake behaviour suggesting that the mechanisms by 375 which fungi perform PAH-uptake might determine the efficiency of PAH-removal. Alternaria 376 destruens F10.81, the most efficient PAH-remover (above 80%) was able to internalize pyrene 377 homogenously into the hyphae that contrasted with the behaviour of Fusarium pseudoygamai 378 F5.76 in which PAH-vacuoles were observed but exhibiting a PAH-removal capacity below 20%. It 379 is likely that Alternaria destruens F10.81 owns features well adapted to PAH-contaminated coastal 380 sediments, which represent potential for the development of a bioremediation process. However, further studies are required to understand the PAH-removal mechanism in order to manage fungal 381 382 resources to mitigate the effects of PAH contamination.

383

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786 Figure captions

Fig. 1: Phylogenetic tree, based on ITS sequences, showing the positions of fungal strains isolated from oil contaminated coastal marine sediments. The Neighbour joining phylogenetic tree was rooted with the ITS sequence of *Rhizopus orzyzae* CBS 112.07^T (NR 103595.1). The scale bar corresponds to 0.05 substitutions per nucleotide position. Percentages of 1,000 bootstrap resampling that supported the branching orders in each analysis are shown above or near the relevant nodes. For the isolates, the number of isolated strains is indicated in parenthesis. For the type strains, the accession number is indicated in parenthesis.

794 Fig. 2: Phylogenetic tree, based on ITS sequences, showing the positions of fungal strains 795 isolated from oil contaminated coastal marine sediments within the Cladosporium genus. The 796 Neighbour joining phylogenetic tree was rooted with the ITS sequence of Trametes versicolor 797 CFMR FP-135156-Sp^T (NR 154494.1). The scale bar corresponds to 0.05 substitutions per 798 nucleotide position. Percentages of 1,000 bootstrap re-sampling that supported the branching 799 orders in each analysis are shown above or near the relevant nodes. For the isolates, the number 800 of isolated strains is indicated in parenthesis. For the type strains, the accession number is 801 indicated in parenthesis.

802 Fig. 3: PAHs tolerance and removal capacities of isolated fungal strains. PAHs tolerance

803 corresponds to the capacity of the fungal strains to grow (green) or not (red) on solid seawater

804 minimal medium in the presence of different PAHs and PAHs mixture. PAHs removal capacity,

- determined in liquid cultures containing a mixture of PAHs, corresponds to the percentage of PAHs
 eliminated after 20 days of fungal growth. The color gradient follows to the removal capacity from
 low (red) to high (green). Phe, phenanthrene; Flu, fluoranthene; Pyr, pyrene; BaP, benzo[*a*]pyrene;
- 808 Mix, mixture of the 4 PAHs.

809 Fig. 4: Comparison of PAHs removal capacity of the isolated fungal strains and their genetic

810 **potential.** The heatmap is based on similarity index calculated from removal capacity data shown

in Fig 3. Phe, phenanthrene; Flu, fluoranthene; Pyr, pyrene; BaP, benzo[*a*]pyrene. The genetic

- 812 potential corresponds to the presence (dark blue) of peroxidase genes assessed by PCR targeting
- 813 manganese peroxidase (MnP1-3), lignin peroxidase (LiP1-6) and laccase (Lac). The absence of the
- 814 genes is indicated in pale blue. The fungal strains selected for further analysis, corresponding to
- 815 the highest and lowest removal capacities, are highlighted in red.

Fig. 5: PAHs removal capacities of *Alternaria destruens* F10.81 and *Fusarium pseudonygamai*F5.76 compared to that of the reference strain *Phanerochaete chrysosporium*. Means of tree
replicates are presented. The bar indicates SD. In each hydrocarbon removal test, mean followed
by the same letter do not differ statistically by the Turkey test at 5%.

