




Thailand's amazing diversity: up to 96% of fungi in northern Thailand may be novel

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Received: 8 October 2018 / Accepted: 14 November 2018 / Published online: 22 November 2018
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Abstract

Fungi have been often neglected, despite the fact that they provided penicillin, lovastatin and many other important medicines. They are an understudied, but essential, fascinating and biotechnologically useful group of organisms. The study of fungi in northern Thailand has been carried out by us since 2005. These studies have been diverse, ranging from ecological aspects, phylogenetics with the incorporation of molecular dating, taxonomy (including morphology and chemotaxonomy) among a myriad of microfungi, to growing novel mushrooms, and DNA-based identification of plant pathogens. In this paper, advances in understanding the biodiversity of fungi in the region are discussed and compared with those further afield. Many new species have been inventoried for the region, but many unknown species remain to be described and/or catalogued. For example, in the edible genus *Agaricus*, over 35 new species have been introduced from northern Thailand, and numerous other taxa await description. In this relatively well known genus, 93% of species novelty is apparent. In the microfungi, which are relatively poorly studied, the percentage of novel species is, surprisingly, generally not as high (55–96%). As well as Thai fungi, fungi on several hosts from Europe have been also investigated. Even with the well studied European microfungi an astounding percentage of new taxa (32–76%) have been discovered. The work is just a beginning and it will be a daunting task to document this astonishingly high apparent novelty among fungi.

Keywords *Agaricus* · *Amanita* · *Colletotrichum* · *Cornus* · Fungal diversity · Pandanaceae · Rosaceae · *Rosa* · Teak fungi

Introduction

Fungi are an incredibly understudied, but an essential, fascinating and biotechnologically useful group of organisms. The fungi of northern Thailand have been studied by Hyde and coworkers since 2005. The studies have been diverse, ranging across ecology, traditional taxonomy, phylogenetics, evolution, microbial community and chemotaxonomy (Thongkantha et al. 2008; Pinnoi et al. 2010; Phookamsak et al. 2015; Wurzbacher et al. 2017; Norphanphoun et al. 2018; Tedersoo et al. 2018), to

growing novel mushrooms (Thongklang et al. 2014), molecular identification of endophytes and plant pathogens (Jayawardena et al. 2016b; Doilom et al. 2017b), and identification of entomophagous fungi (Xiao et al. 2017, 2018).

Although there are many negative facets to fungi (see Hyde et al. 2018), they are an essential component of most ecosystems and without them there would be ecological imbalance, and possibly mankind would not survive on earth (Watkinson et al. 2015). They are major contributors to nutrient cycling, and the main organisms which can degrade lignocellulose in wood and leaves (Pointing et al. 2005; Bucher et al. 2004; Tang et al. 2005); without them we would live amongst mountains of dead trees (Gadd et al. 2007). Many species exist as symbionts with plants

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and promote plant growth, including crops in many environments (Abiala et al. 2013). Fungi occur in the guts of herbivores and help to digest the consumed grasses, while some species are also passed out with the faeces and degrade dung (Kruys et al. 2015; Paul et al. 2018). Some species infect and kill insects (Sung et al. 2007), others cause disease of humans, their hair and skin (Gostinčar et al. 2018; Hyde et al. 2018) and many fungi are extremely important plant pathogens causing major yield losses, and are thus of considerable agricultural and quarantine importance (Cai et al. 2011; Hyde et al. 2014). Fungi also have an incredible biotechnological potential (Pointing and Hyde 2001; Hyde et al. 2010).

The fungi of northern Thailand have been studied by Hyde and coworkers for more than a decade and we have documented the biodiversity of both macro- and micro-fungi and more than 500 species have been introduced. Mushroom groups have revealed an amazingly high amount of novelty, the same result being apparent for the micro-fungal plant pathogens, saprobes, endophytes and epitypes. Other parts of Thailand have been less-well studied for fungi, however studies of BIOTEC, Hyde and coauthors, and others, have revealed an amazing novelty (e.g. Pinnoi et al. 2006; Pinruan et al. 2007; Tibpromma et al. 2018).

In this paper, the advances made in understanding the diversity of fungi in northern Thailand are presented together with details for eight examples presented from relatively conspicuous or important groups. This data shows that the species novelty in northern Thailand is amazingly between 55–96%. The data are being extended to two host groups in Europe, which also show a surprising unexpected amount of novelty.

Results and discussion

Studies of fungi in the conspicuous macroscopic genera *Agaricus*, *Amanita*, and *Lactarius*, the well studied microscopic pathogenic genera *Colletotrichum* and *Diaporthe*, the less well-studied hosts Pandanaceae and *Tectona grandis*, and foliar epiphytes in northern Thailand have revealed a novelty of between 55–96% (Table 1). Although we provide examples from these few selected groups, we feel they are both important and are well-studied elsewhere and thus may be representative of the majority of fungal groups. This astonishing novelty in such conspicuous and well studied genera and groups points to the overall fact that fungi are poorly studied and if one chooses an understudied genus such as *Phaeosphaeria* or poorly studied hosts such as ferns, one would expect to find an even higher percentage of novelty.

Novelty in conspicuous mushrooms

From our experience, it is easier and more common to collect larger and visible species; thus mushrooms (e.g. *Agaricus*, *Russula*) and larger ascomycetes (e.g. *Xylaria*, *Hypoxylon*) have generally been better studied (Daranagama et al. 2018). Because of this, we would expect to find a lower novelty in the commonly collected mushroom genera. However, we provide examples of the novelty of species found in three conspicuous genera, mostly in northern Thailand. We show that between 83–93% of these species are novel.

Agaricus

Species of *Agaricus* (Agaricales, Basidiomycota) are saprobes which grow in various habitats, such as grassland, forests, leaf litter, sand dunes and even occur in some arid areas (Parra 2008; Karunarathna et al. 2016). During the last decade, the number of known *Agaricus* species has increased rapidly especially in tropical regions where, thanks to the advances in molecular phylogenetics, many new species have been revealed. From January 2000 to September 2018, almost 200 new species have been described and more than 500 *Agaricus* species are now recognized (Chen et al. 2017; Karunarathna et al. 2016; Kerrigan 2016; Parra et al. 2018). Of these new species, 55% (102) were described from Asia, and most of these from China and northern Thailand (Ariyawansa et al. 2015; Bashir et al. 2018; Chen et al. 2012, 2015, 2016, 2017; Dai et al. 2016; Gui et al. 2015; He et al. 2017, 2018a, b; He and Zhao 2015; Hyde et al. 2017; Kaur et al. 2016; Karunarathna et al. 2014; Li et al. 2014, 2016; Liu et al. 2015; Mahdizadeh et al. 2018; Thongklang et al. 2014, 2016; Wang et al. 2015; Zhang et al. 2017b; Zhao et al. 2012a, b, 2016; Zhou et al. 2016).

We have collected more than 500 *Agaricus* specimens since 2005, mainly in northern Thailand. To date 38 new species have been formally introduced (Tables 1, 2) with perhaps another 30 species awaiting description. In addition, the cosmopolitan species *A. subrufescens*, *A. endoxanthus* (“great traveller”) and *A. microvolvatulus* are confirmed new records for Thailand (Thongklang et al. 2014; Wisitrassameewong et al. 2012a; Zhao et al. 2012a), while two species bearing identical ITS sequences to the types of *A. heterocystis* and *A. xanthosarcus* need further morphological study to confirm their identity (Zhao et al. 2011). Thus, more than 93% of the *Agaricus* species collected in Thailand are new to science.

This is remarkable novelty for a mushroom genus that is highly prized for its edible species. If only a few of the new *Agaricus* species could be cultivated, and were edible and

Table 1 Fungal numbers reported from Thailand discussed in this study

| Subject | Number of species reported before our study | Number of these species confirmed by molecular data | Number of species collected | Number of described new species | Number remaining undescribed | New records of known species to Thailand | Percentage novelty (%) | Expected new species in future studies |
|--|---|---|-----------------------------|---------------------------------|------------------------------|--|------------------------|--|
| <i>Agaricus</i> | 17 | 0 | 75 | 38 | 32 | 5 | 93 | 40+ |
| <i>Amanita</i> | 27 | 3 | 69 | 17 ^a | 40 | 9 | 83 | 25+ |
| <i>Lactarius</i> subg. <i>Russularia</i> | 0 | 0 | 23 | 17 ^b | 3 | 3 | 87 | 30+ |
| <i>Colletotrichum</i> | 12 | 5 | 39 | 16 | 10 | 8 | 67 | 50+ |
| <i>Diaporthe</i> | 26 | 0 | 26 | 13 | 12 | 1 | 96 | 100+ |
| Pandanaceae | 87 | 3 | 93 | 54 | 15 | 21 | 74 | 100+ |
| <i>Tectona grandis</i> | 15 | 0 | 53 | 24 | 5 | 24 ^c | 55 | 100 |
| Foliar epiphytes | 6 | 0 | 74 | 42 | 23 | 9 | 88 | 100 |

^aThree species recorded by Li et al. (2016); ^bOne species recorded by Verbeken et al. (2014); ^cTwo species recorded by Meeboon and Takamatsu (2017)

tasty, then numerous new species could be introduced to international cuisine (Thawthong et al. 2014). *Agaricus subrufescens* is an important medicinal species (Wisitrassameewong et al. 2012a), and we predict that many of the other species could also be cultivated and used as functional foods and medicine. It must be noted that before 2011, only 17 species of *Agaricus* were recorded in Thailand and these were published in local reports and books (Zhao 2008; Chandrasrikul et al. 2011). However, of these 17 identifications, many were linked to species originally described from Europe, such as *A. campestris*, *A. bisporus* and *A. bitorquis*; these determinations are doubtful and cannot be confirmed due to a lack of herbarium material, detailed descriptions and molecular data.

