1	ACIDO-THERMOTOLERANT FUNGI FROM BOILING SPRINGS LAKE, LVNP: POTENTIAL FOR
2	LIGNOCELLULOSIC BIOFUELS
3	
4	Bryan Ervin & Gordon Wolfe
5	Dept. Biological Sciences
6	California State University, Chico
7	940 W. 1 st St.
8	Chico, CA 95929-0515 <u>USA</u>
9	
10	
11	
12	REVISION 2, 6-7-16
13	for <u>Am. Mineralogist</u> (special issue: Geo-biology of LVNP)

14

ABSTRACT

15 Acidic geothermal environments such as those in Lassen Volcanic National Park (LVNP) 16 may provide novel organisms and enzymes for conversion of plant lignocellulose into ethanol, a 17 process that typically requires hot and acidic pre-treatment conditions to hydrolyze cell wall 18 polysaccharides to fermentable sugars. We evaluated seven Ascomycete fungi associated with 19 LVNP's Boiling Springs Lake (BSL) for utilization of lignocellulose material. We screened the 20 fungi for growth pH and temperature optima, and for growth on purified or natural plant cell wall 21 components. We also examined potential lignin degradation using a (per)oxidase assay, and 22 screened for the presence of potential (hemi)cellulose degradation genes with PCR. Growth 23 analysis showed Acidomyces and Ochroconis grew best at 35-45 °C and pH <4, and grew up to 24 48-53 °C. In contrast, Aspergillus, Paecilomyces and Penicillium preferred cooler temperatures 25 for acidic media (25-35 °C), but grew up to 48 °C. Phialophora only grew up to 27 °C under 26 both acidic and neutral conditions, and *Cladosporium* showed a preference for cool, neutral 27 conditions. The most promising material utilizers, Acidomyces, Ochroconis and Paecilomyces, 28 used cellobiose and xylan, as well as pine and incense cedar needles, for growth at 40 °C and pH 29 2. Acidomyces and Ochroconis showed extracellular (per)oxidase activity at 40 °C and pH 2, and 30 PCR screening showed Acidomyces, Paecilomyces, and Ochroconis contain orthologs to known 31 fungal lignocellulose degradation genes, including glucanases and xylanases. We conclude that 32 the BSL-adapted taxa Acidomyces, Ochroconis and Paecilomyces may be promising sources of 33 enzymes that combine heat- and acid-tolerance, potentially valuable in streamlining the pre-34 treatment of lignocellulosic biofuels.

35

36

37 Keywords: fungi, ascomycetes, extremophiles, cellulosic biofuels, peroxidases, glucanases,

38 xylanases, biotechnology, extremophiles

39

INTRODUCTION

40 Naturally-occurring acidic, geothermal environments such as those in Lassen Volcanic 41 National Park (LVNP) may harbor novel extremophilic organisms and enzymes useful for 42 industrial processing. One important application where tolerance of high temperatures and low 43 pH in particular are needed is production of cellulosic biofuels. Unlike ethanol derived from 44 high sugar-containing crops like sugarcane and corn kernels (Zhang et al. 1995), biofuels based 45 on lignocellulosic biomass use a greater percentage of the whole plant material from non-edible 46 sources like switch grass, sugar cane bagasse, corn stover, wheat straw and rice straw, (Carroll 47 and Somerville 2009; Koçar and Civaş 2013), thus potentially reducing greenhouse gas 48 emissions without interrupting food supply (Stichnothe and Azapagic 2009) and improving 49 regional energy security (Parish et al. 2013). However, converting plant lignocellulose to 50 fermentable sugars requires pre-treatment to fragment polymeric cell wall materials and release 51 sugars, followed by fermentation of the sugars by various microbes (Alvira et al. 2010; Bhatia et 52 al. 2012). Pre-treatment is the most commonly cited limitation to the widespread adoption of 53 lignocellulosic biofuels (Himmel et al. 2007; Howard et al. 2003; Kumar et al. 2009; Parish et al. 54 2013). Two common pre-treatment schemes are commonly used. Separate Hydrolysis and 55 *Fermentation (SHF)* physically separates fermentation from the hydrolysis of plant biomass (Tao 56 et al. 2011), utilizing a harsh pre-treatment step of acid hydrolysis (pH \leq 1) at 150-200 °C that 57 quickly (10-15 min) degrades the lignocellulosic materials. This step is then followed by cooling 58 and scrubbing the sugar liquor of acidic residues and interfering byproducts (acetate and 59 furfural), then adding cellulase enzymes to degrade the remaining oligomers. However, the 60 heating is energy-intensive, the chemical scrubbing has waste/pollution issues, and the cellulase 61 enzymes are expensive (Chen et al. 2012; Foust et al. 2009; Pienkos and Zhang 2009). In 62 contrast, the Simultaneous Saccharification and Co-Fermentation (SSCF) uses co-cultures or 63 genetically-modified single cultures of microbes to hydrolyze and ferment in the same vessel 64 (Amore and Faraco 2012). In SSCF, consolidated bioprocessing is performed at 28-37 °C and at 65 pH conditions more suitable to commonly-used fermenting organisms within the hydrolysis 66 environment (Ali et al. 2012; Carere et al. 2008; Hasunuma et al. 2013; Lynd et al. 2005). 67 However, due to mild temperature and pH ranges, this process is considerably slower (100+ hrs) 68 (Olson et al. 2012). Attempts to reconcile the strengths and weakness of the two approaches by

69 incorporating microbes and enzymes into the physiochemical pre-treatment stages prior to
70 fermentation have had limited success, as reviewed by Tian et al. (2009).

71 Genetic and biochemical studies have long confirmed that fungi, which have evolved to 72 degrade almost any plant material (Łaźniewska et al. 2012; Martínez et al. 2005), are a good 73 source of secreted cellulases, xylanases, and peroxidase/laccases (Berka et al. 2011; Cruz 74 Ramírez et al. 2012; Kellner et al. 2009; Kellner and Vandenbol 2010; Shrestha et al. 2011; van 75 den Brink and de Vries 2011). Although novel fungi and their enzymes are of great potential for 76 biofuels and biotechnology (Solomon et al. 2016), many of them cannot survive the hot acid 77 required for a biological/chemical pre-treatment (Krogh et al. 2004; Li et al. 2013). To pair the 78 biological and enzymatic processes with the harsher physical and chemical processes requires 79 enzymes that function under hot and extreme pH conditions. Unsurprisingly, the sources for 80 many of these enzymes come from organisms that themselves are considered extreme-adapted or 81 extremotolerant (Bai et al. 2010; Bhalla et al. 2013; Blumer-Schuette et al. 2013; Kataeva et al. 82 2013; Luo et al. 2008; Turner et al. 2007; Wijma et al. 2013). Boiling Springs Lake (BSL) is an 83 oligotrophic, pH 2.2, 52 °C, hot spring in Lassen Volcanic National Park, CA, that was a NSF-84 funded Microbial Observatory from 2009-2015. Although BSL's pH resembles other studied hot 85 springs at Yellowstone National Park or acidic mine drainage sites like the Rio Tinto and Iron 86 Mountain Mine (Amaral Zettler et al. 2003; Baker et al. 2004; Redman et al. 1999), BSL has 87 uniquely low concentrations of dissolved minerals and metals, making it a geochemically unique 88 environment. In addition, this high-elevation site receives a substantial amount of winter 89 snowfall, causing lake surface and shoreline temperatures to frequently drop into the mid 40 °C 90 range during winter storms (Siering et al. 2013), allowing for greater diversity of acid-adapted microeukaryotes. BSL's primary production is extremely low (< 10 μ g C L⁻¹ d⁻¹), and 91 92 heterotrophic production dominates, most of which is fueled from allochthonous plant litter from 93 the surrounding coniferous forest (Wolfe et al. 2014). At pH <3 and higher temperatures >4094 °C, abiotic thermochemical reactions can begin the plant litter degradation process, but BSL 95 conditions are too mild for significant abiotic glucose release alone (Pedersen et al. 2011), and 96 extreme-adapted prokaryotes and fungi both likely contribute to lignocellulosic breakdown. 97 Evidence for this includes the presence of genes coding known cellulose-, xylan (hemicellulase)-98 and lignin (aromatic carboxylic acid)-degrading enzymes in BSL microbial community DNA

using GeoChip 3.0 on two separate years (Siering et al. 2013), as well as growth response to
inputs of fresh plant materials in *ex-situ* incubation experiments (Wolfe et al. 2014).

101 Our laboratory previously isolated and characterized seven Ascomycete fungal taxa from 102 BSL water and surrounding thermal features. All grew at low pH (2-5) on easily-utilizable media 103 such as malt agar or potato dextrose agar (PDA) between 28-37 °C. Fungi were genotyped and were classified into two sets by their growth preferences. The first set, consisting of Penicillium, 104 105 Aspergillus, and Cladosporium, represents cosmopolitan taxa known to grow over a wide range of conditions and substrates, but typically thrive at mesophilic conditions (Gross and Robbins 106 107 2000). These fast-growing fungi were likely isolated from spores that came into the BSL system 108 via wind and/or forest detritus, but they do not appear adapted to growth year-round in the lake's 109 conditions. However, similar taxa produce many characterized lignocellulose-degrading 110 enzymes, include heat-adapted cellulases from *Penicillium citrinum* (Dutta et al. 2008) and acid-111 adapted cellulases and xylanases from Aspergillus terreus M11 (Gao et al. 2008). The second 112 set has genera that are more typical of acidic and/or hot habitats, both natural and man-made: 113 Paecilomyces, Phialophora, Acidomyces, and Ochroconis. These share genetic and 114 morphological similarities to published extreme-adapted fungi (Baker et al. 2004; Gross and 115 Robbins 2000; Hujslová et al. 2010; Selbmann et al. 2008; Yamazaki et al. 2010; Yarita et al. 116 2010). Prior reports have identified and characterized several degradation enzymes from this 117 group, including acid-stable mannase, xylanase, and cellulase from *Phialophora sp.* (Zhang et al. 118 2011; Zhao et al. 2012) and Paecilomyces (Kluczek-Turpeinen et al. 2005; Tribak et al. 2002; 119 Yang et al. 2006). The closely-related extreme-adapted Acidomyces richmondensis genome at 120 JGI's MycoCosm database (Grigoriev et al. 2012; Mosier et al. 2016) predicts at least fourteen 121 distinct cellulase enzymes. 122 Since BSL's environment is a mild version of hot, acid pre-treatment conditions and the BSL

123 fungi are found within that environment, we hypothesized that that BSL-adapted fungi might

harbor novel enzymes to degrade woody material under those conditions. To test this idea, we

125 characterized their growth over elevated temperatures and low pH on different lignocellulose

126 substrates, and screened for activity of lignocellulosic enzymes and their potential genes.

127

MATERIALS & METHODS

128 Fungal Isolates

129 Isolation

We previously isolated seven fungi from soil and plant material collected around the western periphery of BSL during the fall and summer months of 2008-2010. The soils and plant materials were agitated with sterile water and then a dilution series was placed onto Petri dishes or into multi-well plates containing neutral or acidic fungal media and incubated at 40 °C. Fungi

134 isolated in this manner were maintained on potato dextrose agar (PDA) at 21 °C.