820 Fig. 6: PAHs internalization in the hyphae of Alternaria destruens F10.81 and Fusarium

821 *pseudonygamai* F5.76. (a) Experimental schema for the detection of internal transport of PAHs

- 822 along the mycelia. Fungi were inoculated in a 1 cm³ cube of solid seawater minimal media with
- 823 10% LB and 20 mg/L of pyrene. The red arrow indicates the direction of the hyphae growth. (b)

824 Macroscopic observation showing the colonization of *Fusarium pseudonygamai* F5.76 of a piece of

825 media from the other. The red arrow indicates the hyphae forming bridges between the two

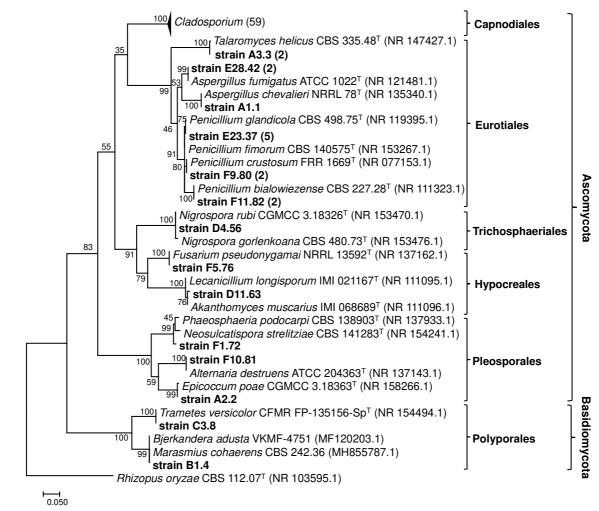
826 pieces of media. Observation of *Fusarium pseudonygamai* F5. 76 hyphae after colonization by (c)

- 827 light microscopy and by (d) fluorescence after exposing to DAPI light. The red arrows show the
- 828 storage of PAHs into conidia. Observation of *Alternaria destruens* F10.81 hyphae after colonization
- by (e) light microscopy and by (f) fluorescence after exposing to DAPI light. The red arrows show
- 830 the homogeneous distribution of PAHs into the hyphae. The microscopic observations were
- 831 performed at a magnification of 160X.

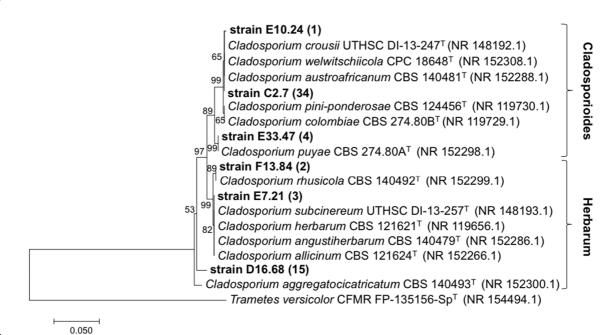
Gene*	Sequence (5'-3')**	Tm (°C)	Size (nt)	Reference
LiP1	LIG1u (F): GCCGCAATTTCTCTTGCTCTTTCCA LIG1d (R): TACATCGAACCACGCGCACGAGATT	57	179/126	Broda et al., 1995
LiP2	LIG2u (F): CATCGCAATTTCGCCCGCCATGGAGGA LIG2d (R): ACCTTCTGAACGAATGGCTTCTGGAGC	57	222/179	Broda et al., 1995
LiP3	LIG3u (F): TATTGCCATCTCTCCTGCTATGGAGGCC LIG3d (R): ATGTTAGGGTGGAAGTTGGGCTCGATG	57	179/126	Broda et al., 1995
LiP4	LIG4u (F): GTGCGCCTGGTTCCCCATTCTGCAG LIG4d (R): AATTGGTCTCGATAGTATCGAAGAC	57	350/222	Broda et al., 1995
LiP5	LIG5u (F): GGTCTCGATCGAGGAGAAGGTAATGATC LIG5d (R): TTGCCCCGACGGCGTGCACAC	57	350/222	Broda et al., 1995
LiP6	LIG6u (F): GACCTGCTCGAACGGCAAGGTCGTCC LIG6d (R): CATGATAGAACCATCGGCGCCTCGC	57	350/222	Broda et al., 1995
MnP1	mnp1-f (F): CAGACGGTACCCGCGTCACC mnp1-r (R): AGTGGGAGCGGCGACATCAC	60	246/123	Bogan et al., 1996
MnP2	mnp2-f (F): CCGACGGCACCCGCGTCAGC mnp2-r (R): CGAGCGGGAGCGGCGACGCC	60	≈900	Bogan et al., 1996
MnP3	mnp3-f (F): CCGACGGTACCAAGGTCAAC mnp3-r (R): AGCGGCAGCGGCGACGCGAC	60	≈900	Bogan et al., 1996
Lac	Lac (F): CACTGGCACGGNTTCTTCCA Lac (R): GTGACTATGATACCAGAANGT	52	246/123	D'Souza et al., 1996