Amanita

Amanita is an important genus of mushrooms and its section *Phalloideae* includes several species that are widely recognized as the most poisonous mushrooms in the world (Hyde et al. 2018). The genus also includes hallucinogenic species such as *A. muscaria* (type species of *Amanita*) and *A. pantherina*, as well as prized edible mushrooms, such as *A. caesarea* and other species of sect. *Caesarea*. Most species of *Amanita* are considered to be ectomycorrhizal and their distribution in forests and heaths including Betulaceae, Dipterocarpaceae, Fabaceae, Myrtaceae, Pinaceae, and Salicaceae, suggests that they play a critical role in forest ecosystems worldwide (Weiß et al. 1998; Yang 1997; Zhang et al. 2004). There are 36 taxa reported as non-ectomycorrhizal (Wolfe et al. 2012). As of July 2018, *Amanita* comprises just under 1000 taxa of which

600 have validly published names, 305 are known by provisional names or temporary codes, and the remainder have misapplied, invalid or illegitimate names (Tulloss and Yang 2018; Cui et al. 2018). Cui et al. (2018) dealt with the rearrangement of the *Amanita*, mainly based on Chinese materials. They recognised 156 taxa of *Amanita* in China and reported on several others, but it is anticipated that additional species remain to be formally named. Although they gave no update on the total number of species in *Amanita*. Cui et al. (2018) revisited its classification and recognised eleven sections and three subgenera (*Amanita*, *Amanitina* and *Lepidella*).

Prior to the current study, 25 species (with one species affinis) of *Amanita* had been reported from northern Thailand (Sanmee et al. 2008). Since 2012, we have collected more than 250 specimens of *Amanita*, mainly in the north (Table 3). Of all *Amanita* species collected in Thailand, three are confirmed records of previously recorded taxa, nine are new records of known species, 17 are new species (three from Li et al. 2016) and 40 are species awaiting description. Thus, 83% of the collected species of Thai *Amanita* are new to science.

Lactarius subg. *Russularia*

Lactarius species are commonly known as milk-caps due to their latex exudation when the basidiomata are injured. They form ectomycorrhizal associations with diverse groups of terrestrial plants, both deciduous and coniferous. Some *Lactarius* species, such as *L. deliciosus* (L. Fr.) Gray, *L. indigo* (Schwein.) Fr. and *L. hatsudake* Tanaka are sought after mushrooms due to their pleasant taste. Of the

Table 2 *Agaricus* species recorded from Thailand (novel species are in bold)

| Taxon | References |
|-------------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| <i>Agaricus albosquamosus</i> | Zhao et al. (2016) |
| <i>Agaricus angusticystidiatus</i> | He et al. (2018a) |
| <i>Agaricus atrodiscus</i> | Ariyawansa et al. (2015) |
| <i>Agaricus badioniveus</i> | Chen et al. (2017) |
| <i>Agaricus bisporiticus</i> | Thongklang et al. (2014) |
| <i>Agaricus brunneolutosus</i> | Chen et al. (2017) |
| <i>Agaricus brunneosquamulosus</i> | Chen et al. (2015) |
| <i>Agaricus chiangmaiensis</i> | Karunaratna et al. (2014) |
| <i>Agaricus endoxanthus</i> | Zhao et al. (2012a) |
| <i>Agaricus erectosquamosus</i> | Zhao et al. (2016) |
| <i>Agaricus exilissimus</i> | Ariyawansa et al. (2015) |
| <i>Agaricus fimbrimarginatus</i> | Chen et al. (2017) |
| <i>Agaricus flammicolor</i> | Chen et al. (2017) |
| <i>Agaricus flavicentrus</i> | Liu et al. (2015) |
| <i>Agaricus flocculosipes</i> | Zhao et al. (2012b) |
| <i>Agaricus fuscopunctatus</i> | Thongklang et al. (2014) |
| <i>Agaricus haematinus</i> | Ariyawansa et al. (2015) |
| <i>Agaricus hanthanaensis</i> | Liu et al. (2015) |
| <i>Agaricus heterocystis</i> | Zhao et al. (2011) |
| <i>Agaricus inthanonensis</i> | Zhao et al. (2016) |
| <i>Agaricus leucocarpus</i> | Chen et al. (2017) |
| <i>Agaricus leucolepidotus</i> | Zhao et al. (2016) |
| <i>Agaricus luteofibrillosus</i> | Li et al. (2016) |
| <i>Agaricus luteopallidus</i> | Chen et al. (2017) |
| <i>Agaricus megacystidiatus</i> | Karunaratna et al. (2014) |
| <i>Agaricus megalosporus</i> | Chen et al. (2012) |
| <i>Agaricus microvolvatus</i> | Thongklang et al. (2014) |
| <i>Agaricus murinocephalus</i> | Zhao et al. (2012a) |
| <i>Agaricus niveogranulatus</i> | Chen et al. (2015) |
| <i>Agaricus parvibicolor</i> | Liu et al. (2015) |
| <i>Agaricus patris</i> | Chen et al. (2017) |
| <i>Agaricus pseudolangei</i> | Ariyawansa et al. (2015) |
| <i>Agaricus purpureofibrillosus</i> | Chen et al. (2017) |
| <i>Agaricus robustulus</i> | Chen et al. (2017) |
| <i>Agaricus sodalis</i> | Liu et al. (2015) |
| <i>Agaricus sordidocarpus</i> | Chen et al. (2015) |
| <i>Agaricus subrufescens</i> | Wisitrasameewong et al. (2012b) |
| <i>Agaricus subtilipes</i> | Zhao et al. (2016) |
| <i>Agaricus suthepensis</i> | Zhao et al. (2016) |
| <i>Agaricus toluenolens</i> | Chen et al. (2015) |
| <i>Agaricus variicystis</i> | Zhao et al. (2016) |
| <i>Agaricus xanthosarcus</i> | Zhao et al. (2011) |
| <i>Agaricus brunneogracilis</i> | Zhou et al. (2016) |

three currently accepted subgenera, *Lactarius* subg. *Russularia* (Fr.) Kauffman is a difficult group to study due to the similarity in macromorphological and latex features

Table 3 *Amanita* species recorded from Thailand (novel species are in bold)

| Taxon | References |
|--|-------------------------|
| <i>Amanita atrobrunnea</i> | Li et al. (2016) |
| <i>Amanita ballerina</i> | Thongbai et al. (2017a) |
| <i>Amanita brunneitoxicaria</i> | Thongbai et al. (2017a) |
| <i>Amanita brunneoprocera</i> | Thongbai et al. (2018) |
| <i>Amanita brunneosquamata</i> | Thongbai et al. (2018) |
| <i>Amanita brunneoumbonata</i> | Thongbai et al. (2018) |
| <i>Amanita castanea</i> | Thongbai et al. (2016) |
| <i>Amanita cinnamomea</i> | Thongbai et al. (2018) |
| <i>Amanita concentrica</i> | Thongbai et al. (2016) |
| <i>Amanita digitosa</i> | Li et al. (2016) |
| <i>Amanita esculenta</i> | Thongbai et al. (2018) |
| <i>Amanita flavidocerea</i> | Thongbai et al. (2018) |
| <i>Amanita flavidogrisea</i> | Thongbai et al. (2018) |
| <i>Amanita fuligineoides</i> | Thongbai et al. (2017a) |
| <i>Amanita gleocystidiosa</i> | Li et al. (2016) |
| <i>Amanita hemibapha</i> sensu lato | Sanmee et al. (2008) |
| <i>Amanita luteoparva</i> | Thongbai et al. (2018) |
| <i>Amanita macrocarpa</i> | Thongbai et al. (2017a) |
| <i>Amanita</i> cf. <i>oberwinklerana</i> | Thongbai et al. (2017a) |
| <i>Amanita pyriformis</i> | Li et al. (2016) |
| <i>Amanita pseudoporphyria</i> | Sanmee et al. (2008) |
| <i>Amanita rimosa</i> | Thongbai et al. (2016) |
| <i>Amanita rubromarginata</i> | Thongbai et al. (2016) |
| <i>Amanita rubrovolvata</i> | Sanmee et al. (2008) |
| <i>Amanita</i> cf. <i>spissacea</i> | Thongbai et al. (2017a) |
| <i>Amanita strobilipes</i> | Li et al. (2016) |
| <i>Amanita suborientifulva</i> | Thongbai et al. (2018) |
| <i>Amanita subovalispora</i> | Thongbai et al. (2018) |
| <i>Amanita zangii</i> | Thongbai et al. (2016) |

amongst species. Species in this subgenus can be recognised in the field by the orange to warm brown to reddish brown fruiting bodies, which are typically dry and fragile, the unchanging latex and the smell of Pentatomidae bugs. In Thailand, although subg. *Russularia* species are abundant in nature, they have been often overlooked by locals because they are small and fragile and have a poor taste. Subg. *Russularia* is one of the dominant mushroom groups in terms of the species numbers and numbers of basidiomata distributed in Thai forests. They are associated with several dominant genera of trees, e.g. *Dipterocarpus*, *Shorea*, *Castanopsis*, *Lithocarpus*, *Quercus*, *Betula* and *Pinus*. Until recently, knowledge of *Lactarius* subg. *Russularia* in Thailand was very poor; only *L. chichuensis* W.F. Chiu, *L. gracilis* Hongo, and *L. subzonarius* Hongo were reported (Le 2007). In addition, European names such

as *L. camphoratus* (Bull.: Fr.) Fr., were often applied for Thai species. Thus, the biodiversity of *Lactarius* subg. *Russularia* in northern Thailand was explored (Wisitrassameewong et al. 2014a, b, 2015; Liu et al. 2015).