135 Identification

136 Fungal genera were identified on the basis of colony, mycelial, and spore morphology, and 137 color (Gross and Robbins 2000), and by sequencing of the rRNA internal transcribed spacer region (ITS). DNA was extracted from scrapings of mycelial grown on PDA plates into SDS 138 139 lysis buffer, then separated with 1:1 chloroform, and finished with ethanol precipitation. PCR of 140 the rRNA ITS was done using primers ITS1 (TCCGTAGGTGAACCTGCGG) and ITS4 141 (TCCTCCGCTTATTGATATGC) (White et al. 1990). PCR utilized GoTaq Green polymerase 142 master mix (Promega Corp, Madison, WI), ~ 100 ng of fungal DNA, and 0.5 μ M of each primer 143 in a total volume of 20 µL. PCR reactions utilized 30 cycles with 30 sec denaturation (95 °C), 30 sec anneal (54 °C), and 1 min extension (72 °C). The resulting PCR products were sequenced by 144 145 standard dideoxy sequencing (Univ. Washington High Throughput Genomics, Seattle, WA). 146 Culturing

147 Fungi were maintained on PDA (BD, Franklin Lakes, NJ). Two acid-tolerance selection

148 media were developed: 0.4% w/v Malt Extract (ME; BD) and 0.2% w/v Cellobiose/0.1% Yeast

149 Nitrogen Base (CYNB), both made with distilled water, 2% w/v agar, and acidified to pH 2.2 by

150 addition of H_2SO_4 after autoclaving, matching the ~10 mM H_2SO_4 concentration of BSL (Siering

151 et al. 2013). Finally, a basal medium containing 2% w/v agar and 0.1% w/v Yeast Nitrogen Base

152 (YNB; BD) was used to support growth on various sugars, lignocellulose compounds and

153 chopped plant material. Microcrystalline cellulose (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO); xylan from

154 Beechwood (Sigma-Aldrich); and cellobiose (BD) provided polysaccharide substrates. For

155 utilization of plant materials, fallen dried leaves were collected from the ground around BSL;

156 wheat straw and rice straw were gifts from a local feed store, and rice hulls were provided by Dr.

- 157 L. Hanne, CSU Chico.
- 158 Growth Studies

159 Fungal growth temperature curves

160 Growth of filamentous fungi in liquid culture tends to be measured by end-point qualifiers 161 due to the inability of removing representative samples throughout the time course; typical 162 procedures include measuring dried fungal mass, dye sorption, or metabolite redox (Fischer and Sawers 2013; Mowat et al. 2007). We chose to use mass as a variable when growing fungi in 163 164 liquid cultures with soluble substrates. For insoluble substrates, a plating assay was used and 165 growth quantification was by measuring rate of fungal mycelial area increase (Reeslev and 166 Kjoller 1995). The fungal plates were imaged and mycelial area pixel count was subtracted from the total available pixel area (translating to 56.71 cm^2) to standardize for varying pixel 167 densities/zoom; the initial inoculation plug area (0.1935 cm²) was also subtracted. This second 168 169 condition was also used due to very limited Aspergillus, Cladosporium, Penicillium, and 170 Paecilomyces mycelial mass (~1 mg, not shown) in hot and acidic liquid ME or CYNB media 171 (pH 2.5) compared to comparable temperatures in neutral pH versions of ME and CYNB (pH 5).

Both liquid and solid media were used to determine the temperature optima of fungal 172 173 isolates. Growth in liquid media was estimated by measuring mycelial mass after incubation in 174 10 mL of ME for seven days between 25-52 °C using a custom-built thermal gradient incubator 175 rotating at 75 rpm (Wolfe et al. 2013). Vials of culture/media were filtered onto pre-weighed 5 176 µm Durapore membrane filters (EMD Millepore, Billerica, MA), and then dried overnight to 177 constant weight at 82 °C. On the following day, the filters were re-weighed and fungal mass was 178 plotted vs. temperature to produce a temperature tolerance growth curve. For estimates of growth 179 on solid media, vegetative mycelial/agar plugs (~5 mm) from PDA plates grown at 40 °C were 180 transferred to PDA and ME plates in incubation ovens at 27, 37, 40, 45, and 50 °C. Over thirteen 181 days, the fungal plates were imaged and mycelial surface area was calculated to quantify growth $(cm^2 d^{-1}).$ 182

183 Thermotolerance of fungi

184 To combine the growth temperature tolerance data and further define the BSL fungi,

185 mycelial/agar plugs taken from PDA plates grown at 37 °C (27 °C for *Phialophora* sp.) for four

186 days were transferred to new PDA, Myco, or acidic-ME media and incubated at 50 °C for seven

187 days. These were then returned back to 37 °C (27 °C for *Phialophora* sp.) and monitored for

188 growth. A fungus that began re-growing after the return to 37 °C (27 °C) was considered

189 thermotolerant (Maheshwari et al. 2000); conversely, organisms that did not grow were

190 considered mesophilic (Redman et al. 1999).

191 Oxygen requirements for growth

192 Mycelial/agar plugs taken from PDA plates grown at 37 °C were transferred to new PDA and

193 ME plates, then incubated at 37 °C for seven days sealed inside either anaerobic (GasPak EZ

194 Anaerobe pouch; BD) or micro-aerobic [5-15% O₂] (GasPak EZ Campy Pouch; BD). Growth

195 rates were calculated as mycelial area $(cm^2 d^{-1})$ and compared to growth rates on the fully

aerobic ME plates at 37 °C.

197 Initial screen for lignocellulytic activity

198 Fungal isolates grown in liquid ME for 96 h at 37 $^{\circ}$ C were vortexed and 20 μ L spotted onto a

199 basal media of 0.1% w/v YNB, 0.8% w/v Gelrite (Research Products International, Prospect, IL)

and distilled water adjusted to pH 2.2; containing: 0.1% w/v cellobiose, 0.1% microcrystalline

201 cellulose, 0.1% w/v xylan, or no-carbon control. Appearance of fungal mycelia after thirteen

202 days on a medium was considered positive for compound utilization.

203 Single carbon source growth assay

After wetting a fungal isolate on a ME plate with 1 mL distilled water, 20 µL of plate wash

was used to inoculate 10 mL of 0.1% w/v YNB, distilled water/H₂SO₄ at pH 2.2, and 0.1% w/v

206 polysaccharides (microcrystalline cellulose or xylan). Incubation took place for seven days at 37

°C. Utilization of a carbon source was determined qualitatively by presence or absence of fungal
mycelia.

209 Plant material utilization growth assay

210 For growth on cotton, 20 µL of *Acidomyces*, *Ochroconis* and *Paecilomyces* plate washes

211 were introduced into vials containing autoclaved and rinsed 100% cotton fiber balls (Hytop

brand) and 10 mL of sterile water, acidified sterile water, sterile water with 0.1% w/v YNB,

213 acidified sterile water with 0.1% w/v YNB, or CYNB media. Each was then incubated at 37 °C

214 with agitation for nine days. Utilization of the cotton was determined qualitatively by presence or

absence of fungal mycelia. For growth on whole plant tissues, mycelial/agar plugs taken from

216 PDA plates grown at 37 °C were transferred to acidic basal medium containing chopped,

- 217 autoclaved and two-times sterile washed plant material (pine needles, incense cedar scales, wheat
- straw, rice straw and rice hulls, all approx. 1% w/v). The presence of actively increasing
- 219 mycelial area would indicate utilization. Growth rates were calculated to show the mycelial area
- 220 (cm² d⁻¹) and were compared against growth rates on CYNB plates at 37 °C (27 °C for
- 221 *Phialophora*).

222 Enzyme Studies

- 223 Cellulase activity via freed reducing sugar
- Based on the substrate utilization versatility, we tested 50 μ L of (i) filtered culture
- supernatant from Acidomyces or Ochroconis, (ii) a boiled supernatant control to denature
- enzymes (95 °C for 5 min), (iii) a purified cellulase (5U, from *Aspergillus niger*; Sigma-Aldrich)
- in acetate buffer (pH 5), or (iv) a fungal-free media. All were mixed with 150 μ L of 1% w/v
- 228 carboxymethyl cellulose (CMC, ~1.5 mg total; Sigma-Aldrich) in 50 mM citrate buffer (pH 2.5),
- or 0.5 mL of the above sources were also mixed with cellulose filter paper (Whatman #1, approx.
- 50 mg) in 1.5 mL of citrate buffer (pH 2.5). Both assays were incubated at 40 °C for 0, 30, 60,
- 231 90 and 180 min, then 100 μ L of each were mixed with 300 μ L of 3,5-dinitrosalicylic acid (DNS)
- and heated at 95 °C for 5 min (Baker and Adney 1987; Ghose 1987; van den Brink et al. 2012).
- 233 Once cooled to room temperature, 200 µL was then used to establish absorbance at 540 nm in a
- 234 96-well plate and compared to a reacted glucose standard curve (range 0-0.1 mg; detection limit
- 235 of ~0.03 mg) to determine the concentration of freed reducing sugars.

236 *Laccase/peroxidase activity screening assays*

- To evaluate the production of laccases and peroxidase enzymes, we used 2 assays based on
- the oxidation of 2,2'-azino-bis(3-ethylbenzothiazoline-6-sulfonic acid) (ABTS) to form a green
- 239 precipitates (Chairattanamanokorn et al. 2006). Control fungi in these assays were white-rot
- 240 Basidiomycete fungi Collybia impudica (syn. Gymnopus sp. K254) and Mutinus caninus, both a
- 241 gift from Dr. H. Kellner. For the first assay, fungi were grown on acidic CYNB media for 4 days
- at 40 °C (27 °C for *Phialophora* and RT for *Collybia impudica*). Once removed to room
- temperature, 5 mL of 1.3 mM ABTS (Sigma-Aldrich) in 100 mM sodium acetate buffer (pH 5)
- was applied to one side of inoculated split plates, and then allowed to sit for 10 min before
- 245 discarding the ABTS/buffer. Plates were allowed to incubate at room temperature for 1 hour to
- 246 develop precipitate, and then photographed for documentation. A second assay used ABTS (250
- $247 \text{ mg } \text{L}^{-1}$) with MnCl₂ (100 mg L⁻¹) in solid agar medium (acidified to pH 2.5) to also screen for

peroxidase enzyme reactions during fungal growth at 40 °C (27 °C for *Phialophora*) over 6 days
(Chairattanamanokorn et al. 2006). Fungal cultures that formed green precipitate during growth
were considered positive for general peroxidase activity and production of black precipitate
specifically indicate manganese-peroxidases.