833 Table 1. Primers used for the amplification of fungal peroxidases genes

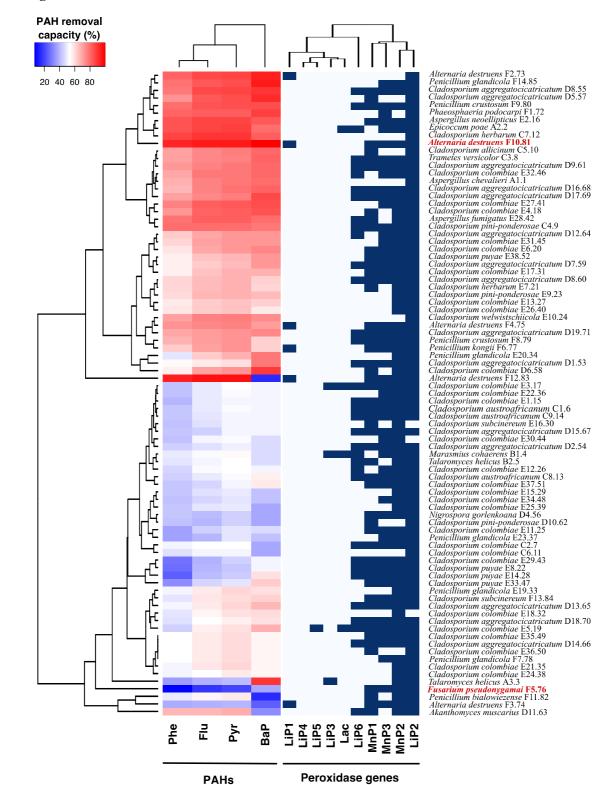
*LiP, lignine peroxidase; MnP, manganese peroxidase; Lac, laccase. **(F), forward; (R), reverse.