More than 100 collections of subg. *Russularia* were made since 2007, most from the four northern provinces (Chiang Mai, Chiang Rai, Mae Hong Son and Lampang). For species delimitation, we relied on morphology, molecular phylogeny based on ITS and *rpb2* regions and to a lesser extent the ecology of host genera. Seventeen novel species (Table 4) were published, along with three new records for Thailand, and another three are new species awaiting description. Thus, in *Lactarius* subg. *Russularia* 87% of species collected in northern Thailand are new to science. We predict that with more extensive sampling, more than 30 new cryptic species will be found in coming years.

Together with collaboration from Mycology laboratory of Ghent University, we compared our data with data of European species in order to investigate the eventual intercontinental conspecificity of the mycota found in European temperate and Asian tropical regions. There is no case of conspecificity between European and Thai species. Therefore, European or North American names should generally not be used for Thai taxa. Apart from our

Table 4 *Lactarius* subg. *Russularia* species recorded from Thailand (novel species are in bold)

| Taxa | References |
|----------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| <i>Lactarius aquosus</i> | Wisitrassameewong et al. (2015) |
| <i>Lactarius atrobrunneus</i> | Liu et al. (2015) |
| <i>Lactarius austrorostatus</i> | Wisitrassameewong et al. (2015) |
| <i>Lactarius chichuensis</i> | Wisitrassameewong et al. (2015) |
| <i>Lactarius crenulatus</i> | Wisitrassameewong et al. (2014a) |
| <i>Lactarius falcatus</i> | Verbeke et al. (2014) |
| <i>Lactarius fuscomaculatus</i> | Wisitrassameewong et al. (2015) |
| <i>Lactarius grabrigracilis</i> | Wisitrassameewong et al. (2014b) |
| <i>Lactarius gracilis</i> | Wisitrassameewong et al. (2014b) |
| <i>Lactarius inconspicuus</i> | Wisitrassameewong et al. (2015) |
| <i>Lactarius kesiyae</i> | Wisitrassameewong et al. (2015) |
| <i>Lactarius laccarioides</i> | Wisitrassameewong et al. (2014a) |
| <i>Lactarius pasohensis</i> | Wisitrassameewong et al. (2014a) |
| <i>Lactarius perparvus</i> | Wisitrassameewong et al. (2014b) |
| <i>Lactarius politus</i> | Liu et al. (2015) |
| <i>Lactarius rubrobrunneus</i> | Wisitrassameewong et al. (2015) |
| <i>Lactarius rubrocorrugatus</i> | Wisitrassameewong et al. (2015) |
| <i>Lactarius sublaccarioides</i> | Wisitrassameewong et al. (2014a) |
| <i>Lactarius subzonarius</i> | Hongo (1957) |
| <i>Lactarius tangerinus</i> | Wisitrassameewong et al. (2015) |

described species, the sequestrate *L. falcatus* Verbeke & Van de Putte was also reported from deciduous forest in northern Thailand by Verbeke et al. (2014).

Novelty in plant pathogens

Diseases caused by plant pathogens may result in considerable losses to food production, as exemplified by black stem rust of wheat (*Puccinia* spp., Zadoks 1985), late blight of potato (*Phytophthora infestans*, Fry et al. 2013) and rice blast disease (*Magnaporthe oryzae*, Ou 1980). The introduction of exotic plant pathogens may also seriously affect farming, forestry and the environment (Jayawardena et al. 2016a; Hyde et al. 2018), as well as global plant trade resulting in huge economic losses to a country (Jayawardena et al. 2016a). Plant pathogens continue to develop resistance against chemicals and host crop defence mechanisms (Crouch 2014) and this has become a challenge in developing control strategies. Most pathogens are micro-fungi and although the fungus may not be easily seen, the disease symptoms they cause are both highly visual and often occur in epidemic proportions resulting in large yield losses. For this reason, plant pathogens are very well studied and not a group where we would expect to find a high diversity of novel species. In this study, we show that in two prominent plant pathogenic genera collected in northern Thailand, 67% of species in *Colletotrichum* and 96% in *Diaporthe* are novel.

Colletotrichum

Colletotrichum is one of the most important phytopathogenic genera worldwide affecting quality and yield of many economical crops (Hyde et al. 2009; Cannon et al. 2012; Jayawardena et al. 2016b). In a checklist of plant diseases in Thailand (Giatgong 1980), 12 named species of *Colletotrichum* were listed, while undetermined species were recorded from many different hosts. This host-fungi index was based solely on past literature and taxa were named based on morphological characters.

Molecular data are essential to identify *Colletotrichum* to species level (Shenoy et al. 2007; Cai et al. 2009; Cannon et al. 2012; Hyde et al. 2009, 2014; Jayawardena et al. 2016b; Damm et al. 2019) and therefore these old records must be treated as dubious. For example, in earlier studies carried out in Thailand many species were identified as *C. acutatum* and *C. gloeosporioides*. Both of these are now considered as species complexes (Jayawardena et al. 2016b). As there is no herbarium material or cultures we cannot recheck these records. We have been studying *Colletotrichum* in Thailand since 2007. *Colletotrichum gloeosporioides*, which was thought to be a common pathogen in tropics, turned out not to be that common and

may even not be present (Phoulivong et al. 2010). Phoulivong et al. (2010) analyzed DNA sequence data of 25 isolates from eight tropical fruits, which were morphologically identified as *C. gloeosporioides* in previous studies. Contrary to previous understanding, none of the 25 isolates clustered with the epitype of *C. gloeosporioides* in the multi-gene phylogenetic analyses. Than et al. (2008a) identified *C. acutatum*, *C. capsici* and *C. gloeosporioides* as the causal agents of anthracnose in chili in Thailand based on morphological characters. However, with the use of ITS and β -tubulin sequence data, Than et al. (2008b) showed that *C. acutatum*, *C. capsici*, *C. gloeosporioides* and *C. siamense* are the causal agents of chili anthracnose in Thailand. Morphological characters can be used to differentiate *Colletotrichum* into species complexes (Hyde et al. 2014; Jayawardena et al. 2016b) but, they cannot be used to separate species within a complex (Phoulivong et al. 2010; Jayawardena et al. 2016b).

We have collected more than 200 specimens of *Colletotrichum* mainly in north Thailand. Of these, eight are new records (hosts/locations), 16 are new species (Table 5) and ten new species that await description. Thus, in *Colletotrichum* 67% of collected species are new to science (Table 1). The remaining collection representing about 40 species need either more material or additional sequences other than ITS rDNA for a formal description. We predict that with extensive sampling, more cryptic species will be introduced in coming years, with perhaps more than 50 new species.

Diaporthe

Diaporthe (syn. *Phomopsis*) species are well known as pathogens, endophytes or saprobes on a range of economical crops, ornamentals and forest trees (Rehner and Uecker 1994; Santos and Phillips 2009; Santos et al. 2011; Udayanga et al. 2011, 2012a, b, 2014; Hyde et al. 2014; Dissanayake et al. 2015, 2017b, c). In the past species of *Diaporthe* were introduced largely on the basis of host association, which resulted in a proliferation of species names. However, it is now recognised that many of the species are not host-specific and a single species can be found on more than one host (Dissanayake et al. 2017b).

Only a few studies related to *Diaporthe/Phomopsis* pathogens have been conducted in Thailand. Hyde (1991) introduced a novel *Phomopsis* species: *Phomopsis mangrovei*, from intertidal prop roots of *Rhizophora apiculata* in Thailand. Sontirat et al. (1994) listed eight unnamed *Diaporthe* species and four unnamed *Phomopsis* species on various host plants in the checklist of Thai pathogens. Based on molecular data, Udayanga et al. (2012a) reported eleven undescribed *Diaporthe* isolates. Oern et al. (2015) found another *Phomopsis* sp. on dragon fruit stems in Loei

Province, Thailand, but no molecular data were used to support its identity. A survey of leaf spots associated with disease of durian caused by *Phomopsis durionis* was conducted by Tong Sri et al. (2016). Thus, until the incorporation of molecular data, 26 *Diaporthe/Phomopsis* taxa had been reported to cause diseases on various hosts in Thailand.

We have been studying *Diaporthe* in Thailand since 2012. Twenty-six species were collected mainly in the north, of which none are confirmed existing records, include 14 species formally described (Table 1). Of all *Diaporthe* species collected in Thailand, 13 are new species and one is new species record that we have described (Table 6) and another twelve are new species waiting to be described. Thus, 96% of collected *Diaporthe* species in northern Thailand are new to science.

Novelty in fungi on various hosts

Another approach to studying fungal diversity is to target a certain host, and make an inventory of the fungi that are associated with it, either as pathogens, mycorrhizal symbionts, endophytes or epiphytes. Tropical hosts are generally not well studied and fungal novelty might thus be high. We discuss fungi on Pandanaceae and teak (*Tectona grandis*), and show that 55–74% of species are novel.

Pandanaceae

The plant family Pandanaceae belongs to monocotyledonous and its species have a worldwide distribution and occur throughout Thailand. Microfungi on Pandanaceae in Thailand have been relatively well studied, although the taxonomic studies lacked molecular data (Manoch et al. 1986; Sivanesan 1987; Tokumasu et al. 1990; Thienhirun 1997; Sivichai et al. 1998; Goh et al. 1999; Pinnoi et al. 2004; Thongkantha et al. 2008; Whitton et al. 2012).