252 **PCR Screening for Enzyme Genes**

253 To further evaluate the ability of the fungi harboring novel acid- and/or heat-tolerant

- enzymes, we used PCR primers targeting the conserved domains of fungal genes encoding
- 255 (hemi)cellulose-degrading enzymes (Kellner and Vandenbol 2010) using degenerate primers
- 256 (Integrated DNA Technologies; Coralville, IA) (**Table 1**). To screen for potential artefacts of
- 257 degenerate primers, a matching GH3 primer set with Inosine bases were ordered to compare
- function. PCR utilized GoTaq Green polymerase master mix (Promega), ~100 ng of fungal
- 259 DNA, and 0.5 µM of each primer in a total volume of 20 µL. PCR conditions and sequencing
- 260 were the same as used for ITS-rRNA. PCR bands were excised from the agarose, subjected to
- 261 freeze/thaw, and re-suspended in TE buffer (pH 8) prior to sequencing. Sequence results were
- 262 queried via BLASTn and BLASTx at NCBI, or the Joint Genome Institute
- 263 (<u>www.genome.jgi.doe.gov</u>). Sequences for all detected LVNP fungal (hemi)cellulose-degrading
- 264 enzyme genes have been deposited in Genbank with accession numbers KX064260-KX062627,
- 265 except for *Ochroconis* Glc1, which showed evidence of contamination and gave only weak
- 266 matches.

267

RESULTS

268 Fungal Isolates

269 Fungal morphological & genetic identification

270 Fungal morphology on standard PDA medium and micrographs of hyphae and 271 conidia/conidiophores were matched to related genera described in the literature (Table 2). When grown on the acidic ME plates, only Acidomyces and Ochroconis displayed secondary 272 273 metabolic characteristics like pigmentation and aerial hypha (conidiophore) formation (Figure 274 **1).** We confirmed each isolate using rRNA ITS PCR. Results were consistent with previous 275 findings except the suspected *Cladosporium* (Table 2). The BSL Aspergillus sp. and Acidomyces 276 sp. are similar to the annotated genomes (at NCBI and JGI, respectively), which allowed for high 277 values of genus/species identities, but the remaining BSL taxa are only known by partial 278 sequences and phenotypes. Current taxonomic classifications shared by all BSL fungi: Fungi, 279 Dikarya, Ascomycota, Pezizomycotina; followed by Eurotiomycetes (Aspergillus, Paecilomyces, 280 Phialophora, and Penicillium) or Dothideomycetes [Ochroconis and Acidomyces, a sister clade 281 to Tetrosphaeria (Yamazaki et al. 2010)]. Talaromyces is the anamorph of Penicillium, and 282 historically the genus names have been used interchangeably (Houbraken and Samson 2011). 283 Mixed sequence fragments from two of the four *Cladosporium* ITS PCR products indicated

284 contamination at time of DNA extraction.

Growth studies

286 Fungal growth temperature curves

287 Acidified liquid ME medium supported appreciable growth at warmer temperatures only for

288 Acidomyces and Ochroconis. Thus, a non-acidified liquid medium was used for the less acid-

tolerant fungi. *Phialophora* would grow on acidic (pH 2) ME and CYNB media, but not above

290 30 °C on any tested media, neutral or acidic. *Cladosporium* was not included in these tests due to

- 291 likely contamination indicated by PCR results.
- 292 Acidomyces and Ochroconis both showed visible growth in the vials above 40 °C and

293 measureable mycelial mass above 45 °C in pH 2.5 ME media (**Figure 2**). *Acidomyces* growth

- 294 decreased <27 °C or >40 °C, but grew well within this range. *Ochroconis* showed more sharply
- reduced growth above or below its 40 °C optimum. Both of these fungi can be considered acid-
- and heat-adapted. The remaining taxa (*Paecilomyces*, *Penicillium*, and *Aspergillus*) were tested

in a weakly acidic (pH 5) formulation of CYNB media over a similar temperature range. All
fungi showed a decrease in growth above 30 °C, although though they did produce measureable
mycelial mass at the warmer temperatures (Figure 3). These fungi may not be adapted for acidic
liquid environments like the other BSL fungi, as they are typically found on dry substrates, damp
soils, and decomposing vegetation.

302 To quantify the effects of temperature on growth using solid media, daily increases in 303 mycelial area were calculated over thirteen days. Similar to liquid media, Acidomyces and 304 Ochroconis showed an optimum at 37 °C on ME media, or greater on the PDA medium (Table 305 3), while the remaining fungi showed growth on PDA up to 40 °C, but their optima were 306 typically below 37 °C. Aspergillus often grew superficially across the maximal area in single 307 day, so we only included the 40 °C rate for later comparisons. For the remaining fungi, only 308 Paecilomyces had any growth above 40 °C, and only on acidic ME media. On either medium, 309 Cladosporium growth was very limited above 37 °C, while Phialophora did not grow above 30 310 °C. Thus, the largest increases of mycelial density on solid ME medium correlated well with the 311 liquid growth assay optima, further supporting the acid- and heat-tolerance of the adapted fungi. 312 Due to visible differences in growth morphology (mycelial density) between the neutral and 313 acidic media, growth rates calculated from radial measurements could not be extrapolated 314 between media formulations. In later substrate utilization experiments, this issue was remedied 315 by using a standardized basal medium (agar and YNB) and adjusting the pH before pouring the 316 plates.

317 Thermotolerance of fungi

318 Attempts to grow the fungi at summertime BSL conditions at temperatures (52 °C) and pH 319 ~2.2 were unsuccessful. Aspergillus grew slowly at 50 °C on Myco agar (pH 7) and PDA (pH 5) 320 media, but not on the acidic ME (pH 2) media and none of the adapted taxa grew at 50 °C on any 321 medium. However, they were tolerant of this temperature and began re-growing after being 322 returned to 37 °C. Specifically, Ochroconis and Paecilomyces began growing after the shift 323 from a week at 50 °C to 37 °C on all three media, while Acidomyces only showed recovery of 324 growth on the PDA medium. The remaining fungi did not grow after the shift down to 37 °C (27 325 °C for *Phialophora*). Of greatest interest for any proposed usage in biofuel production was 326 thermotolerance on acidic (pH 2) ME medium (Figure 4), as this scenario is likely to take place 327 within a biofuel reactor vessel. Due to ongoing discrepancies in defining thermotolerance in

fungi, the remaining fungi could be also considered thermotolerant if they could grow above 40

329 °C in another assay (Mouchacca 2007). *Phialophora* obviously is not thermotolerant based on

330 the previous growth assay. As noted, only Aspergillus, Ochroconis and Paecilomyces showed

331 growth recovery on the pH 2 ME media.

332 Oxygen requirements for growth

333 We observed *Acidomyces* and *Ochroconis* growing up the entire water column of a closed 15 334 mL conical tube, suggesting a tolerance for low levels of O₂ characteristic of higher 335 temperatures. However, there was no active growth in sealed anaerobic bags on PDA or acidic 336 ME at 37 °C after seven days (not shown). Once the bags were opened to allow gas exchange, 337 the fungi responded with near typical growth rates (**Table 4**) indicating a tolerance for 338 anaerobisis. Further evaluating low-level O₂ tolerance using sealed micro-aerobic testing bags 339 showed a considerably slower growth rate for all of the fungi compared to the aerobic plates 340 (Table 5). Fungi maintained typical growth morphologies under micro-aerobic conditions, and 341 resumed typical growth rates once released from the micro-aerobic bags.

342 *Carbon source growth tests*

343 Initial screening all seven BSL fungal for growth on polymeric C source solid media showed 344 strongest growth on acidic 0.1% w/v cellobiose when grown at 37 °C (27 °C for *Phialophora*). 345 Cellobiose, the smallest cellulose dimeric unit, supported growth of all seven fungi under neutral 346 and acidic conditions (not shown) and subsequently became the C source for the acidic control 347 media, and for liquid and solid preparations (CYNB). We observed little difference in fungal 348 growth on the YNB-only (no C source) plates compared to the xylan and cellulose plates (Figure 349 5), and later tests confirmed that Gelrite with added YNB at acidic pH could support growth of 350 the fungi, possibly due to chemical/thermal decomposition of the Gelrite into constituents 351 (including glucose; data not shown). To avoid mis-interpretation caused by the unintended 352 growth on Gelrite, we examined fungal growth in liquid media, where growth was determined 353 only qualitatively (presence or absence of fungal mycelia) due to difficulty in separating the 354 fungal mycelia from the remaining cellulose and xylan. The three fungi tested (Acidomyces, 355 Ochroconis and Paecilomyces) all grew well in the acidic beechwood xylan media, while only 356 Acidomyces showed growth in the cellulose media (Figure 6). Of the three fungi, only 357 Acidomyces grew on cotton ball fibers (Figure 7).

358 Plant material utilization for growth

359 Solid acidic media containing YNB and cellobiose, ground rice hulls, chopped incense cedar 360 scales, or chopped pine needles supported growth of Acidomyces, Paecilomyces and Phialophora 361 at permissive temperatures (Figure 8). Additionally, Acidomyces was able to utilize chopped 362 wheat straw for growth (Figure 8). Under these test conditions *Ochroconis* and *Aspergillus* did 363 not show growth on agricultural byproducts (rice hulls or wheat straw) but were positive for 364 growth on the substrates native to BSL (Figure 8). When growth occurred, the rates of growth 365 were similar between each substrate used in the media; the only confounding factor in making 366 calculations was the lack of uniform growth by a few of the fungi (**Table 6**). Interestingly, 367 Ochroconis did grow in liquid acidified media prepared with rice hulls and YNB (data not 368 shown); these opposite results hint at the inherent differences of using solid versus liquid media 369 for growth testing experiments.

370 Enzyme studies

371 Cellulase activity based on freed reducing sugar

372 Though the reacted glucose standard produced linear curves that were reproducible across the 373 trials, the amount of freed reducing sugars from both the CMC and filter paper assays were no 374 greater than the boiled or no-fungi controls, which themselves were below the detection limit of 375 0.03 mg (not shown). In addition, filter paper mass loss was not significantly different from 376 zero. However, both assays, although shown to work in microwell plates (van den Brink et al. 377 2012), had difficulties, and may require larger volumes of supernatant to capture more enzymes 378 and more DNS for greater sensitivity; typical assays use total volumes of 1 mL with 3 mL of added DNS (Jahromi and Ho 2011). 379

380 Laccase/Peroxidase activity screening assays

Production of green precipitate around *Acidomyces* and *Ochroconis* mycelia after growth on
 acidic CYNB media (pH 2) indicated high production of peroxidase enzymes. These exhibited

383 limited diffusion compared to the positive control basidiomycete *Collybia impudica* (Figure 9a).

- 384 Neither *Paecilomyces* nor *Phialophora* showed any indication of ABTS oxidation. Similar
- results were displayed by *Acidomyces*, *Collybia impudica* and another control basidiomycete,
- 386 *Mutinus caninus*, when screened for growth on acidic CYNB medium containing ABTS and
- $MnCl_2$ (Figure 9b), although none of the plates displayed black MnO_2 precipitate that is
- 388 typically used to indicate Mn-peroxidase specific function. The diffusion of a red pigment by

- 389 Ochroconis on this media is a typical phenotype for this taxon, but we did not observe it on the
- 390 acidic CYNB plates; this may indicate another redox reaction happening at higher temperatures
- 391 compared to the room temperature ABTS assay. Limited description of red pigment production
- is available (Yarita et al. 2007). *Phialophora* showed increased mycelial spread but did not
- 393 display oxidation of ABTS nor MnCl₂. The *Paecilomyces* did not show growth on the test media,
- though it is regularly grown on the acidic CYNB media at 40 °C, possible indicating growth
- 395 prohibition by either ABTS or MnCl₂ in the medium.