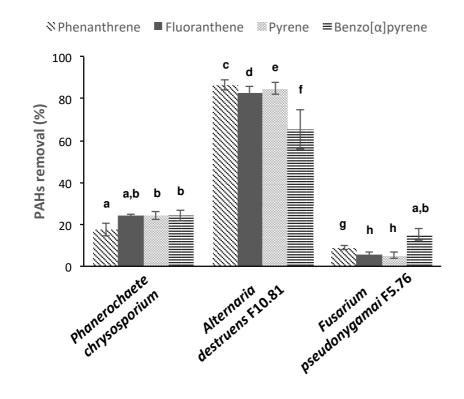




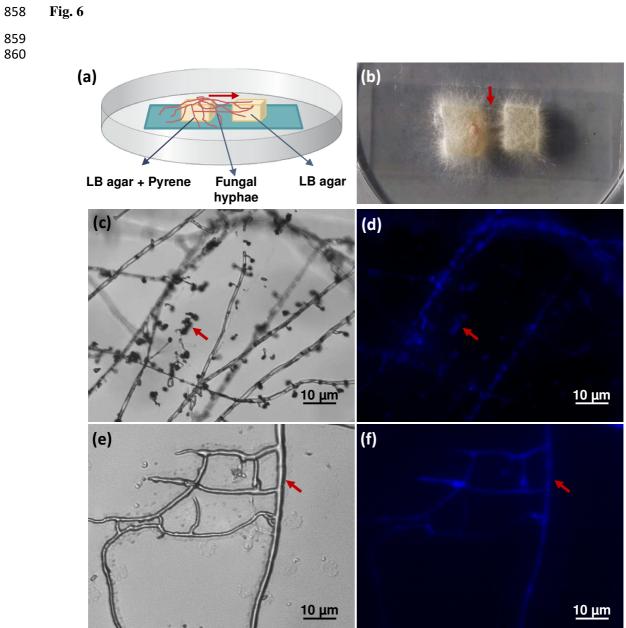


11g. 5						
	Fungal strain	PAH	P.	AH re	mova	ıl 👘
	-	tolerance			ty (%)	
	Cladosporium austroafricanum C1.6 Cladosporium austroafricanum C8.13		43.2 44.6	49.7 49.7	52.6 52.6	51.1 56.4
	Cladosporium austroafricanum C9 14		43.2	48.5	51.5	51.1
	Cladosporium welwitschiicola E10.24		71.0 80.2	76.6 80.1	76.9 80.2	74.2 77.8
	<i>Cladosporium pini-ponderosae</i> C4.9 <i>Cladosporium pini-ponderosae</i> E9.23		60.2	67.3	68.0	65.8
	Cladosporium pini-ponderosae D10.62		41.9	40.4	44.9	37.8
	Cladosporium colombiae C2.7 Cladosporium colombiae C6.11		51.2 47.2	53.2 50.9	53.7 51.5	37.8 37.8
	Cladosporium colombiae E1 15		40.6	49.7	51.5	51.1
	Cladosporium colombiae E3.17 Cladosporium colombiae E4.18		41.9 72.3	49.7 81.3	53.7 82.4	51.1 84.4
	Cladosporium colombiae E5.19		44.6	56.7	59.2	67.6
	Cladosporium colombiae E6.20		59.1	69.6	72.5	75.6
	Cladosporium colombiae E11.25 Cladosporium colombiae E12.26		36.6 45.9	45.0 52.0	48.2 53.7	46.7 51.1
	Cladosporium colombiae E13.27		57.8	63.7	64.7	62.7
Capnodiales	Cladosporium colombiae E15.29 Cladosporium colombiae E17.31		43.2 56.4	47.4 64.9	49.3 68.0	42.2 67.6
	Cladosporium colombiae E18.32		48.5	55.6	59.2	60.9
Cladospoides	Cladosporium colombiae E21.35		51.2 41.9	59.1 49.7	61.4 52.6	55.6 51.1
	Cladosporium colombiae E22.36 Cladosporium colombiae E24.38		51.2	54.4	58.1	55.6
	Cladosporium colombiae E25.39		43.2	48.5	49.3	37.8
	Cladosporium colombiae E26.40 Cladosporium colombiae E27.41		59.1 76.2	63.7 82.5	64.7 83.5	57.8 85.8
	Cladosporium colombiae E29.43		28.7	39.2	44.9	51.1
	Cladosporium colombiae E30.44		41.9	50.9	52.6	46.7
	Cladosporium colombiae E31.45 Cladosporium colombiae E32.46		61.7 69.6	70.8 77.8	72.5 78.0	72.9 80.4
	Cladosporium colombiae E32.46 Cladosporium colombiae E34.48		41.9	46.2	48.2	42.2
	Cladosporium colombiae E35.49		53.8	57.9	60.3	55.6
	Cladosporium colombiae E36.50 Cladosporium colombiae E37.51		53.8 43.2	57.9 46.2	60.3 51.5	55.6 58.2
	Cladosporium colombiae D6.58		56.4	70.8	73.6	88.9
	Cladosporium puyae E8.22		27.4 24.8	40.4 41.5	42.7 43.8	51.1 60.0
	Cladosporium puyae E14.28 Cladosporium puyae E33.47		32.7	46.2	48.2	63.6
	Cladosporium puyae E38.52		56.4	64.9	66.9	72.9
1	Cladosporium aggregatocicatricatum D1.53		55.1	57.9	59.2	78.2
	Cladosporium aggregatocicatricatum D2.54 Cladosporium aggregatocicatricatum D3.55		44.6 77.6	47.4 86.0	50.4 86.8	46.7 90.2
	Cladosporium aggregatocicatricatum D5.57		73.6	83.6	85.7	92.0