The fungi on Pandanaceae in Thailand have been studied by us since 2014. More than 150 specimens were collected, comprising 99 species. Of all the species we collected on Pandanaceae in Thailand, three are confirmed existing records, 21 are new records, 54 are new species (Tables 1, 7) and another 15 are new species waiting to be described. Thus, on Pandanaceae 74% of species are new to science.

Teak fungi

Teak is one of the most economically valuable hardwood trees globally. The genus *Tectona* is a member of the family Lamiaceae belonging to order Lamiales. Teak is distributed in many countries, and Thailand has a natural distribution of teak forests. Studies on the fungi on teak in

Table 5 *Colletotrichum* species recorded from Thailand (novel species from Thailand are in bold)

| Species | Host | References |
|--|--|---|
| <i>Colletotrichum acidae</i> | <i>Phyllanthus acidus</i> | Samarakoon et al. (2018) ^a |
| <i>Colletotrichum acutatum</i> | <i>Capsicum annuum</i> | Than et al. (2008b) |
| | <i>Fragaria</i> sp. | |
| | <i>Fragaria</i> sp. | Photita et al. (2004) |
| | <i>Capsicum annuum</i> | Suwannarat et al. (2017) ^a |
| | <i>Capsicum annuum</i> | Diao et al. (2017) ^a |
| <i>Colletotrichum aeshynomenes</i> | <i>Manihot esculenta</i> | Sangpueak et al. (2018) ^a |
| <i>Colletotrichum asianum</i> | <i>Coffea arabica</i> | Prihastuti et al. (2009) |
| | <i>Mangifera indica</i> | |
| <i>Colletotrichum boninense</i> | <i>Dendrobium</i> sp. | Ma et al. (2018) ^a |
| | <i>Manihot esculenta</i> | Sangpueak et al. (2018) ^a |
| <i>Colletotrichum brevisporum</i> | <i>Neoregelia</i> sp., <i>Pandanus pygmaeus</i> | Noireung et al. (2012) ^a |
| <i>Colletotrichum cariniferi</i> | <i>Dendrobium cariniferum</i> | Ma et al. (2018) ^a |
| <i>Colletotrichum chiangraiese</i> | <i>Dendrobium</i> sp. | Ma et al. (2018) ^a |
| <i>Colletotrichum citricola</i> | <i>Dendrobium</i> sp. | Ma et al. (2018) ^a |
| <i>Colletotrichum cordylinicola</i> | <i>Cordyline fruticosa</i> | Phoulivong et al. (2010) |
| <i>Colletotrichum doitungense</i> | <i>Dendrobium fimbriatum</i> | Ma et al. (2018) ^a |
| <i>Colletotrichum endophytica</i> | <i>Pennisetum purpureum</i> | Manamgoda et al. (2013) ^a |
| <i>Colletotrichum fructicola</i> | <i>Coffea arabica</i> | Phoulivong et al. (2010) ^a |
| | <i>Capsicum annuum</i> | Than et al. (2008a, b), Diao et al. (2017) ^a |
| | <i>Carica papaya</i> | |
| | <i>Dimocarpus longan</i> | |
| | <i>Cymbopogon citratus</i> , | Manamgoda et al. (2013) ^a |
| | <i>Pennisetum purpureum</i> | |
| | <i>Dendrobium</i> sp. | Ma et al. (2018) ^a |
| <i>Colletotrichum fusiforme</i> | Unknown | Ariyawansa et al. (2015) ^a |
| <i>Colletotrichum gigasporum</i> | <i>Alocasia</i> sp., | Liu et al. (2014) ^a |
| | <i>Hibiscus rosa-sinensis</i> | |
| <i>Colletotrichum gloeosporioides</i> | <i>Capsicum annuum</i> , <i>Fragaria</i> sp., <i>Mangifera indica</i> | Than et al. (2008a, b) |
| | <i>Magnolia liliifera</i> | Promptutha et al. (2004) |
| | <i>Stylosanthes fruticosa</i> , <i>Stylosanthes hamata</i> , | Masel et al. (1993) ^{N/A} |
| | <i>Stylosanthes humilis</i> , <i>Stylosanthes scabra</i> | |
| | <i>Alpinia malaccensis</i> , <i>Draceana sanderiana</i> , | Photita et al. (2004), Sangpueak et al. (2018) ^a |
| | <i>Eupatorium thymifolia</i> , <i>Alpinia galanga</i> , | |
| | <i>Mangifera indica</i> , <i>Musa acuminata</i> , <i>Manihot esculenta</i> | |
| <i>Colletotrichum graminicola</i> | <i>Rottboellia cochinchinensis</i> | Sherriff et al. (1995) ^{N/A} |
| | <i>Manihot esculenta</i> | Sangpueak et al. (2018) ^a |
| <i>Colletotrichum musae</i> | <i>Musa acuminata</i> , <i>Musa</i> sp. | Su et al. (2011) ^a |
| <i>Colletotrichum orchidearum</i> | <i>Hymenocallis</i> sp. | Damm et al. (2019) ^a |
| <i>Colletotrichum orchidophilum</i> | <i>Dendrobium</i> sp. | Ma et al. (2018) ^a |
| <i>Colletotrichum pandanicola</i> | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Tibpromma et al. (2018a) ^a |
| <i>Colletotrichum parallelophorum</i> | <i>Dendrobium</i> sp. | Ma et al. (2018) ^a |
| <i>Colletotrichum scovillei</i> | <i>Capsicum annuum</i> , <i>Capsicum</i> sp. | Damm et al. (2012) ^a |
| <i>Colletotrichum siamense</i> | <i>Coffea arabica</i> | Phoulivong et al. (2010) |
| | <i>Capsicum annuum</i> , <i>Hymenocallis</i> sp. | Than et al. (2008a, b), Yang et al. (2009) ^a |
| | <i>Cymbopogon citratus</i> , <i>Pennisetum purpureum</i> | Manamgoda et al. (2013) ^a |
| <i>Colletotrichum syzygiicola</i> | <i>Citrus aurantifolia</i> , <i>Syzygium samarangense</i> | Udayanga et al. (2013) ^a |
| <i>Colletotrichum tropicale</i> | <i>Pennisetum purpureum</i> | Manamgoda et al. (2013) ^a |

Table 5 (continued)

| Species | Host | References |
|-----------------------------------|---|---|
| <i>Colletotrichum tropicicola</i> | <i>Citrus maxima</i> , <i>Paphiopedilum bellatulum</i> | Noireung et al. (2012) ^a |
| <i>Colletotrichum truncatum</i> | <i>Capsicum annuum</i> , <i>C. frutescens</i> , <i>Capsicum</i> sp., <i>Manihot esculenta</i> , <i>Solanum melongena</i> , <i>Vigna sesquipedalis</i> , <i>Glycine max</i> , <i>Stylosanthes hamata</i> , <i>Hymenocallis</i> sp., <i>Gossypium</i> sp. | Photita et al. (2004), Than et al. (2008a, b), Yang et al. (2009) ^a , Diao et al. (2017) ^a , Suwannarat et al. (2017) ^a , Sangpueak et al. (2018) ^a |
| <i>Colletotrichum watphaense</i> | <i>Dendrobium</i> sp. | Ma et al. (2018) ^a |

^aPhylogenetic studies including other gene regions apart from ITS sequence data

Table 6 *Diaporthe* species recorded from Thailand (novel species from Thailand are in bold) confirmed with molecular data

| Taxon | Host | References |
|---|------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| <i>Diaporthe aseana</i> | Unknown dead leaf | Hyde et al. (2016) |
| <i>Diaporthe collariana</i> | <i>Magnolia champaca</i> | Perera et al. (2018) |
| <i>Diaporthe garethjonesii</i> | Unknown dead leaf | Hyde et al. (2016) |
| <i>Diaporthe neoraonikayaporum</i> | <i>Tectona grandis</i> | Doilom et al. (2016, 2017a) |
| <i>Diaporthe phaseolorum</i> | <i>Hylocereus undatus</i> | Udayanga et al. (2012a) |
| <i>Diaporthe pterocarpi</i> | <i>Pterocarpus indicus</i> | Udayanga et al. (2012b) |
| <i>Diaporthe pterocarpicola</i> | <i>Pterocarpus indicus</i> | Udayanga et al. (2012b) |
| <i>Diaporthe siamensis</i> | <i>Dasymaschalon</i> sp. | Udayanga et al. (2012b) |
| <i>Diaporthe tectonae</i> | <i>Tectona grandis</i> | Doilom et al. (2016, 2017a) |
| <i>Diaporthe tectonendophytica</i> | <i>Tectona grandis</i> | Doilom et al. (2016, 2017a) |
| <i>Diaporthe tectonigena</i> | <i>Tectona grandis</i> | Doilom et al. (2016, 2017a) |
| <i>Diaporthe thunbergii</i> | <i>Thunbergia laurifolia</i> | Udayanga et al. (2012b) |
| <i>Diaporthe thunbergiicola</i> | <i>Thunbergia laurifolia</i> | Liu et al. (2015) |
| <i>Diaporthe rosae</i> | <i>Rosa</i> sp. | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |

Expected number of new species: > 100

Thailand are few. Fifteen taxa, mostly without molecular data, have been reported from Thailand, such as *Alternaria alternata*, *Cercospora tectonae*, *Daldinia eschscholtzii*, *Hypoxylon haematostroma*, *Nigrospora sphaerica*, *Olivea tectonae* (\equiv *Uredo tectonae*), *Schizophyllum commune*, *Xylaria allantoidea* and *X. feejeensis* before we commenced our research (Giatgong 1980; Lorsuwan et al. 1984; Chareprasert et al. 2006; Meeboon et al. 2007; Mekkamol 1998; Okane et al. 2008; To-anun et al. 2011).