PCR screening for enzyme genes

- 397 To complement the growth and enzymatic results, the screening for glycoside hydrolase
- 398 (GH) genes from genomic DNA using the degenerate PCR primers (Kellner and Vandenbol
- 2010) produced fragments within the predicted ranges of 200-500 bp. Of the ten PCR products,
- 400 seven returned quality reads, with the subsequent translational BLAST queries returning
- 401 matching or orthologous predications for fungal cellulase, xylanase and cellobiohydrolase
- 402 enzymes (**Table 7**).

403

DISCUSSION

404 Adaptations of BSL fungi to hot and acidic conditions

405 To establish their potential usage in the pre-treatment of lignocellulose materials by 406 incorporation into acidic and hot pre-treatment conditions (Barnard et al. 2010), we needed to 407 first show the BSL fungi grew or at least tolerated extreme conditions similar to biofuels pre-408 treatment. Based on their ability to thrive at various temperatures and pH values, we separated 409 the seven BSL fungi into three groups: the 'adapted' fungi which showed acid and heat 410 preference and/or tolerance (Acidomyces, Ochroconis and Paecilomyces); an acid-tolerant but 411 not heat-tolerant fungi (*Phialophora*); and the 'cosmopolitan' fungi that proved to be moderately 412 heat-tolerant but less tolerant of acidic conditions (Aspergillus, Penicillium and Cladosporium). 413 The three 'adapted' taxa Acidomyces, Ochroconis, and Paecilomyces were capable of growth at 414 >40 °C and pH 2.5; these results are congruent with published works on the genera. Relatives of 415 the BSL Acidomyces sp. (A. richmondensis) are found in extremely acid conditions (pH <1) in 416 Iron Mountain Mine in northern California (Baker et al. 2009), acidic peat bogs in Czech Republic (A. acidophilus) (Hujslová et al. 2010) and a sulfur stock pile in Alberta, Canada (syn. 417 418 Scytalidium acidophilum) (Selbmann et al. 2008). Similar growth is described in the closely-419 related acid- and thermal-tolerant taxon *Tetrosphaeria* isolated from Japanese hot springs 420 (Yamazaki et al. 2010). The Ochroconis sp. is also similar to a taxon isolated from Japanese hot 421 springs, Ochroconis calidifluminalis, that is acid-tolerant with optimal growth at 42 °C, and 422 produces red pigment after multiple plate transfers (Yarita et al. 2010). The Paecilomyces genus 423 is quite large at this point, with many isolates showing some thermal and/or acidic tolerance 424 (Gross and Robbins 2000; Hujslová et al. 2010).

425 Beyond their temperature and pH tolerances, a few other attributes increases the utility of 426 these three BSL fungi for pre-treatment. Both *Paecilomyces* and *Ochroconis* returned to typical growth patterns after halting during five-day incubation at 50 °C. This is a useful trait if live 427 428 fungi are used throughout the pre-treatment process, where temperatures may be higher than 429 optimal. Acidomyces was not as tolerant to the 50 °C shift; even if it just required a few more 430 days to recover, the slow response would still be a disadvantage. All three of the adapted fungi 431 grew under micro-aerobic conditions and quickly recovered to typical growth after transfer from 432 anaerobic conditions, useful attributes during the pre-treatment process where oxygenation can

be limited by solids loading and liquid volumes fluctuation. Further, as the typical dilute acid
pre-treatment process uses varying water flow regimes to move material through the treatment
infrastructure, it is helpful that *Acidomyces* and *Ochroconis* grow equally in static and dynamic
liquid environments, often aggregating small particulates. In contrast, use of *Paecilomyces*,
which had reduced growth under dynamic liquid conditions, might be limited to static or slowmoving configurations.

The *Phialophora* sp. isolate was successful at pH 2.5, showing acid tolerance similar to
descriptions of related genera (Gross and Robbins 2000; Zhang et al. 2011), but only displayed
mycelial growth up to 27 °C. However, *Phialophora* may be better suited for acidic processes
that take place closer to ambient temperatures.

443 The 'cosmopolitan' taxa Aspergillus, Penicillium and Cladosporium each grew at >40 °C but 444 not with concurrent pH <3. In particular, the Aspergillus showed some growth at 50 °C, the 445 highest of all seven fungi, but it was growing on standard PDA medium with pH ~5. It appears 446 that growth of these three fungi species requires a tradeoff of heat tolerance for acid tolerance 447 and vice-versa under our challenging conditions. As the most widely studied fungi of our seven. 448 relatives of these three fungi are found in a wide variety of conditions, but typically grow only at 449 <40 °C in conditions >pH 4 (Gao et al. 2008; Gross and Robbins 2000; Khalid et al. 2006). The 450 use of these fungi in biofuels is less focused on concurrent hot acid pre-treatment processes, and 451 more for free enzyme production that can used after chemical/mechanical steps (Bhalla et al. 452 2013).

453 Fungal utilization of lignocellulosic material at high temperature and low pH

454 With the BSL shoreline and side pool environments providing the hot and acidic conditions 455 and the frequent inputs of plant materials, it was not a surprise that several of the fungi could 456 utilize individual lignocellulosic components (cellobiose, cellulose and xylan) or plant materials 457 for growth in laboratory conditions. We selected plant materials found in the BSL environment 458 (incense cedar scales and pine needles), attempting to mimic possible utilization/degradation in 459 the natural system, but which also have higher amount of ligning, pecting, and other compounds 460 that resist microbial degradation (Song et al. 2009). Also tested were agricultural byproducts 461 typical of crops that carry potential for use as biofuel feedstock (e.g. rice hulls, rice straw and 462 wheat straw). These are cheap and have higher ratios of (hemi)celluloses to lignin (Jahromi and 463 Ho 2011; Perlack and Stokes 2011). Because lignin components are often not utilized by brownrot and soft-rot fungi, or modified by white-rot fungi to allow the fungus access to more
(hemi)cellulose, we did not screen for growth on isolated lignin compounds (Martínez et al.
2005).

467 The environmental conditions at BSL (pH 2; 52 °C) likely contribute to chemical hydrolysis 468 of plant materials, resulting in soluble xylose and glucose oligomers diffusing from submerged 469 plant litter. Although we were concerned that the acidified media would chemically hydrolyze 470 cellulose, the H₂SO₄ concentration (~0.1% w/v) and incubation temperature (40 °C) are well below typical dilute-acid treatments that employ H₂SO₄ at 0.5% w/v and 140 °C (Avci et al. 471 472 2013). Hemicelluloses are easily degraded abiotically, but based on extrapolations from hot 473 water-treated sugar maple chips (Hu et al. 2010), it would take about twelve days to chemically 474 hydrolyze half the remaining xylan in the acidic media formulation at 40 °C. To ensure that 475 growth on these substrates resulted from actual fungal degradation of polymeric substrates, not 476 use of abiotically-produced monomers, plant materials were rinsed twice after autoclave 477 sterilization. This minimized solubilized glucose, cellobiose, xylose or arabinose, as well as 478 potential inhibitors such as acetate or furfural.

479 Using fungal growth as a proxy for potential lignocellulose degradation (Shrestha et al. 480 2011), we categorize the fungi based on their utilization of diverse lignocellulosic materials 481 under warm and acidic conditions (Table 8). The three fungi showing the strongest growth in 482 warm and acidic conditions also showed the most potential for biofuels with their flexibility of 483 substrates. Acidomyces showed the most versatility at pH ~2.5 and 37-40 °C, with qualitative 484 growth on major lignocellulose components (cellobiose, cellulose, xylan, and cotton fiber), and 485 quantifiable growth rates of mycelial increase on incense cedar and pine needles, rice hulls, rice 486 straw, and wheat straw. The second most versatile BSL fungus, Paecilomyces, had growth 487 verified on cellobiose and xylan, and comparable growth rates on rice hulls, incense cedar, and 488 pine needles to control plates, all at pH ~2.5 from 37-40 °C. Ochroconis sustained growth on 489 cellobiose, xylan, incense cedar, or pine needle media at pH ~2.5 from 37-40 °C. Phialophora, 490 though not thermotolerant, could utilize cellobiose, rice hulls, incense cedar, and pine needles at 491 pH ~2.5 at 27 °C. The well-studied and versatile *Aspergillus* grew on cellobiose, incense cedar, and pine needles at pH 2 and 40 °C. Thus, the majority of BSL fungi can grow *in vitro* on 492 493 lignocellulosic materials found in their native environment, and a few also demonstrate the 494 versatility to grow on crop residues typically used for lignocellulosic biofuels.

495 Extracellular fungal enzymes useful for lignocellulose degradation

496 Lignin degradation is usually thought to be a specialty of the white-rot basidiomycetes (e.g. 497 *Phanerochaete chrysosporium* and *Trametes versicolor*), but ascomycetes associated with plant 498 degradation also have various suites of laccases or Mn-peroxidases (Baldrian 2006; Chang et al. 499 2012; Hoegger et al. 2006). The resulting oxidation of ABTS at room temperature on acidic 500 media and growth on the ABTS/manganese plates by the BSL Acidomyces and Ochroconis at 40 501 °C and pH 2 indicates laccase/peroxidase enzymes that function under acidic and hot conditions, 502 though the lack of dark precipitate may indicate a lack of Mn-peroxidase activity (Steffen et al. 503 2000). These conditions are comparable to Pycnoporus coccinues, which also functions at 504 elevated temperatures, but was only tested at pH 4.5 (Chairattanamanokorn et al. 2006). Our 505 Paecilomyces, Phialophora and Aspergillus isolates did not show ABTS oxidation under either 506 testing condition, although Aspergillus niger is known to harbor peroxidase enzymes under non-507 acidic conditions (Ramos et al. 2011). 508 Although the reducing sugar/DNS assay failed to demonstrate evidence of extracellular 509 cellulase activity from Acidomyces, Ochroconis, and Paecilomyces culture supernatants, our 510 PCR-based screening strategy using primers designed to detect conserved regions of known 511 fungal lignocellulose degradation enzymes (Kellner and Vandenbol 2010; Lang and Orgogozo 512 2011) indicated the presence of potential enzymes. Although we screened genomic DNA, PCR 513 was successful in forming products that represented 3-4 (hemi)cellulose-degrading genes per 514 fungus. Additionally, the positive control fungal cultures also formed products from genomic 515 DNA that agreed with this experimental product (H. Kellner, personal communication). The 516 sequenced PCR products aligned well within the annotated protein sequences of known acid- and 517 thermo-tolerant Acidomyces richmondensis (JGI BLASTx) and thermotolerant Aspergillus 518 *fumigatus* (NCBI BLASTx). Even with the lack of matching annotations, our three other 519 sufficiently-performing acid-tolerant fungi (Ochroconis, Paecilomyces and Phialophora) still 520 maintain potential for biofuels pre-treatment, based on their products typically aligning with 521 orthologous enzymes from thermotolerant fungi (**Table 7**). Although detection of a gene does

522 not imply a functional enzyme, we note that this preliminary genetic screen is likely an

523 underestimate of potential degradation machinery, as it targeted only known, conserved genes.

