## **1** Partitioning of fungal assemblages across different marine habitats

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21 22	Running title: Marine fungal biogeography
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## 30 Summary

Fungi are a highly diverse group of microbes that fundamentally influence the

biogeochemistry of the biosphere, but we currently know little about the diversity and distribution of fungi in aquatic habitats. Here we describe shifts in marine fungal community composition across different marine habitats, using targeted pyrosequencing of the fungal ITS region. Our results demonstrate strong partitioning of fungal community composition between estuarine, coastal and oceanic samples, with each habitat hosting discrete communities that are controlled by patterns in salinity, temperature, oxygen and nutrients. While estuarine habitats comprised a significant proportion of fungal groups often found in terrestrial habitats, the open ocean sites were dominated by previously unidentified groups. The patterns observed here indicate that fungi are potentially a significant, although largely overlooked, feature of the ocean's microbiota, but greater efforts to characterise marine species are required before the full ecological and biogeochemical importance of marine fungi can be ascertained. 

Fungi are present within a wide range of marine habitats (e.g. Jones & Pang, 2012, Manohar 59 & Raghukumar 2013) and their importance in aquatic ecology, disease, biogeochemical 60 cycling and trophodynamics is rapidly emerging (e.g. Amend et al., 2011, Wang et al., 61 2012, Krause et al., 2014, Kagami et al., 2014). However, relative to terrestrial 62 environments, our understanding of the diversity and spatiotemporal dynamics of fungi 63 inhabiting the ocean is still undeveloped. This is particularly true when compared to the deep 64 65 understanding of marine bacterial and archaeal dynamics that has been acquired in recent decades (e.g. Karl, 2007). Indeed, we are only just beginning to consider and understand 66 67 patterns in the phylogenetic composition of fungal communities across different ocean 68 habitats (Manohar & Raghukumar 2013). For example, novel fungal phylotypes and higher fungal diversity were found in coastal waters compared with open ocean environments in 69 70 twelve samples taken over a range of depths near Hawaii (Gao et al., 2010). However, 71 previous work has applied fingerprinting or clone library approaches, and to our knowledge no study has utilized the increased sequencing depth and resolution provided by next-72 73 generation sequencing applied targeted next-generation sequencing to investigate aquatic fungal communities across multiple marine habitats and across physicochemical gradients. 74 75 Until we understand the spatiotemporal distribution of specific fungal populations, and describe the diversity of fungi in aquatic habitats as a baseline to begin to identity the most 76 77 ecological and biogeochemically relevant members of the fungal community, we will not be 78 able to adequately integrate fungi into our general understanding of the microbial ecology of the oceans. 79

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To begin to address this knowledge gap, we examined patterns of fungal community
structure across different marine habitats by comparing assemblages from 65 sites, spanning
a semi eutrophic urbanized estuary (Sydney Harbour) through to coastal habitats (Australian

east coast) and the open South Pacific Ocean (Supporting information Figure S2 & Table 84 S1). Fungal community assemblages, characterised using ITS targeted 454-pyrotagging 85 (Supporting information and figure captions for details), displayed significant shifts in 86 87 community composition across a spatial gradient spanning estuarine to open ocean conditions (ANOSIM Global R = 0.89, Sig. < 0.05, Figure 1A; Supporting Figure S3A). A 88 network analysis approach, which groups samples together based on shared operational 89 taxonomic units (OTUs), revealed that each marine environment represents a distinct fungal 90 habitat, with estuarine and open ocean samples forming clearly separated clusters, and 91 92 coastal samples emerging as a transitional zone between them (Figure 1B, Supporting Figure S3B). 93

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Across our entire data set, more than 80% of sequences could not be matched to any known
phylogenetic group in the UNITE database (Kõljalg *et al.*, 2005) using BLAST (E<10<sup>-5</sup>;
Altshul *et al.*, 1997) (Figure 2). This is perhaps not surprising, given the poor representation
of aquatic fungi in public databases, which comprise sequences predominantly derived from
soil environments (Kõljalg *et al.*, 2005). However, it is notable that the proportion of
identifiable fungi varied significantly between environments, with 90% of open ocean OTUs
unidentified, while this number dropped to 68% in the estuarine environments.

Among the identifiable sequences, strong compositional differences were observed between habitats (Figure 2), confirming the patterns of spatial partitioning observed at the OTU level. Estuarine samples were generally dominated by common soil-inhabiting classes, including hypocreales, helotiales, orbiliales, capnodiales, pleosporales, eurotiales, saccharomycetiales, polyporales, glomerales, agaricales and sordariales. These groups made up 30% of total sequences in estuarine samples, but only 12 % and 10% of sequences in the coastal and open ocean samples, respectively. While most of these groups are often considered as terrestrial or

soil associated fungi, some classes, including the pleosporales and hypocreales, have also 109 been found to occur on the surfaces of aquatic plants such as mangroves (Suetrong et al., 110 2009; Pang et al., 2010). In contrast to the estuarine samples, coastal samples were 111 dominated by Chytrids (36%), from the order Rhizophydiales, which were particularly 112 abundant in coastal river plume samples (Figure 2). The Rhizophydiales were also dominant 113 feature (30%) of the identified open ocean samples. Interestingly, this group was much less 114 115 abundant (0.46%) in the estuarine samples. Rhizophydiales are typically saprotrophs, or parasites of a wide range of organisms including other chytrids, invertebrates, amphibians 116 117 and phytoplankton (Jones, 1993), and have previously been shown to be associated with phytoplankton blooms (Gerphagnon et al., 2013; Rasconi et al., 2012). Existing evidence of 118 chytrids in the marine environments is scarce, with only three lineages previously identified, 119 120 including species of Rhizophydium, Thalassochytrium and Chytridium (Gleason et al., 2011). 121 However recent research suggests that chytrids play an important role in aquatic foodwebs by transferring nutrients between phytoplankton and zooplankton via grazing (Kagami et al., 122 2014). The large representation of this group in the coastal and open ocean assemblages 123 identified here supports an emerging view of the ecological significance of chytrids in the 124 125 ocean.