We have studied teak fungi since 2011. More than 120 specimens were collected mainly in the north. Of all teak fungi we collected in Thailand, none were confirmed as existing records, 24 are new records (two from Meeboon and Takamatsu 2017), 24 are new species (Tables 1, 8) and five are potentially novel species awaiting description. Thus, from teak 55% of collected species are new to science.

Novelty in various habitats

Specific habitats are generally less well-studied, especially for microfungi in the tropics and therefore we might expect

a high novelty if we study such a habitat in detail. In this section we look at the novelty of foliar epiphytes. These are minor plant pathogens and while some are highly visible, most are hard to observe, and as a whole have received little attention. In this study, we show that 88% of foliar epiphytes species are novel.

Foliar epiphytes

Fungal epiphytes commonly occur on plant surfaces, particularly the leaves (Carroll 1991; Gilbert and Reynolds 2002, 2005; Wu et al. 2011; Hongsanan et al. 2016b). This is a polyphyletic group belonging in the Ascomycota (Schoch et al. 2009; Li et al. 2016; Wu et al. 2011; Hyde et al. 2013; Hongsanan et al. 2016b). Fungal epiphytes, which are obligate parasites, can cause damage to host plants, e.g. resulting in lower yields, chlorosis and plant-stunting disease (Ariyawansa et al. 2015; Hongsanan et al. 2014a, 2015a, c, 2016b). The coating of hyphae on the surface of plants in some species may result in marketability problems (Chomnunti et al. 2014). The ecology and taxonomy of fungal epiphytes has been studied

Table 7 Fungal species on Pandanaceae reported in Thailand with morphological and molecular data (novel species from Thailand are in bold)

| Taxa | Host | Location | References |
|--|---|------------------------------|--------------------------|
| <i>Acremoniisimulans thailandensis</i> | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Prachuap Khiri Khan Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018b) |
| <i>Alternaria burnsii</i> ^a | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Chumphon, Ranong Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018a) |
| <i>Anthostomelloides krabiensis</i> | <i>Pandanus odorifer</i> | Krabi Province | Tibpromma et al. (2017a) |
| <i>Beltrania krabiensis</i> | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Krabi Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018b) |
| <i>Beltraniella pandanicola</i> | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Phuket Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018b) |
| <i>Beltraniella thailandicus</i> | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Chonburi Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018b) |
| <i>Byssosphaeria siamensis</i> | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Phang Nga Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018b) |
| <i>Canalisporium krabiense</i> | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Krabi Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018b) |
| <i>Canalisporium thailandensis</i> | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Krabi Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018b) |
| <i>Cercospora capsici</i> | <i>Pandanus amaryllifolius</i> | Chiang Mai Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018b) |
| <i>Chaetomium globosum</i> | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Prachuap Khiri Khan Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018b) |
| <i>Cladosporium endophyticum</i> ^a | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Krabi Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018a) |
| <i>Clonostachys krabiensis</i> | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Krabi Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018b) |
| <i>Colletotrichum fructicola</i> ^a | <i>Pandanus</i> sp., <i>Freycinetia</i> sp. | Chumphon, Ranong Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018a) |
| <i>Colletotrichum pandanicola</i> | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Phang Nga Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018b) |
| <i>Colletotrichum pandanicola</i> ^a | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Chumphon Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018a) |
| <i>Curvularia chonburiensis</i> | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Chonburi Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018b) |
| <i>Curvularia pandanicola</i> | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Krabi Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018b) |
| <i>Curvularia thailandicum</i> | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Phang Nga Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018b) |
| <i>Deniquelata barringtoniae</i> | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Prachuap Khiri Khan Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018b) |
| <i>Diaporthe pandanicola</i> ^a | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Chumphon Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018a) |
| <i>Diaporthe siamensis</i> ^a | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Chumphon, Ranong Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018a) |
| <i>Dictyochaeta siamensis</i> | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Prachuap Khiri Khan Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018b) |
| <i>Dictyocheirospora pandanicola</i> | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Prachuap Khiri Khan Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018b) |
| <i>Dictyosporium appendiculatum</i> | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Nakhon Si Thammarat Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018b) |
| <i>Dictyosporium guttulatum</i> | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Krabi Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018b) |
| <i>Dictyosporium krabiense</i> | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Krabi Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018b) |
| <i>Dictyosporium pandanicola</i> | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Krabi Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018b) |
| <i>Distoseptispora thailandica</i> | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Prachuap Khiri Khan Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018b) |
| <i>Endomelanconiopsis freycinetiae</i> ^a | <i>Freycinetia</i> sp. | Ranong Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018a) |
| <i>Endopandanicola thailandica</i> ^a | <i>Pandanus</i> sp., <i>Freycinetia</i> sp. | Chumphon Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018a) |
| <i>Helicoma freycinetiae</i> | <i>Freycinetia javanica</i> | Phang Nga Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018b) |
| <i>Hermatomyces krabiensis</i> | <i>Pandanus odorifer</i> | Krabi Province | Tibpromma et al. (2016b) |
| <i>Hermatomyces krabiensis</i> (= <i>H. chiangmaiensis</i>) | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Chiang Mai Province | Tibpromma et al. (2017b) |
| <i>Hermatomyces pandanicola</i> | <i>Pandanus odorifer</i> | Phang Nga Province | Tibpromma et al. (2016b) |
| <i>Hermatomyces saikhuensis</i> | <i>Pandanus odorifer</i> | Prachuap Khiri Khan Province | Tibpromma et al. (2016b) |
| <i>Lasiodiplodia chonburiensis</i> | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Chonburi Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018b) |
| <i>Lasiodiplodia hyalina</i> | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Chiang Mai Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018b) |
| <i>Lasiodiplodia pandanicola</i> | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Phatthalung Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018b) |
| <i>Lasiodiplodia pseudotheobromae</i> | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Chiang Rai Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018b) |
| <i>Lasiodiplodia theobromae</i> ^a | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Chumphon, Ranong Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018a) |
| <i>Lasionectria krabiense</i> | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Krabi Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018b) |
| <i>Malaysiasca phaii</i> | <i>Freycinetia javanica</i> | Krabi Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018b) |
| <i>Massarina pandanicola</i> ^a | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Chumphon Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018a) |
| <i>Meyerozyma caribbica</i> ^a | <i>Pandanus</i> sp., <i>Freycinetia</i> sp. | Chumphon, Ranong Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018a) |
| <i>Montagnula krabiensis</i> | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Krabi Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018b) |
| <i>Musicillium pandanicola</i> | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Chiang Mai Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018b) |
| <i>Mycoleptodiscus endophytic</i> ^a | <i>Freycinetia</i> sp. | Ranong Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018a) |

Table 7 (continued)

| Taxa | Host | Location | References |
|---|--------------------------------|------------------------------|--------------------------|
| <i>Neomassarina pandanicola</i> | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Prachuap Khiri Khan Province | Hyde et al. (2018) |
| <i>Neooccultibambusa thailandensis</i> | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Prachuap Khiri Khan Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018b) |
| <i>Neopestalotiopsis chiangmaiensis</i> | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Chiang Mai Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018b) |
| <i>Neopestalotiopsis phangngaensis</i> | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Phang Nga Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018b) |
| <i>Novomicrothelia pandanicola</i> | <i>Pandanus tectorius</i> | Chanthaburi Province | Zhang et al. (2017a, b) |
| <i>Pandanaceomyces krabiensis</i> | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Krabi Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018b) |
| <i>Parasarcopodium pandanicola</i> | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Krabi Province | Tibpromma et al. (2016a) |
| <i>Parascenedosporium putredinis</i> | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Krabi Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018b) |
| <i>Pestalotiopsis jiangxiensis</i> ^a | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Chumphon, Ranong Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018a) |
| <i>Pestalotiopsis krabiensis</i> | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Krabi Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018b) |
| <i>Pestalotiopsis microspora</i> ^a | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Chumphon, Ranong Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018a) |
| <i>Phanerochaete chrysosporium</i> ^a | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Chumphon, Ranong Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018a) |
| <i>Phyllosticta capitalensis</i> ^a | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Chumphon, Ranong Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018a) |
| <i>Pseudoachroistachys krabiense</i> | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Krabi Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018b) |
| <i>Pseudochaetosphaeronema pandanicola</i> | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Prachuap Khiri Khan Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018b) |
| <i>Pseudofusicoccum adansoniae</i> | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Prachuap Khiri Khan Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018b) |
| <i>Pseudohyaloseta pandanicola</i> | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Phang Nga Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018b) |
| <i>Pseudoornatispora krabiense</i> | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Krabi Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018b) |
| <i>Pseudopithomyces pandanicola</i> | <i>Pandanus amaryllifolius</i> | Chiang Rai Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018b) |
| <i>Rousoella solani</i> | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Phang Nga Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018b) |
| <i>Sirastachys phangngaensis</i> | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Phang Nga Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018b) |
| <i>Terriera pandanicola</i> | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Prachuap Khiri Khan Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018b) |
| <i>Thozetella pandanicola</i> | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Krabi Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018b) |
| <i>Torula ficus</i> | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Chiang Mai Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018b) |
| <i>Tubeufia freycinetiae</i> | <i>Freycinetia javanica</i> | Phang Nga Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018b) |
| <i>Tubeufia inaequalis</i> | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Krabi Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018b) |
| <i>Tubeufia pandanicola</i> | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Krabi Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018b) |
| <i>Tubeufia parvispora</i> | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Krabi Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018b) |
| <i>Volutella krabiense</i> | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Krabi Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018b) |
| <i>Volutella thailandensis</i> | <i>Pandanus</i> sp. | Prachuap Khiri Khan Province | Tibpromma et al. (2018b) |

^aEndophytic fungi

intensively for many decades, but still there are numerous undiscovered species (Blakeman 1981; Dickinson and Preece 1976; Fokkema and van den Heuvel 1986; Carroll 1991; Gilbert and Reynolds 2002, 2005; Wu et al. 2011; Chomnunti et al. 2014; Hyde et al. 2013, 2016; Hongsanan et al. 2014a, 2015a, b, 2017). This is largely because many taxa will not grow in culture as they are biotrophs and thus it is difficult to obtain sequence data (Hongsanan et al. 2014a, 2017). DNA extraction from fresh material has been used as a core solution to this issue, however, fungal epiphytes often grow intermixed with colonies of other species (Chomnunti et al. 2014), and this may lead to contamination problems and difficulties in obtaining appropriate DNA sequence from targeted organisms.