524 Growth on cellulose requires the cooperative participation of many endo- and exogluconases,

525 and notably only in *Acidomyces*, the sole taxon to grow on cotton, did we detect Glc2, GH6, and

- 526 GH67 together. We did not try to characterize hemicellulose-degrading xylanases, as the
- 527 xylose/arabinose oligomers are easily hydrolyzed under the conditions that target the tougher
- 528 cellulose or lignin components (Hu et al. 2010; Pu et al. 2013; Shen et al. 2011).

529

IMPLICATIONS

530	Lignocellulose utilization and ABTS oxidation assays results, combined with PCR-based
531	detection of relevant genes, suggest that BSL fungi, in particular Acidomyces and Ochroconis,
532	and to a lesser extent Paecilomyces, contain viable sets of (hemi)cellulose- and lignin-degrading
533	enzymes that likely function in warm and acidic conditions. These fungi are worthy candidates
534	of enzymes for concurrent hot acid and biological pre-treatment process in the production of
535	lignocellulose biofuels. Enzyme purification and characterization might lead to novel enzymes,
536	or help improve existing enzymes (Gostinčar and Turk 2012; Graham et al. 2011; Wijma et al.
537	2013). In addition, utilizing the melanization and ABTS oxidation capabilities of Acidomyces
538	and Ochroconis might replace or complement current chemical treatments for bioremediation or
539	decolorizing wastewater (Chairattanamanokorn et al. 2006; Kalpana et al. 2012). Lassen
540	Volcanic National Park's diverse geothermal habitats likely harbor other novel fungal enzymes
541	of use for industry or biotechnology.

542 **REFERENCES CITED** 543 Ali, S.S., Khan, M., Fagan, B., Mullins, E., and Doohan, F.M. (2012) Exploiting the inter-strain 544 divergence of Fusarium oxysporum for microbial bioprocessing of lignocellulose to bioethanol. AMB Express, 2, 16-27. 545 546 Alvira, P., Tomás-Pejó, E., Ballesteros, M., and Negro, M.J. (2010) Pretreatment technologies 547 for an efficient bioethanol production process based on enzymatic hydrolysis, A review. 548 Bioresoure Technology, 101, 4851-4861. 549 Amaral Zettler, L.A., Messerli, M.A., Laatsch, A.D., Smith, P.J.S., and Sogin, M.L. (2003) From 550 genes to genomes, beyond biodiversity in Spain's Rio Tinto. Biological Bulletin, 204, 205-551 209. 552 Amore, A., and Faraco, V. (2012) Potential of fungi as category I Consolidated BioProcessing 553 organisms for cellulosic ethanol production. Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews, 16, 554 3286-3301. 555 Avci, A., Saha, B.C., Kennedy, G.J., and Cotta, M.A. (2013) Dilute sulfuric acid pretreatment of 556 corn stover for enzymatic hydrolysis and efficient ethanol production by recombinant 557 Escherichia coli FBR5 without detoxification. Bioresource Technology, 142, 312-319. 558 Bai Y., Wang, J., Zhang, Z., Shi, P., Luo, H., Huang, H., Luo, C., and Yao, B. (2010) A novel 559 family 9 β -1,3(4)-glucanase from thermoacidophilic Alicyclobacillus sp. A4 with potential 560 applications in the brewing industry. Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology, 87, 251-259. 561 Baker, B.J., Lutz, M.A., Dawson, S.C., Bond, P.L., and Banfield, J.F. (2004) Metabolically 562 active eukaryotic communities in extremely acidic mine drainage. Applied and Environmental Microbiology, 70, 6264-6271. 563

Baker, B.J., Tyson, G.W., Goosherst, L., and Banfield, J.F. (2009) Insights into the diversity of
eukaryotes in acid mine drainage biofilm communities. Applied and Environmental
Microbiology, 75, 2192-2199.

- Baker, J., and Adney, B. (1987) Measurement of cellulase activities. Pure and Applied
 Chemistry, 59, 257-268.
- Baldrian, P. (2006) Fungal laccases, occurrence and properties. FEMS Microbiology Reviews,
 30, 215-242.
- Barnard, D., Casanueva, A., Tuffin, M., and Cowan, D. (2010) Extremophiles in biofuel
 synthesis. Environmental Technology, 31, 871-888.
- Bensch, K., Braun, U., Groenewald, J.Z., and Crous, P.W. (2012) The genus Cladosporium.
 Studies in Mycology, 72, 1-401.
- Berka, R.M., Grigoriev, I.V., Otillar, R., Salamov, A., Grimwood, J., Reid, I., Ishmael, N., John,
 T., Darmond, C., Moisan, M.-C., Henrissat, B., Coutinho, P.M., Lombard, V., Natvig, D.O.,
 Lindquist, E., Schmutz, J., Lucas, S., Harris, P., Powlowski, J., Bellemare, A., Taylor, D.,
 Butler, G., de Vries, R.P., Allijn, I.E., van den Brink, J., Ushinsky, S., Storms, R., Powell,
- A.J., Paulsen, I.T., Elbourne, L.D.H., Baker, S.E., Magnuson, J., Laboissiere, S., Clutterbuck,

- 580 A.J., Martinez, D., Wogulis, M., de Leon, A.L., Rey, M.W., and Tsang, A. (2011)
- 581 Comparative genomic analysis of the thermophilic biomass-degrading fungi Myceliophthora
- thermophila and Thielavia terrestris. Nature Biotechnology, 29, 922-927.
- Bhalla, A., Bansal, N., Kumar, S., Bischoff, K.M., and Sani, R.K. (2013) Improved
 lignocellulose conversion to biofuels with thermophilic bacteria and thermostable enzymes.
 Bioresource Technology, 128, 751-759.
- Bhatia, L., Johri, S., and Ahmad, R. (2012) An economic and ecological perspective of ethanol
 production from renewable agro waste, a review. AMB Express, 2, 65-84.
- 588 Blumer-Schuette, S.E., Brown, S.D., Sander, K.B., Bayer, E.A., Kataeva, I., Zurawski, J.V.,
- Conway, J.M., Adams, M.W., and Kelly, R.M. (2013) Thermophilic lignocellulose
 deconstruction. FEMS Microbiol Reviews, 38, 393-448.
- Carere, C., Sparling, R., Cicek, N., and Levin, D. (2008) Third generation biofuels via direct
 cellulose fermentation. International Journal of Molecular Sciences, 9, 1342-1360.
- 593 Carroll, A., and Somerville, C. (2009) Cellulosic Biofuels. Annual Review of Plant Biology, 60,
 594 165-182.
- 595 Chairattanamanokorn, P., Imai, T., Kondo, R., Ukita, M., and Prasertsan, P. (2006) Screening
 596 thermotolerant white-rot fungi for decolorization of wastewaters. Applied Biochemistry and
 597 Biotechnology, 128, 195-204.
- 598 Chang, A.J., Fan, J., and Wen, X. (2012) Screening of fungi capable of highly selective
 599 degradation of lignin in rice straw. International Biodeterioration & Biodegradation, 72, 26600 30.
- 601 Chen, X., Tao, L., Shekiro, J., Mohaghaghi, A., Decker, S., Wang, W., Smith, H., Park, S.,
 602 Himmel, M.E., and Tucker, M. (2012) Improved ethanol yield and reduced Minimum
 603 Ethanol Selling Price (MESP) by modifying low severity dilute acid pretreatment with
 604 deacetylation and mechanical refining, 1) Experimental. Biotechnology for Biofuels, 5, 60605 70.
- 606 Cruz Ramírez, M.G., Rivera-Ríos, J.M., Téllez-Jurado, A., Maqueda Gálvez, A.P., Mercado607 Flores, Y., and Arana-Cuenca, A. (2012) Screening for thermotolerant ligninolytic fungi with
 608 laccase, lipase, and protease activity isolated in Mexico. Journal of Environmental
 609 Management, 95, Supplement, S256-S259.
- Dutta, T., Sahoo, R., Sengupta, R., Ray, S.S., Bhattacharjee, A., and Ghosh, S. (2008) Novel
 cellulases from an extremophilic filamentous fungi Penicillium citrinum, production and
 characterization. Journal of Industrial Microbiology and Biotechnology, 35, 275-282.
- Fischer, M., and Sawers, R.G. (2013) A universally applicable and rapid method for measuring
 the growth of Streptomyces and other filamentous microorganisms by methylene blue
 adsorption-desorption. Applied and Environmental Microbiology, 79, 4499-4502.
- Foust, T.D., Aden, A., Dutta, A., and Phillips, S. (2009) An economic and environmental
 comparison of a biochemical and a thermochemical lignocellulosic ethanol conversion
 processes. Cellulose, 16, 547-555.

- Gao, J., Weng, H., Zhu, D., Yuan, M., Guan, F., and Xi, Y. (2008) Production and
- 620 characterization of cellulolytic enzymes from the thermoacidophilic fungal Aspergillus
- terreus M11 under solid-state cultivation of corn stover. Bioresource Technology, 99, 7623 7629.
- 623 Ghose, T.K. (1987) Measurement of cellulase activities. Pure and Applied Chemistry, 59, 257-624 268.
- Gostinčar, C., and Turk, M. (2012) Extremotolerant fungi as genetic resources for biotechnology.
 Bioengineered, 3, 293-297.
- Graham, J.E., Clark, M.E., Nadler, D.C., Huffer, S., Chokhawala, H.A., Rowland, S.E., Blanch,
 H.W., Clark, D.S., and Robb, F.T. (2011) Identification and characterization of a
 multidomain hyperthermophilic cellulase from an archaeal enrichment. Nature
 Communications, 2, 375-384.
- Grigoriev, I.V., Nordberg, H., Shabalov, I., Aerts, A., Cantor, M., Goodstein, D., Kuo, A.,
- 632 Minovitsky, S., Nikitin, R., Ohm, R.A., Otillar, R., Poliakov, A., Ratnere, I., Riley, R.,
- Smirnova, T., Rokhsar, D., and Dubchak, I. (2012) The genome portal of the Department of
 Energy Joint Genome Institute. Nucleic Acids Research, 40, D26-32.
- Gross, S., and Robbins, E.I. (2000) Acidophilic and acid-tolerant fungi and yeasts. Hydrobiolgia,
 433, 91-109.
- Hasunuma, T., Okazaki, F., Okai, N., Hara, K.Y., Ishii, J., and Kondo, A. (2013) A review of
 enzymes and microbes for lignocellulosic biorefinery and the possibility of their application
 to consolidated bioprocessing technology. Bioresource Technology, 135, 513-522.
- Himmel, M.E., Ding, S.-Y., Johnson, D.K., Adney, W.S., Nimlos, M.R., Brady, J.W., and Foust,
 T.D. (2007) Biomass recalcitrance, engineering plants and enzymes for biofuels production.
 Science, 315, 804-807.
- Hoegger, P.J., Kilaru, S., James, T.Y., Thacker, J.R., and Kues, U. (2006) Phylogenetic
 comparison and classification of laccase and related multicopper oxidase protein sequences.
 FEBS Journal, 273, 2308-2326.
- Houbraken, J., and Samson, R.A. (2011) Phylogeny of Penicillium and the segregation of
 Trichocomaceae into three families. Studies in Mycology, 70, 1-51.
- Howard, R.L., Abotsi, E., Jansen van Rensburg, E.L., and Howard, S. (2003) ReviewLignocellulose biotechnology, issues of bioconversion and enzyme production. African
 Journal of Biotechnology, 2, 602-619.
- Hu, R., Lin, L., Liu, T., and Liu, S. (2010) Dilute sulfuric acid hydrolysis of sugar maple wood
 extract at atmospheric pressure. Bioresoure Technology, 101, 3586-3594.
- Hujslová, M., Kubátová, A., Chudíčková, M., and Kolařík, M. (2010) Diversity of fungal
 communities in saline and acidic soils in the Soos National Natural Reserve, Czech Republic.
- 655 Mycological Progress, 9, 1-15.