There is ongoing debate over the origins of marine fungi, with one hypothesis suggesting that 126 most are of terrestrial origin, either washed into the ocean by rivers or blown in on dust 127 (Jones & Pang, 2012). This may be true for estuarine samples, but our data suggests that only 128 a small proportion of the open ocean fungi have clear taxonomic similarities to terrestrial 129 fungi. Distance based linear modelling indicated that the observed variation in the fungal 130 communities was driven by changes in salinity, temperature, dissolved oxygen, nitrate, 131 silicate and phosphate (Supplementary Figure S1). This observation suggests that aquatic 132 fungi respond to environmental gradients, potentially playing a role in marine nutrient cycles. 133

However, this relationship between nutrient concentration and fungal community 134 composition requires further research to show that fungi are indeed actively metabolising 135 these nutrients. Other factors that may further influence marine fungal diversity include the 136 availability of substrata for colonization such as particulate organic carbon and plant, animal 137 and algal hosts (Jones, 2000) and these may be factors in our data, particularly in determining 138 the diversity of particle associated taxa in river-plume samples and of potentially 139 phytoplankton associated chytrids. Additionally, other biotic components such as predation 140 and competition may also be responsible for driving patterns in aquatic functional 141 142 assemblages as for other microorganisms, however this requires further investigation. 143 Here, we provide new evidence for substantial spatial heterogeneity in the structure of marine fungal communities across different ocean habitats. Estuarine habitats were characterised by 144 the highest proportions of identifiable taxa, with a significant proportion of organisms 145 146 previously observed in terrestrial environments. This is perhaps indicative of allocthonous inputs of terrestrial fungi into the aquatic environment or the occurrence of a resident 147 coastal/estuarine fungal community that has close phylogenetic links or history with 148 terrestrial populations. The coastal habitat represents an ecotone, where terrestrial, estuarine 149 and "open ocean fungi" co-exist, while the open ocean environment is dominated by a high 150 151 proportion of previously unidentified taxa that potentially represent a pool of fungi that have specifically evolved to thrive within nutrient poor open ocean conditions. Taken together 152 these patterns indicate that marine fungal communities are shaped by local environmental 153 conditions and are not simply passive colonizers from terrestrial ecosystems, as has 154 previously been proposed (Jones & Pang, 2012). Although the heterogeneous nature of these 155 marine fungi distributions and their relationship to environmental gradients indicate that they 156 are potentially ecologically important members of marine microbial assemblages, given that a 157

significant proportion of OTUs remain unidentified, it is currently challenging to fully

159 decipher the roles that they play in marine environments.

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## 297 Figures

**Fig 1.** (A) Multidimensional scaling of relative OTU abundance (Estuary •, Coastal 298 Ocean ), and (B) Network analysis of OTU partitioning between samples. Sample 299 clustering represents the degree to which OTUs are shared between samples, with samples 300 grouping closer together if they share more OTUs. Black nodes represent OTUs, coloured 301 nodes represent sample type (red = estuary; green = coastal; blue = open ocean) and edges 302 (lines) connect OTUs to samples in which they occur (coloured by the habitat of the 303 connected sample). Edge weights represent the number of sequences from each OTU that 304 occurred in each sample. OTUs were clustered at 97% identity using UCLUST (Edgar, 305 2010). Networks were generated using QIIME (Caporaso et al 2010) and visualized using 306 Cytoscape (Shannon et al, 2003). All samples were rarefied to 1082 sequences per sample to 307 308 equalize sampling depth (details in Supporting information).

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Fig.2. Community composition bar graph of OTUs with matches to identified classes in the

312 UNITE database (Kõljalg, 2007). Samples belonging to the Ocean group are designated

Tasman Sea (TS), South Tasman Sea (STS) and East Australia Current (EAC). Coastal

samples are designated Coast-Harbour (CH), Coastal-River (CR) and Coastal (C). Estuary

samples are labelled E. Data was processed using QIIME (Caporaso et al 2010) with OTUs

were clustered at 97% identity using UCLUST (Edgar, 2010). Taxonomy was assigned using DL = 5.5 All = 1.025

BLAST ( $E < 10^{-5}$ , Altschul et al, 1997). All samples were rarefied to 1082 sequences per sample to equalize sampling depth (details in Supporting information). Only sequences with

318 sample to equalize sampling depth (details in Supporting information). Only sequences with 319 matches to the UNITE database at Phylum or Class level are shown here, with the remaining

320 proportions representing sequences for which no annotation beyond "Unidentified (Kingdom fungi)"

- 321 was possible.
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