Mostly fungal epiphytes in Thailand have been reported without species-level identification (Athipunyakom and

Likhitekaraj 2006). The foliar epiphytes in Thailand have been studied by us since 2008. More than 170 specimens were collected mainly in the north, which included 74 species (Table 1). Of all foliar epiphytes we collected, none are confirmed existing records, nine are new records, 42 are new species (Table 9), and 23 are potentially novel species awaiting description. These 51 described taxa have been shown to belong to Asterinales (8), Capnodiales and Chaetothyriales (26), *incertae sedis* (3), Meliolales (7), Microthyriaceae and Micropeltidaceae (3), Muyocoprionales (1), Zeloasperisporiales (3) (Wu et al. 2011; Hongsanan et al. 2014a, b, 2015a, b, c, 2016a, b, 2017; Liu et al. 2015; Ariyawansa et al. 2015; Hyde et al. 2016; Tibpromma et al. 2017b). Thus, 88% of foliar epiphyte species collected are new to science.

Table 8 Species of fungi on *Tectona grandis* mostly reported in northern Thailand (novel species from Thailand are in bold)

| Species | References |
|---|---|
| <i>Alternaria tillandsiae</i> | Doilom et al. (2017a) |
| <i>Barriopsis tectonae</i> | Doilom et al. (2014) |
| <i>Barriopsis thailandica</i> | Tibpromma et al. (2017a) |
| <i>Berkleasmiium talaumae</i> * | Doilom et al. (2017a) |
| <i>Boerlagiomyces macrosporus</i> | Doilom et al. (2017a) |
| <i>Ceratocladium purpureogriseum</i> * | Doilom et al. (2017a) |
| <i>Chaetomium globosum</i> | Maharachchikumbura et al. (2016) |
| <i>Diaporthe neoraonikayaporum</i> | Doilom et al. (2017a) |
| <i>Diaporthe tectonae</i> | Doilom et al. (2017a) |
| <i>Diaporthe tectonendophytica</i> | Doilom et al. (2017a) |
| <i>Diaporthe tectonigena</i> | Doilom et al. (2017a) |
| <i>Diatrypella tectonae</i> | Shang et al. (2017) |
| <i>Distoseptispora tectonae</i> | Hyde et al. (2016) |
| <i>Distoseptispora tectonigena</i> | Hyde et al. (2016) |
| <i>Dothiorella tectonae</i> | Doilom et al. (2015) |
| <i>Erysiphe mori</i> | Meeboon and Takamatsu (2017) |
| <i>Erysiphe tectonae</i> | Meeboon and Takamatsu (2017) |
| <i>Helicoma siamense</i> | Doilom et al. (2017a) |
| <i>Hermatomyces indicus</i> | Doilom et al. (2017a), Koukol et al. (2018) |
| <i>Hermatomyces sphaericus</i> | Doilom et al. (2017a), Koukol et al. (2018) |
| <i>Huntia chinaeucensis</i> | Maharachchikumbura et al. (2016) |
| <i>Kirschsteiniothelia tectonae</i> | Li et al. (2016) |
| <i>Lasiodiplodia brasiliensis</i> | Doilom et al. (2015) |
| <i>Lasiodiplodia pseudotheobromae</i> | Doilom et al. (2015) |
| <i>Lasiodiplodia theobromae</i> | Doilom et al. (2015, 2017a) |
| <i>Longiostiolum tectonae</i> | Li et al. (2016) |
| <i>Macrovalsaria megalospora</i> | Doilom et al. (2017a) |
| <i>Manoharachariella tectonae</i> | Doilom et al. (2017a) |
| <i>Melanoctona tectonae</i> | Tian et al. (2016) |
| <i>Neocosmospora solani</i> (= <i>Fusarium solani</i>) | Doilom et al. (2017a) |
| <i>Neooecultibambusa chiangraiensis</i> | Doilom et al. (2017a) |
| <i>Paradictyoarthrinium diffractum</i> | Liu et al. (2015), Doilom et al. (2017a) |
| <i>Paradictyoarthrinium tectonicola</i> | Liu et al. (2015) |
| <i>Phaeoacremonium italicum</i> | Doilom et al. (2017a) |
| <i>Phaeoacremonium tectonae</i> | Ariyawansa et al. (2015) |
| <i>Phyllosticta capitalensis</i> | Wikee et al. (2013a, b) |
| <i>Pseudocoleodictyospora sukhothaiensis</i> | Doilom et al. (2017a) |
| <i>Pseudocoleodictyospora tectonae</i> | Doilom et al. (2017a) |
| <i>Pseudocoleodictyospora thailandica</i> | Doilom et al. (2017a) |
| <i>Pseudofusicoccum adansoniae</i> | Doilom et al. (2015) |
| <i>Pseudomonodictys tectonae</i> | Ariyawansa et al. (2015) |
| <i>Rhytidhysterion tectonae</i> | Doilom et al. (2017a) |
| <i>Sphaeropsis eucalypticola</i> | Doilom et al. (2015, 2017a) |
| <i>Stachybotrys levisporus</i> | Doilom et al. (2017a) |
| <i>Stachybotrys renisporus</i> | Doilom et al. (2017a) |
| <i>Subglobosporium tectonae</i> | Doilom et al. (2017a) |
| <i>Thaxteriellopsis lignicola</i> | Doilom et al. (2017a) |
| <i>Tubeufia tectonae</i> | Doilom et al. (2017a) |

Expected number of new species: > 100

*No molecular data available

What about other countries?

One may assume that because Thailand is tropical and was previously poorly studied, we should expect to find a high fungal novelty. However, what is the situation in well-documented countries? We provided some answers to this question by studying the fungi on Rosaceae and *Cornus* in Europe. We show that 76% of species on Rosaceae and 32% on *Cornus* are novel.

Fungi on Rosaceae

Rosaceae is one of the largest families of flowering plants including over 3000 species mostly distributed in the northern hemisphere (Wanasinghe et al. 2018). There are more than 4000 records of fungi on Rosaceae species in the U.S. National Fungus Collections Fungus-Host Database (Wanasinghe et al. 2018), but they are poorly investigated in terms of taxonomic relationships with molecular identification. Fungi on Rosaceae species have been reported in recent studies as saprobes (Dissanayake et al. 2017a; Wanasinghe et al. 2017), endophytes (Salgado-Salazar et al. 2008; Rovná et al. 2015), mycorrhizae (Bzdyk et al. 2016; El-Bashiti et al. 2017) or pathogens (Yan et al. 2015; Deng et al. 2017; Santos et al. 2017; Wang et al. 2017).

The fungi on *Rosa* species have been studied by us since 2013. More than 200 specimens were collected mainly from Italy, Russia, Sweden, UK and Uzbekistan and resulted in 59 novel species, with 15 new host records and three confirmed earlier records (Table 10). Thus, 76% of the fungal species on Rosaceae collected were new to science.

Fungi on *Cornus*

Cornus (dogwood) is a genus of plants in the family Cornaceae. The genus comprises about 58 species, which are widely distributed in temperate and subtropical (rarely tropical) regions of the northern hemisphere, with a rich diversity in eastern Asia, eastern and western North America (Murrell 1993; Fan 2001; Xiang et al. 2006). In addition, some endemic species of *Cornus* are reported from South America and tropical Africa (Fan 2001). Members of *Cornus* are mostly trees and shrubs and rarely perennial herbs with woody rhizomes (Noshiro and Baas 1998; Fan 2001). While approximately 300 fungal species have been reported on *Cornus* species, only few of them have detailed illustrations and descriptions or are verified by DNA sequence data (Petrač 1921, 1925; Saccardo 1898; Senanayake et al. 2015; Wijayawardene et al. 2016). There is no comprehensive account or checklist of fungi on *Cornus*.

The fungi on *Cornus* species have been studied by us since 2015. More than 100 specimens were collected mainly from Italy and Russia, which included 77 species comprising 52 existing species and 25 novel species waiting to be described. Thus, of all fungi collected on *Cornus*, 43 are confirmed as existing records from *Cornus*, and nine are new host records. Therefore, 32% of fungi collected on *Cornus* species are new to science. We predict that with extensive sampling, over 100 novel species will be introduced in the coming years.

Novelty of fungi in Europe

In considering these two examples it seems that the novelty of species in Europe is also surprisingly high. Our other studies on *Clematis* and several other hosts are also showing a remarkably high novel diversity. Hawksworth and Lücking (2017) estimated that there are 2.2–3.8 million fungal species in the world of which only 120,000 are presently known. Our studies appear to confirm these predicted high numbers.