Jahromi, M.F., and Ho, Y.W. (2011) Efficiency of rice straw lignocelluloses degradability by 656 Aspergillus terreus ATCC 74135 in solid state fermentation. African Journal of 657 Biotechnology, 10, 4428-4435. 658 659 Kalpana, D., Velmurugan, N., Shim, J.H., Oh, B.-T., Senthil, K., and Lee, Y.S. (2012) 660 Biodecolorization and biodegradation of reactive Levafix Blue E-RA granulate dye by the white rot fungus Irpex lacteus. Journal of Environmental Management, 111, 142-149. 661 Kataeva, I., Foston, M.B., Yang, S.-J., Pattathil, S., Biswal, A.K., Poole Ii, F.L., Basen, M., 662 Rhaesa, A.M., Thomas, T.P., Azadi, P., Olman, V., Saffold, T.D., Mohler, K.E., Lewis, D.L., 663 664 Doeppke, C., Zeng, Y., Tschaplinski, T.J., York, W.S., Davis, M., Mohnen, D., Xu, Y., 665 Ragauskas, A.J., Ding, S.-Y., Kelly, R.M., Hahn, M.G., and Adams, M.W.W. (2013) 666 Carbohydrate and lignin are simultaneously solubilized from unpretreated switchgrass by 667 microbial action at high temperature. Energy and Environmental Science, 6, 2186-2195. 668 Kellner, H., Luis, P., Schlitt, B., and Buscot, F. (2009) Temporal changes in diversity and expression patterns of fungal laccase genes within the organic horizon of a brown forest soil. 669 670 Soil Biology and Biochemistry, 41, 1380-1389. 671 Kellner, H., and Vandenbol, M. (2010) Fungi unearthed, transcripts encoding lignocellulolytic 672 and chitinolytic enzymes in forest soil. PLoS ONE, 5, e1097. Khalid, M., Yang, W., Kishwar, N., Rajput, Z.I., and Arijo, A.G. (2006) Study of cellulolytic soil 673 674 fungi and two noval species and new medium. Journal of Zhejiang University-Science B, 7, 675 459-466. Kluczek-Turpeinen, B., Maijala, P., Tuomela, M., Hofrichter, M., and Hatakka, A. (2005) 676 677 Endoglucanase activity of compost-dwelling fungus Paecilomyces inflatusis stimulated by humic acids and other low molecular mass aromatics. World Journal of Microbiology & 678 679 Biotechnology, 21, 1603-1609. Kocar, G., and Civas, N. (2013) An overview of biofuels from energy crops, Current status and 680 681 future prospects. Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews, 28, 900-916. 682 Krogh, K., Mørkeberg, A., Jørgensen, H., Frisvad, J., and Olsson, L. (2004) Screening genus 683 Penicillium for producers of cellulolytic and xylanolytic enzymes. Applied Biochemistry and 684 Biotechnology, 114, 389. 685 Kumar, P., Barrett, D.M., Delwiche, M.J., and Stroeve, P. (2009) Methods for pretreatment of 686 lignocellulosic biomass for efficient hydrolysis and biofuel production. Industrial and 687 Engineering Chemistry Research, 48, 3713-3729. 688 Lang, M., and Orgogozo, V. (2011) Identification of homologous gene sequences by PCR with 689 degenerate primers. Methods in Molecular Biology, 772, 245-256. 690 Łaźniewska, J., Macioszek, V.K., and Kononowicz, A.K. (2012) Plant-fungus interface, The role 691 of surface structures in plant resistance and susceptibility to pathogenic fungi. Physiological 692 and Molecular Plant Pathology, 78, 24-30. Li, C., Yang, Z., He, R., Zhang, D., Chen, S., and Ma, L. (2013) Effect of pH on cellulase 693 694 production and morphology of Trichoderma reesei and the application in cellulosic material

hydrolysis. Journal of Biotechnology, 168, 470-477.

- Luo, H., Wang, Y., Wang, H., Yang, J., Yang, Y., Huang, H., Yang, P., Bai, Y., Shi, P., Fan, Y.,
- and Yao, B. (2008) A novel highly acidic β-mannanase from the acidophilic fungus Bispora
 sp. MEY-1, gene cloning and overexpression in Pichia pastoris. Applied Microbiology and
 Biotechnology, 82, 453-461.
- Lynd, L.R., Zyl, W.H.V., McBride, J.E., and Laser, M. (2005) Consolidated bioprocessing of
 cellulosic biomass, an update. Current Opinion in Biotechnology, 16, 577-583.
- Maheshwari, R., Bharadwaj, G., and Bhat, M.K. (2000) Thermophilic fungi, their physiology
 and enzymes. Microbiology and Molecular Biology Reviews, 64, 461-488.
- Martínez, A.T., Speranza, M., Ruiz-Dueñas, F.J., Ferreira, P., Camarero, S., Guillén, F.,
 Martínez, M.J., Gutiérrez, A., and del Río, J.C. (2005) Biodegradation of lignocellulosics,
 microbial, chemical, and enzymatic aspects of the fungal attack of lignin. International
 Microbiology, 8, 195-204.
- Mosier, A.C., Miller, C., Frischkorn, K., Ohm, R., Li, Z., LaButti, K., Lapidus, A., Lipzen, A.,
- 709 Chen, C., Kaplan, J., Lindquist, E., Pan, C., Hettich, R., Grigoriev, I.V., Singer, S., and
- 710 Banfield, J. (2016) Fungi contribute critical but spatially varying roles in nitrogen and carbon
- 711 cycling in acid mine drainage. Frontiers in Microbiology, 7: 238-256.
- Mouchacca, J. (2007) Heat tolerant fungi and applied research, Addition to the previously treated
 group of strictly thermotolerant species. World Journal of Microbiology and Biotechnology,
 23, 1755-1770.
- Mowat, E., Butcher, J., Lang, S., Williams, C., and Ramage, G. (2007) Development of a simple
 model for studying the effects of antifungal agents on multicellular communities of
 Aspergillus fumigatus. Journal of Medical Microbiology, 56, 1205-1212.
- Olson, D.G., McBride, J.E., Shaw, A.J., and Lynd, L.R. (2012) Recent progress in consolidated
 bioprocessing. Current Opinion in Biotechnology, 23, 396-405.
- Parish, E.S., Kline, K.L., Dale, V.H., Efroymson, R.A., McBride, A.C., Johnson, T.L., Hilliard,
 M.R., and Bielicki, J.M. (2013) Comparing scales of environmental effects from gasoline and
 ethanol production. Environmental Management, 51, 307-338.
- Pedersen, M., Johansen, K.S., and Meyer, A.S. (2011) Low temperature lignocellulose
 pretreatment, effects and interactions of pretreatment pH are critical for maximizing
 enzymatic monosaccharide yields from wheat straw. Biotechnology for Biofuels, 4, 11-21.
- Perlack, R.D., and Stokes, B.J. (2011) U.S. Billion-Ton Update, Biomass Supply for a Bioenergy and Bioproducts Industry. U.S. Department of Energy, Oak Ridge National Laboratory
 ORNL/TM-2011/224, Oak Ridge, TN.
- Pienkos, P.T., and Zhang, M. (2009) Role of pretreatment and conditioning processes on toxicity
 of lignocellulosic biomass hydrolysates. Cellulose, 16, 743-762.
- Pu, Y., Hu, F., Huang, F., Davison, B.H., and Ragauskas, A.J. (2013) Assessing the molecular
 structure basis for biomass recalcitrance during dilute acid and hydrothermal pretreatments.
 Biotechnology for Biofuels, 6, 15-28.