	Cladosporium aggregatocicatricatum D7 59		56.4	63.7	65.8	72.9
	Cladosporium aggregatocicatricatum D8.60 Cladosporium aggregatocicatricatum D9.61		61.7 72.3	66.1 76.6	68.0 78.0	62.7 80.9
	Cladosporium aggregatocicatricatum D12.64		63.0	69.6	72.5	72.9
Capnodiales	Cladosporium aggregatocicatricatum D13.65		51.2 53.8	57.9 57.9	61.4 60.3	66.7 55.6
· ·	Cladosporium aggregatocicatricatum D14.66 Cladosporium aggregatocicatricatum D15.67		43.2	45.0	51.5	51.1
Herbarum	Cladosporium aggregatocicatricatum D16.68		67.0	76.6	79.1	81.3
	Cladosporium aggregatocicatricatum D17.69		71.0	75.4 53.2	76.9 57.0	86.2 60.0
	Cladosporium aggregatocicatricatum D18.70 Cladosporium aggregatocicatricatum D19.71		69.6	71.9	73.6	75.1
	Cladosporium allicinum C5.10		71.0	75.4	76.9	80.9
	Cladosporium herbarum C7.12 Cladosporium herbarum E7.21		87.2 61.7	89.5 66.1	90.0 68.0	82.2 61.8
	Cladosporium subcinereum E16.30		41.9	47.4	51.5	51.1
	Cladosporium subcinereum F13.84		48.5	59.1	60.3	62.2
1	Talaromyces helicus A3.3 Talaromyces helicus A3.5		35.3	39.2	41.6	89.8
	Talaromyces helicus B2.5 Aspergillus chevalieri A1.1		48.5 68.3	50.9 76.6	53.7 78.0	46.7 80.0
	Aspergillus neoellipticus E2.16		84.2	87.1	86.8	83.6
	Aspergillus fumitagus E28.42 Penicillium glandicola E19.33		78.9 51.2	82.5 57.9	82.4	80.0 60.0
Eurotiales	Penicillium glandicola E20.34		48.5	57.9 63.7	61.4 68.0	77.8
Eurotiales	Penicillium glandicola E23.37		36.6	40.4	48.2	42.2
	Penicillium kongii F6.77 Penicillium gladicola F7.78		63.0 53.8	70.8 57.9	73.6 60.3	62.7 55.6
	Penicillium crustosum F8.79		68.3	71.9	73.6	62.7
	Penicillium crustosum F9.80		80.2	84.8	85.7	84.9
	Penicillium bialowiezense F11.82 Penicillium gladicola F14.85		49.8 78.9	55.6 83.6	58.1 85.7	15.6 94.7
Tricosphaeriales	Nigrospora gorlenkoana D4.56		43.2	41.5	44.9	37.8
Hypograpian	Fusarium pseudonygamai F5.76		07.6	17.0	19.6	37.8
Hypocreales	Akanthomyces muscarius D11.63		67.0	67.3	69.1	33.3
I	Phaesphaeria podocarpi F1.72		81.5	82.5	82.4	88.4
	Alternaria destruens F2.73		81.5	86.0	86.8	93.3
Pleosporales	Alternaria destruens F3.74 Alternaria destruens F4.75		38.0 73.6	39.2 75.4	40.5 75.8	24.4 71.1
	Alternaria destruens F10.81		93.0	94.6	95.0	99.6
	Alternaria destruens F12.83		93.9 84.2	96.3 87.1	96.4 87.9	15.6
۱ ۱	Epicoccum poae A2.2 Trametes versionar C3.8	الد کر ہے ہے ۔	71.0	75.4	87.9 75.8	80.0 81.8
Polyporales	Trametes versicolor C3.8 Marasmius cohaerens B1.4		49.8	52.0	54.8	46.7
'		Phe Flu BaP Mix	Phe	ЪГ	Pyr	ВаР
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854 Fig. 5



Cultivable diversity of PAH-removing fungi