734 Ramos, J.T., Barends, S., Verhaert, R., and de Graaff, L.H. (2011) The Aspergillus niger 735 multicopper oxidase family, analysis and overexpression of laccase-like encoding genes. 736 Microbial Cell Factories, 10, 78-89. 737 Redman, R.S., Litvintseva, A., Sheehan, K.B., Henson, J.M., and Rodriguez, R.J. (1999) Fungi 738 from geothermal soils in Yellowstone National Park. Applied and Environmental 739 Microbiology, 65, 5193-5197. 740 Reeslev, M., and Kjoller, A. (1995) Comparison of biomass dry weights and radial growth rates 741 of fungal colonies on media solidified with different gelling compounds. Applied and Environmental Microbiology, 61, 4236-4239. 742 Samson, R.A., Houbraken, J., Varga, J., and Frisvad, J.C. (2009) Polyphasic taxonomy of the 743 744 heat resistant ascomycete genus Byssochlamys and its Paecilomyces anamorphs. Persoonia, 745 22, 14-27. Selbmann, L., De Hoog, G.S., Zucconi, L., Isola, D., Ruisi, S., van den Ende, A.H.G., Ruibal, C., 746 747 De Leo, F., Urzì, C., and Onofri, S. (2008) Drought meets acid, three new genera in a 748 dothidealean clade of extremotolerant fungi. Studies in Mycology, 61, 1-20. 749 Shen, F., Kumar, L., Hu, J., and Saddler, J.N. (2011) Evaluation of hemicellulose removal by 750 xylanase and delignification on SHD and SSF for bioethanol production with steam-751 pretreated substrates. Bioresource Technology, 102, 8945-8951. 752 Shrestha, P., Szaro, T.M., Bruns, T.D., and Taylor, J.W. (2011) Systematic search for 753 cultivatable fungi that best deconstruct cell walls of Miscanthus and sugarcane in the field. 754 Applied and Environmental Microbiology, 77, 5490-5504. 755 Siering, P.L., Wolfe, G.V., Wilson, M.S., Yip, A.N., Carey, C.M., Wardman, C.D., Shapiro, R., 756 Stedman, K.M., Kyle, J., Yuan, T., Van Nostrand, J.D., He, Z., and Zhou, J. (2013) Microbial 757 biogeochemistry of Boiling Springs Lake, a physically dynamic, oligotrophic low pH 758 geothermal ecosystem. Geobiology, 11, 356-376. 759 Solomon, K.V., Haitjema, C.H., Henske, J.K., Gilmore, S.P., Borges-Rivera, D., Lipzen, A., 760 Brewer, H.M., Purvine, S.O., Wright, A.T., Theodorou, M.K., Grigoriev, I.V., Regev, A., 761 Thompson, D.A., and O'Malley, M.A. (2016) Early-branching gut fungi possess a large, 762 comprehensive array of biomass-degrading enzymes. Science, 351, 1192-1195. 763 Song, F., Tian, X., Fan, X., and He, X. (2009) Decomposing ability of filamentous fungi on litter 764 is involved in a subtropical mixed forest. Mycologia, 102, 20-26. Steffen, K.T., Hofrichter, M., and Hatakka, A. (2000) Mineralisation of 14C-labelled synthetic 765 766 lignin and ligninolytic enzyme activities of litter-decomposing basidiomycetous fungi. Appllied Microbiology and Biotechnology, 54, 819-825. 767 768 Stichnothe, H., and Azapagic, A. (2009) Bioethanol from waste, life cycle estimation of the 769 greenhouse gas saving potential. Resources, Conservation and Recycling, 53, 624-630. 770 Tao, L., Aden, A., Elander, R.T., Pallapolu, V.R., Lee, Y.Y., Garlock, R.J., Balan, V., Dale, 771 B.E., Kim, Y., Mosier, N.S., Ladisch, M.R., Falls, M., Holtzapple, M.T., Sierra, R., Shi, J., 772 Ebrik, M.A., Redmond, T., Yang, B., Wyman, C.E., Hames, B., Thomas, S., and Warner, 773 R.E. (2011) Process and technoeconomic analysis of leading pretreatment technologies for

- lignocellulosic ethanol production using switchgrass. Bioresoure Technology, 102, 11105-11114.
- Tian, C., Beeson, W.T., Iavarone, A.T., Sun, J., Marletta, M.A., Cate, J.H.D., and Glass, N.L.
 (2009) Systems analysis of plant cell wall degradation by the model filamentous fungus
 Neurospora crassa. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 106, 22157-22162.
- Tribak, M., Ocampo, J.A., and García-Romera, I. (2002) Production of xyloglucanolytic
 enzymes by Trichoderma viride, Paecilomyces farinosus, Wardomyces inflatus, and
 Pleurotus ostreatus. Mycologia, 94, 404-410.
- Turner, P., Mamo, G., and Karlsson, E. (2007) Potential and utilization of thermophiles and
 thermostable enzymes in biorefining. Microbial Cell Factories, 6, 1-9.
- van den Brink, J., and de Vries, R.P. (2011) Fungal enzyme sets for plant polysaccharide
 degradation. Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology, 91, 1477-1492.
- van den Brink, J., van Muiswinkel, G.C.J., Theelen, B., Hinz, S.W.A., and de Vries, R.P. (2012)
 Efficient plant biomass degradation by thermophilic fungus Myceliophthora heterothallica.
 Applied and Environmental Microbiology, 79, 1316-1324.
- White, T.J., Bruns, T., Lee, S., and Taylor, J.W. (1990) Amplification and direct sequencing of
 fungal ribosomal RNA genes for phylogenetics. In, Innis, M.A., Gelfand, D.H., Sninsky, J.J.,
 and White, T.J. (eds) PCR Protocols, A Guide to Methods and Applications. Academic Press,
 Inc., New York, pp 315-322.
- Wijma, H.J., Floor, R.J., and Janssen, D.B. (2013) Structure- and sequence-analysis inspired
 engineering of proteins for enhanced thermostability. Current Opinion in Structural Biology,
 23, 588-594.
- Wolfe, G.V., Fitzhugh, C., Almasary, A., Green, A., Bennett, P., Ervin, B., Wilson, M.S., and
 Siering, P.L. (2014) Microbial heterotrophic production in an oligotrophic acid geothermal
 lake, responses to organic amendments and terrestrial plant litter. FEMS Microbiology
 Ecology, 89, 606-624.
- Wolfe, G.V., Reeder IV, W.H.H., and Ervin, B. (2013) Novel materials enable a low-cost
 termpature-light gradient incubator for microbial studies. Journal of Microbiological
 Methods, 97, 29-33.
- Yamazaki, A., Toyama, K., and Nakagiri, A. (2010) A new acidophilic fungus Teratosphaeria
 acidotherma (Capnodiales, Ascomycota) from a hot spring. Mycoscience, 51, 443-455.
- Yang, S.Q., Yan, Q.J., Jiang, Z.Q., Li, L.T., Tian, H.M., and Wang, Y.Z. (2006) High-level of
 xylanase production by the thermophilic Paecilomyces themophila J18 on wheat straw in
 solid-state fermentation. Bioresource Technology, 97, 1794-1800.
- 808 Yarita, K., Sano, A., Murata, Y., Takayama, A., Takahashi, Y., Takahashi, H., Yaguchi, T.,
- 809 Ohori, A., Kamei, K., Miyaji, M., and Nishimura, K. (2007) Pathogenicity of Ochroconis
- gallopava isolated from hot springs in Japan and a review of published reports.
- 811 Mycopathologia, 164, 135-147.

- 812 Yarita, K., Sano, A., Samerpitak, K., Kamei, K., Hoog, G.S., and Nishimura, K. (2010)
- Ochroconis calidifluminalis, a sibling of the neurotropic pathogen O. gallopava, isolated
 from hot spring. Mycopathologia, 170, 21-30.
- Zhang, F., Shi, P., Bai, Y., Luo, H., Yuan, T., Huang, H., Yang, P., Miao, L., and Yao, B. (2011)
 An acid and highly thermostable xylanase from Phialophora sp. G5. Applied Microbiology
 and Biotechnology, 89, 1851.
- 818 Zhang, M., Eddy, C., Deanda, K., Finkelstein, M., and Picataggio, S. (1995) Metabolic
- engineering of a pentose metabolism pathway in ethanologenic Zymomonas mobilis.
 Science, 267, 240-243.
- Zhao, J., Shi, P., Bai, Y., Huang, H., Luo, H., Zhang, H., Xu, D., Wang, Y., and Yao, B. (2012)
 A thermophilic cellulase complex from Phialophora sp. G5 showing high capacity in
- cellulose hydrolysis. Applied Biochemistry and Biotechnology, 166, 952-960.
- 824

826

FIGURE CAPTIONS

827	Figure 1. Images and micrographs of the seven BSL fungi. (A) Growth on solid media shows
828	pigmentation and mycelial density are greater on PDA (left) than on acidic ME
829	medium (right). Growth for 7 days at 37 °C (27 °C for Phialophora). (B)
830	Lactophenol-blue stained fungal mycelia with hyphae connections, conidiophores and
831	conidia numbers (if visible) for each of the seven fungi grown on PDA media (Phase
832	Contrast, 400X).
833	Figure 2: Growth vs. temperature in liquid medium (ME, pH 2.5) for Acidomyces (A) and
834	Ochroconis (B). Shown are total mycelial mass produced over 7 days from an
835	inoculum of ca. 800 spores, with shaking at 75 rpm. Data points are averages, and
836	error bars present the range, of replicates. Note slightly different temperature settings.
837	Figure 3. Growth vs. temperature in liquid medium (CYNB, pH 5) for Aspergillus, Paecilomyces
838	and Penicillium. Other conditions were the same as figure 2, but only single
839	treatments were performed.
840	Figure 4. Images of fungi on acidic ME plate media during thermotolerance assay. Top rows
841	were photographed after 5 days at 50 °C. Bottom rows were the same plates after
842	moving to 37 °C (27 °C for Phialophora) for 5 more days. Only Aspergillus,
843	Paecilomyces and Ochroconis began re-growing after the shift to 37 °C, with mycelia
844	radiating from two separate agar plugs (red arrows).
845	Figure 5. Images of BSL fungi growth from initial lignocellulose degradation screening. Acidic
846	basal medium with YNB and lignocellulose component split plates (as labeled) for all
847	seven fungi after 13 days at 37 °C (27 °C for Phialophora). Growth is evident on all
848	media formulations.
849	Figure 6. Images of duplicate cellulose (top) and xylan (bottom) test vials, showing the presences
850	or absence of fungal growth. Cellulose only supported growth of Acidomyces (red
851	arrows), while all three fungi utilized xylan, as indicated by black, brown or tan
852	amorphous mycelia (red arrows).
853	Figure 7. Images of the Acidomyces cotton assay vials and cotton fiber. (A) The white cotton
854	material is at the bottom of the vials and some visible fungal mycelia can be seen on
855	the top portion of the cotton material as dark brown spots (red arrows), most obvious
856	in the cotton+ H_2O vial. The CYNB vial is positive for fungal growth with thick dark

857	mycelia (red arrow). (B) Samples of the cotton were removed to verify fungal presence
858	(100X), with three of the four vials showing dark clumped mycelia (red arrows)
859	amongst the thick cotton fibers. The bottom image was from the uninoculated control
860	vial, showing no mycelia, only cotton filaments.
861	Figure 8. Fungal growth on acidified plant material plates. Each plate was inoculated with a
862	mycelia/agar plug and incubated for 13 days at 40 °C (27 °C for Phialophora).
863	Figure 9. Peroxidase assay images. (A): Fungi on acidic CYNB plates imaged 60 minutes after
864	challenge with ABTS solution at room temperature. Each plate was previously
865	incubated at 40 °C, 27 °C and RT; as marked for 4 days. BSL specific fungi were
866	challenged on the right half of the split plates, with diffusing green precipitate
867	indicating peroxidase enzyme function (red arrows). Clockwise from top left:
868	Acidomyces, Ochroconis, Collybia impudica (positive control, no split plate),
869	Paecilomyces, and Phialophora. (B): Fungal growth on ABTS/MnCl ₂ peroxidase
870	screening plates. Fungi positive for peroxidase enzymes formed diffuse green around
871	fungal mycelia after 6 days at 40 °C or 27 °C (as marked by red arrows). Each plate is
872	representative of duplicate experiments. Clockwise from top left: Acidomyces,
873	Paecilomyces, Collybia impudica and Mutinus caninus (positive controls),
874	Phialophora, and Ochroconis.

875

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

876	We thank Drs. Mark Wilson and Patty Siering, Humboldt State University, and Dr. Kenneth
877	Stedman, Portland State University, for overall coordination on the BSL project. Dr. Harald
878	Kellner, Technische Universität Dresden, provided fungal control PCR material, and helpful
879	discussion on fungal enzyme sequences. Dr. Anika Mosier, UC Berkeley, sharing information on
880	thermoacidophilic fungi from nearby Iron Mt. Mine. Dr. L. Hanne, CSUC, provided rice hull
881	samples. Prior lab students Marnie Merrill, Laurel Hamming, Erika Keshishian, Adrian Green
882	and Areeje Almasary did much of the early work of isolating and maintaining the fungal isolates.
883	We thank three anonymous reviewers for careful reading of the manuscript and many helpful
884	comments. Financial support for this project was provided by National Science Foundation grant
885	#MCB-0702069 (GW) and Sigma Xi Grants-in-Aid #G20111015158288 (BE).

886

TABLES

Table 1. List of degenerate PCR primers used to screen for glucoside hydrolase (GH) genes
within the fungal genomic DNA. Modified from Kellner & Vandanpol (2010).

Primer set	Sequences (5'→3')	Potential Target
Glc1 (GH3)*	GGNMGNAAYTGGGARGGNTT	β-glucosidase (EC 3.2.1.21) xylan 1,4-β-xylosidase (EC
	AYNGCRTCNGCRAANGGCCA	3.2.1.37)
GH5	GNGTHTGGGGNTTYAAYGA	β-mannosidase (EC 3.2.1.25)
	GGYTCRTTNSGNARYTCCCA	
GH6	GAYGCNGGNCAYGCNGGNTGG	cellobiohydrolase II (EC 3.2.1.91)
	TCNCCNCCNGGYTTDACCCA	
GH67	GGNCCNATHGAYTTYCARGT	α-glucuronidase (EC 3.2.1.139)
	GCNCKNGTCCAYTGNCCCCA	

* primer sets ordered with and without N base subsitution for Inosine bases.

- Table 2. Characterisitics of BSL fungi. For morphology, each fugus grown on PDA media for 7 days at 37 °C (27 °C for
- 891 *Phialophora*). For genetic identity, hits returned from nucleotide (BLASTn) search at blast.ncbi.nih.nlm.gov and Acidomyces
- 892 nucleotide search (BLAST) at genome.jgi.gov. All results returned E-values of 0.0. ITS = internal transcribed spacer.

Taxon	Pigmentation	Condiophores	Conidia/Spores	Top Match Returned (% identity)	Accession	Reference
Acidomyces	Black deep-green	Not observed	Not observed	Acidomyces richmondensis v1.0 (from isolate) Aciri1_iso_Assembly Scaffolds_Repeatmask ed (99%)	JQ172744.1	Selbmann 2008, Baker 2009
Ochroconis	Pale brown	Modified hyphae	Single, bi-lobed with septate	Ochroconis gallopava genes for small subunit rRNA, ITS1 (99%)	AB125284.4	Yarita 2010
Paecilomyces	Light tan	Single	Multiple in chains, eliptical	Paecilomyces sp. ALAS- 1; ITS 1 (99%)	HM626196.1	Samson et al. 2009
Phialophora	White to pale pink	Not observed	Single, cylinderical	Phialophora sp. CGMCC 3329, partial seq; 1 (99%)	GU082377.1	Zhao 2012
Aspergillus	Grey-green	Single vesicule with multiple phialpaes vestigule	Multiples in chains, rounded	Aspergillus fumigatus strain SGE57; ITS 1 (99%)	JQ776545.1	Gross 2000
Penicillium	White to off- white	Branching with multiple phialpaes	Multiples in chains, eliptical	<i>Talaromyces</i> sp. OUCMBI101202 ITS 1 (96%)	JQ411391.1	Gross 2000
Cladosporium	White	Branching with single phialpaes	Multiples in chains, eliptical	Candida parapsilosis strain EN22 18S rRNA gene (98%)	FJ809941.1	Bensch et al. 2012

	Growth (cm ² d ⁻¹)				
Taxon	Medium	27 °C	37 °C	40 °C	45 °C
Acidomyces	ME	1.01	1.62	0.91	0.25
	PDA	0.57	1.03	0.57	0.25
Ochroconis	ME	0.61	2.54	2.42	1.31
	PDA	1.31	3.66	4.17	3.66
Paecilomyces	ME	4.17	2.66	0.57	0.13
	PDA	4.17	1.75	1.14	1.43
Phialophora	ME	0.34	0.00	0.00	0.00
	PDA	0.84	0.00	0.00	0.00
Aspergillus	ME	-	0.84	-	-
	PDA	-	8.03	-	-
Penicillium	ME	1.62	0.78	0.09	0.00
	PDA	2.75	3.19	0.33	0.00
Cladosporium	ME	0.05	0.07	0.01	0.00
	PDA	3.25	2.43	0.08	0.00

Table 3: Fungal growth rates versus temperature and media. Rates of growth based on increase

894 of fungal mycelia area with bold values representing the optimal temperatures for each fungi.

896 Table 4: Fungal growth rates post-anaerobic conditions compared to rates under standard

897 conditions (typical for that medium) at 37 °C (27 °C for *Phialophora*).

	Growth (cm ² d ⁻¹)		
Media	Post-anaerobic	Typical	
ME	0.88	1.62	
PDA	0.69	1.03	
ME	2.61	0.84	
PDA	8.07	8.03	
ME	0.28	0.19	
PDA	6.97	1.69	
ME	1.70	2.54	
PDA	3.63	3.66	
ME	2.38	2.66	
PDA	1.61	1.75	
ME	0.01	0.78	
PDA	2.73	3.19	
ME	0.88	0.86	
PDA	0.61	0.75	
	MediaMEPDAMEPDAMEPDAMEPDAMEPDAMEPDAMEPDAMEPDAMEPDAMEPDAMEPDAMEPDAMEPDAMEPDAMEPDAMEPDAMEPDAMEPDAPDA	Media Post-anaerobic ME 0.88 PDA 0.69 ME 2.61 PDA 8.07 ME 0.28 PDA 6.97 ME 1.70 ME 2.38 PDA 1.61 ME 0.01 PDA 2.73 ME 0.88 PDA 0.61	

898

899

Table 5: Fungal growth rates under micro-aerobic conditions compared to rates under standard

902	conditions (Typical) bot	h at 37 °C (27 °C f	for Phialophora).
-----	--------------------------	---------------------	-------------------

		Growth (cm ² d	1 ¹)
Taxon	Media	Micro-aerobic	Typical
Acidomyces	ME	0.87	1.62
	PDA	0.86	1.03
Aspergillus	ME	0.01	0.84
	PDA	2.08	8.03
Cladosporium	ME	0.08	0.19
	PDA	0.64	1.69
Ochroconis	ME	0.98	2.54
	PDA	1.49	3.66
Paecilomyces	ME	0.80	2.66
	PDA	0.46	1.75
Penicillium	ME	0.47	0.78
	PDA	1.06	3.19
Phialophora	ME	0.77	0.86
	PDA	0.89	0.75

903

- 905 Table 6: Growth rates for fungi at 40 °C (27 °C for *Phialophora*) on each media prepartion based
- 906 on increased mycelial area incearse over 13 days. Due to non-circular growth patterns
- 907 Aspergillus and Paecilomyces, rates were not calculated when growth was present, noted by (+).

		Growth rate (cm ² d ⁻¹)			
Taxon	Rice Hull	Incense Cedar	Pine Needle	Wheat Straw	
Aspergillus	0.00	+	+	0.00	
Acidomyces	0.81	0.54	0.65	0.64	
Ochroconis	0.00	1.77	2.09	0.00	
Paecilomyces	+	+	+	0.00	
Phialophora	0.82	0.7	0.7	0.00	

908

910	Table 7: Top matches of kno	vn genes (using NCBI BLASTx)) for PCR products of each functional primer set.
/ 10			

Taxon	Primer target: Top Hit returned	E-value	Max Ident.	Accession
Acidomyces	Glc1 (GH3): glycoside hydrolase family 3 protein [Acidomyces richmondensis]	1E-34	100%	KXL41872.1
	GH6: glycoside hydrolase family 6 protein [Acidomyces richmondensis]	8E-74	94%	KXL46768.1
	GH67: glycoside hydrolase family 67 protein [Acidomyces richmondensis]	9E-109	99%	KXL45919.1
Ochroconis	Glc1 (GH3): β-glucosidase [<i>Diaporthe ampelina</i>]	1E-15	90%	KKY29838.1
Paecilomyces	Glc1 (GH3): β-glucosidase [Byssochlamys spectabilis No. 5]	5E-37	96%	GAD99276.1
	GH67: glycoside hydrolase family 67 [uncultured fungus]	2E-97	83%	ADJ38273.1
Phialophora	Glc1 (GH3): β-glucosidase [Ophiostoma piceae UAMH 11346]	1E-09	46%	EPE10815.1
	GH67: glycoside hydrolase family 67 [uncultured fungus]	6E-40	48%	ADJ38275.1
Aspergillus	GH67: α-glucuronidase [Aspergillus fumigatus var. RP-2014]	5E-108	99%	KEY93400.1
Collybia	Glc1 (GH3): β-glucosidase [Penicillium occitanis]	4E-20	76%	ABS71124.1
ітриаїса	GH5: endo-1,4-β-mannosidase, putative [Talaromyces stipitatus ATCC 10500]	9E-52	89%	XP_002480621.1
	GH6: cellobiohydrolase II [Talaromyces cellulolyticus CF-2612]	2E-64	77%	BAA74458.1
	GH67: glycoside hydrolase family 67 protein [Acidomyces richmondensis]	5E-88	78%	KXL45919.1
Mutinus canidus	Glc1 (GH3): glycoside hydrolase family 3 [Spherobolus stellatus SS14]	1E-21	74%	KIJ48071.1

- 911 Table 8. Summary of lignocellulose material utilization by the BSL fungi at pH 2 and 40 °C or
- 912 37 °C (except *Phialophora* at 27 °C). C sources: CB = cellobiose; C = cellulose; X = xylan; PN =
- 913 pine needles; IC = incense cedear; RH = rice hulls RS = rice straw; WS = wheat straw. Symbols:
- 914 confirmed growth (+), lack of growth (-); blank = not tested.

Taxon	СВ	С	X	PN	IC	RH	RS	WS
Acidomyces	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Paecilomyces	+	-	+	+	+	+	-	-
Ochroconis	+	-	+	+	+	-	-	-
Phialophora	+			+	+	+		
Aspergillus	+			+	+	-	-	-
Penicllium	+			-	-	-	-	-
Cladosporium	+							



919 Figure 1

This is a preprint, the final version is subject to change, of the American Mineralogist (MSA) Cite as Authors (Year) Title. American Mineralogist, in press. (DOI will not work until issue is live.) DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.2138/am-2016-5552



926

927 Figure 3





952

953 Figure 5





956 Figure 6



957

958 Figure 7

	Rice Hull	Incense Cedar	Pine Needle	Wheat Straw
Aspergillus			\bigcirc	-561 -161 -261 -261 -261 -261 -261 -261 -2
Acidomyces	an and and			
Ochroconis			\bigcirc	
Paecilomyces				Grand and a second seco
Phialophora				A Contraction of the second se
Figure 8				

962

961

963



964

965 B