Novel chemistry

Aside from the various taxonomic novelties, numerous new and unique biologically active secondary metabolites were also obtained from fungal species of northern Thailand. A selection of their chemical structures is depicted in Fig. 1. The producer organisms were often found to constitute undescribed species. Although not all new chemical structures have yet been named or their activity studied, the novel antibiotics terpene alkaloids named pyristriatins (Richter et al. 2016) were obtained from the novel species, *Cyathus pyristriatus* (Li et al. 2016) and the rare terpenoid lentinulactam from *Panus subfasciatus* (Hyde et al. 2016). The cytotoxic polyketides of the gymnopalynes type (Thongbai et al. 2013) and the mildly antibiotic deconins (Surup et al. 2015) were obtained from cultures of *Gymnopus* and *Deconica*, respectively, that probably represent new fungal species. The cultivated mushroom *Lepista sordida* (Thongbai et al. 2017b) yielded nudic acid B, and the nematode trapping species *Hohenbuehelia grisea*, produced the novel heterocyclic terpenoid pleurothiazol (Sandargo et al. 2018). Mycelial cultures of *Agaricus subrufescens* (Thongklang et al. 2017) produced the chemotaxonomic marker Blazeisporol A, which was identified as a selective agonist of Liver X Receptor subtype alpha, which offers avenues to the development of the mushroom as a new nutraceutical with cholesterol-lowering activities.

Several new molecules were also obtained from species of Xylariales, which are one of the most creative orders of Ascomycota with respect to secondary metabolites (Helaly

Table 9 Foliar epiphytes reported in Thailand (novel species from Thailand are in bold)

| Species | Host | References |
|---|----------------------------------|--------------------------|
| <i>Asterina cynometrae</i> | <i>Cynometra</i> sp. | Hyde et al. (2016) |
| <i>Asterina phlogacanthi</i> | <i>Clinacanthus nutans</i> | Hyde et al. (2013) |
| <i>Asterina phoebesicola</i> | <i>Phoebes costaricanae</i> | Hongsanan et al. (2014a) |
| <i>Capnodium coartatum</i> | <i>Psidium guajava</i> | Chomnunti et al. (2011) |
| <i>Capnodium coffeicola</i> | <i>Coffea</i> sp. | Hongsanan et al. (2015a) |
| <i>Ceramothyrium ficus</i> | <i>Ficus</i> sp. | Hongsanan et al. (2015b) |
| <i>Ceramothyrium longivolcaniforme</i> | Unknown | Zeng et al. (2016) |
| <i>Ceramothyrium thailandicum</i> | <i>Lagerstroemia</i> sp. | Chomnunti et al. (2012a) |
| <i>Chaetocapnodium siamense</i> | Unknown | Liu et al. (2015) |
| <i>Chaetothyria artocarpi</i> | <i>Artocarpus heterophyllus</i> | Hyde et al. (2017) |
| <i>Chaetothyria guttulata</i> | <i>Mangifera indica</i> | Hongsanan et al. (2016a) |
| <i>Chaetothyria mangiferae</i> | <i>Mangifera indica</i> | Singtripop et al. (2016) |
| <i>Chaetothyria musarum</i> | <i>Musa</i> sp. | Singtripop et al. (2016) |
| <i>Chaetothyrium bischofiicola</i> | <i>Bischofia javanica</i> | Chomnunti et al. 2012a |
| <i>Chaetothyriotheceium elegans</i> | <i>Castanopsis</i> sp. | Hongsanan et al. (2014b) |
| <i>Conidiocarpus philippinensis</i> | Arecaceae sp. | Liu et al. (2015) |
| <i>Conidiocarpus plumeriae</i> | <i>Plumeria</i> sp. | Hongsanan et al. (2015a) |
| <i>Discopycnothyrium palmae</i> | <i>Palm</i> sp. | Hongsanan et al. (2017) |
| <i>Irenopsis crotonicola</i> | <i>Croton persimilis</i> | Zeng et al. (2018a) |
| <i>Irenopsis walsurae</i> | <i>Walsura tubulata</i> | Hongsanan et al. (2015b) |
| <i>Lembosia albersii</i> | Unknown | Hongsanan et al. (2014a) |
| <i>Lembosia xyliae</i> | <i>Xylia</i> sp. | Ariyawansa et al. (2015) |
| <i>Leptoxyphium cacuminum</i> | <i>Gossypium herbaceum</i> | Chomnunti et al. (2011) |
| <i>Meliola citri-maximae</i> | <i>Citrus maxima</i> | Hyde et al. (2016) |
| <i>Meliola clerodendri-infortunati</i> | <i>Clerodendrum infortunatum</i> | Hyde et al. (2017) |
| <i>Meliola clerodendricola</i> | <i>Clerodendrum</i> sp. | Hyde et al. (2017) |
| <i>Meliola mucunicola</i> | <i>Mucuna pruriens</i> | Hongsanan et al. (2015c) |
| <i>Meliola tamarindi</i> | <i>Tamarindus indica</i> | Liu et al. (2015) |
| <i>Meliola thailandicum</i> | <i>Dimocarpus longan</i> | Hongsanan et al. (2015c) |
| <i>Meliola thailandicum</i> | <i>Acacia auriculiformis</i> | Hongsanan et al. (2015c) |
| <i>Micropeltis dendrophthoes</i> | <i>Dendrophthoe</i> sp. | Hongsanan et al. (2015b) |
| <i>Muyocopron lithocarpi</i> | <i>Lithocarpus lucidus</i> | Mapook et al. (2016) |
| <i>Parameliola acaciae</i> | <i>Acacia auriculiformis</i> | Li et al. (2016) |
| <i>Parameliola dimocarpi</i> | <i>Dimocarpus longan</i> | Li et al. (2016) |
| <i>Phaeosaccardinula ficus</i> | <i>Ficus</i> sp. | Chomnunti et al. (2012a) |
| <i>Phragmocapnias asiaticus</i> | <i>Coffea arabica</i> | Chomnunti et al. (2011) |
| <i>Phragmocapnias philippinensis</i> | Arecaceae sp. | Liu et al. (2015) |
| <i>Phragmocapnias siamensis</i> | <i>Mangifera indica</i> | Chomnunti et al. (2011) |
| <i>Scorias mangiferae</i> | <i>Mangifera</i> sp. | Hongsanan et al. (2015b) |
| <i>Translucidithyrium thailandicum</i> | <i>Syzygium levinei</i> | Zeng et al. (2018b) |
| <i>Trichomerium bambusae</i> | Poaceae sp. | Hyde et al. (2016) |
| <i>Trichomerium deniquatum</i> | <i>Psidium guajava</i> | Chomnunti et al. (2012b) |
| <i>Trichomerium foliicola</i> | <i>Murraya paniculata</i> | Chomnunti et al. (2012b) |
| <i>Trichomerium gloeosporum</i> | <i>Ficus</i> sp. | Chomnunti et al. (2012b) |
| <i>Trichomerium gloeosporum</i> | <i>Gardenia</i> sp. | Hongsanan et al. (2016c) |
| <i>Trichomerium siamense</i> | <i>Tecoma</i> sp. | Liu et al. (2015) |
| <i>Trichopeltina asiatica</i> | <i>Strobilanthes</i> sp. | Hongsanan et al. (2014c) |
| <i>Tumidisporea shoreae</i> | <i>Shorea</i> sp. | Ariyawansa et al. (2015) |
| <i>Zeloasperisporium ficicola</i> | <i>Ficus benjamina</i> | Hongsanan et al. (2015d) |
| <i>Zeloasperisporium siamense</i> | Unknown | Hongsanan et al. (2015d) |
| <i>Zeloasperisporium wrightiae</i> | <i>Wrightia religiosa</i> | Hongsanan et al. (2015d) |

Expected number of new species: > 100

Table 10 Species of fungi on Rosaceae reported in the northern hemisphere (novel species are in bold)

| Species | Host | References |
|---|-----------------------------|--------------------------|
| <i>Alternaria doliconidium</i> | <i>Rosa canina</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Alternaria hampshirensis</i> | <i>Rosa</i> sp. | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Amandinea punctata</i> ^a | <i>Rosa</i> sp. | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Angustimassarina quercicola</i> ^a | <i>Rosa canina</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Angustimassarina rosarum</i> | <i>Rosa canina</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Bartalinia rosicola</i> | <i>Rosa canina</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Bhatiellae rosae</i> | <i>Rosa canina</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Broomella rosae</i> | <i>Rosa canina</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Coelodictyosporium rosarum</i> | <i>Rosa</i> sp. | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Comoclathris rosae</i> | <i>Rosa canina</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Comoclathris rosarum</i> | <i>Rosa canina</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Comoclathris rosigena</i> | <i>Rosa canina</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Coniochaeta baysunika</i> | <i>Rosa</i> sp. | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Coniochaeta rosae</i> | <i>Rosa hissarica</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Dematiopleospora rosicola</i> | <i>Rosa canina</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Diaporthe eres</i> ^a | <i>Rosa</i> sp. | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Diaporthe foeniculina</i> ^a | <i>Rosa canina</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Diaporthe rhusicola</i> ^a | <i>Rosa canina</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Diaporthe rosae</i> | <i>Rosa</i> sp. | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Diaporthe rosicola</i> | <i>Rosa canina</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Diaporthe rudis</i> ^a | <i>Rosa canina</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Diplodia seriata</i> ^a | <i>Rosa canina</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Endoconidioma rosae-hissaricae</i> | <i>Rosa hissarica</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Epicoccum rosae</i> | <i>Rosa canina</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Keissleriella rosacearum</i> | <i>Rosa canina</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Keissleriella rosae</i> | <i>Rosa canina</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Keissleriella rosarum</i> | <i>Rosa canina</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Lasiodiplodia theobromae</i> ^a | <i>Rosa canina</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Lecidella elaeochroma</i> ^a | <i>Rosa canina</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Lophiostoma rosae</i> | <i>Rosa</i> sp. | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Marjia tianschanica</i> | <i>Rosa canina</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Marjia uzbekistanica</i> | <i>Cerasus tianschanica</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Melanodiplodia tianschanica</i> | <i>Rosa ecae</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Monoseptella rosae</i> | <i>Rosa</i> sp. | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Muriformistrickeria rosae</i> | <i>Rosa canina</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Muriformistrickeria rubi</i> ^a | <i>Rosa canina</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Murilentithecium rosae</i> | <i>Rosa canina</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Neascochyta rosicola</i> | <i>Rosa canina</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Neoconiothyrium rosae</i> | <i>Rosa canina</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Neofusicoccum australe</i> ^a | <i>Rosa</i> sp. | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Neopaucispora rosaecae</i> | <i>Rosa ecae</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Neosetophoma rosarum</i> | <i>Rosa canina</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Neosetophoma rosigena</i> | <i>Rosa canina</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Paraconiothyrium rosae</i> | <i>Rosa canina</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Paraphaeosphaeria michotii</i> ^a | <i>Rosa canina</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Paraphaeosphaeria rosae</i> | <i>Rosa canina</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Paraphaeosphaeria rosicola</i> | <i>Rosa canina</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Pararousoella rosarum</i> | <i>Rosa</i> sp. | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |

Table 10 (continued)

| Species | Host | References |
|--|----------------------------|--------------------------|
| <i>Parathyridaria rosae</i> | <i>Rosa</i> sp. | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Paraxylaria rosacearum</i> | <i>Rosa</i> sp. | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Phragmocamarosporium rosae</i> | <i>Rosa canina</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Pleospora rosae</i> | <i>Rosa canina</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Pleospora rosae-caninae</i> | <i>Rosa canina</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Pleurophoma pleurospora</i> ^a | <i>Rosa</i> sp. | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Poaceicola rosae</i> | <i>Rosa canina</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Populocrescentia rosae</i> | <i>Rosa hissarica</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Pseudocercospora rosae</i> | <i>Rosa canina</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Pseudopithomyces rosae</i> | <i>Rosa canina</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Pseudostrickeria rosae</i> | <i>Rosa canina</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Sclerostagonospora rosae</i> | <i>Rosa</i> sp. | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Sclerostagonospora rosicola</i> | <i>Rosa</i> sp. | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Seimatosporium rosicola</i> | <i>Rosa canina</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Seimatosporium rosigenum</i> | <i>Rosa canina</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Seiridium rosarum</i> | <i>Rosa canina</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Sigarispora caulium</i> ^a | <i>Rosa canina</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Sigarispora rosicola</i> | <i>Rosa</i> sp. | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Sporormurispora pruni</i> | <i>Prunus erythrocarpa</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Suttonomyces rosae</i> | <i>Rosa canina</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Teichospora rubriostiolata</i> ^a | <i>Rosa multibracteata</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Uzbekistanica rosae-hissaricae</i> | <i>Rosa hissarica</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Uzbekistanica yakutkhanika</i> | <i>Rosa hissarica</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Wojnowicia rosicola</i> | <i>Rosa canina</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |
| <i>Xenomassariosphaeria rosae</i> | <i>Rosa canina</i> | Wanasinghe et al. (2018) |

Expected number of new species: > 100

^aNew host records

et al. 2018). As an example, the lenormandins (Kuhnert et al. 2015) constitute highly specific pigments of the stromata of the *Hypoxylen lenormandii* complex. Work on the secondary metabolism of fungi from northern Thailand is ongoing, and papers on additional new and interesting molecules are in preparation. For instance, even other groups of Ascomycota including the Diaporthales that are treated above, are also well-known to be extremely creative secondary metabolite producers (Chepkirui and Stadler 2017).

Potential future avenues

For decades, mycologists have estimated fungal species numbers using various criteria. Such estimates have ranged from 500,000 to almost 10 million species, with mycologists generally agreeing on 1.5–5 million (Hawksworth 1991; Hawksworth and Lücking 2017). In the most recent estimates, Hawksworth and Lücking (2017) suggested between 2.2 and 3.8 million fungal species and that only

120,000 (8%) have been described. Hyde (2001) suggested that the ‘missing fungi’ might be found in poorly studied countries and hosts, or poorly studied habitats or niches. Tedersoo et al. (2014) used DNA metabarcoding data from hundreds of globally distributed soil samples, and demonstrated that climatic factors, followed by edaphic and spatial variables constituted the best predictors of fungal richness and community composition at the global scale. Tedersoo et al. (2017) provided phylogenetic placement and principal niche analysis for > 40 previously unrecognized fungal groups from global soil samples at the order and class level based on combined 18S (nSSU) and 28S (nLSU) rRNA gene sequences, and showed that within the fungal kingdom, tropical and non-tropical habitats were equally likely to harbor novel groups.

In this paper, we have provided an insight to show where missing fungi could be found. From data accumulated to date, and with randomized sampling only in northern Thailand, the fungal diversity with new species recovered far exceeds our expectations. We should revisit

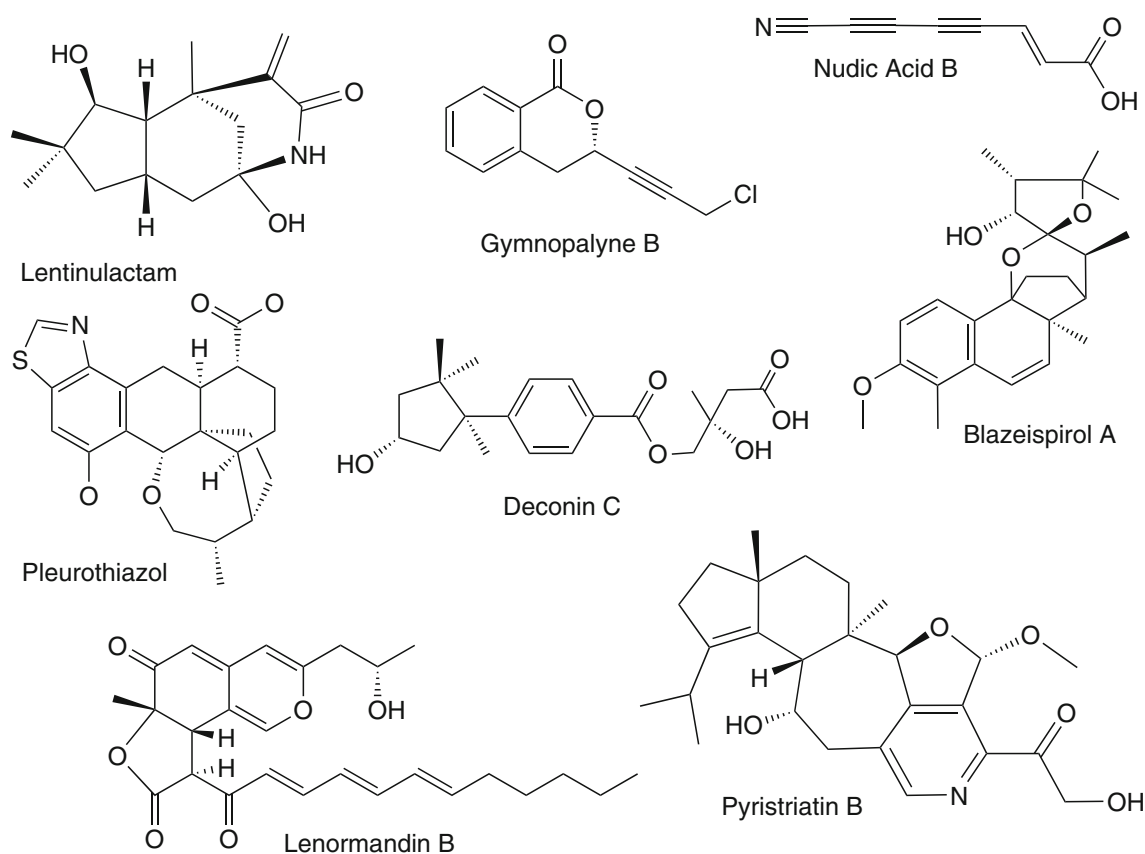


Fig. 1 Chemical structures of selected biologically active secondary metabolites from Thai fungi

our current sampling strategies to target more novel species and similar studies could be extended to other parts of Thailand and surrounding countries. For some groups, the proportion of new species from samples collected is well above 50%, but this number might still be an underestimate because we assume we have still understudied the areas in which we have collected the material. Our studies on speciose genera, such as *Colletotrichum* and *Pestalotiopsis* have revealed many new species and this means that despite the high number of already described species, there is still much to be discovered. Tibpromma et al. (2018) recovered novel cultured endophytic species from Pandanaceae, but certainly there are unculturable orphan fungal species, that could represent a reservoir of novel species with a panoply of unexploited bioactive compounds. How will this impact on our anticipated number of fungi? Possibly we can argue that previously simple blind sampling strategies and inadequate DNA sequence analyses, limit new species discovery. Our studies in northern Thailand have revealed more new species as the taxonomic assessment methods used became more reliable and substrates/environments sampled were strategic. There are obviously other major fungal groups that warrant investigation (e.g. aquatic fungi, entomopathogens, dung fungi,

edible mushrooms, mycorrhizae, and wood decay fungi) that are globally distributed, but poorly sampled in Thailand. There is a need to further sample unexplored habitats (e.g. extreme environments) and substrata. One research area that we have yet to incorporate is sequence-based fungal community analyses. This will undoubtedly reveal and unravel an astonishing diversity of novel species, but as OTUs (Hongsanan et al. 2018). The major research challenges, however, to decipher fungal diversity in largely unexplored regions require more personnel to undertake multifaceted approaches to recover, identify and conserve the potentially new species waiting to be discovered.

Conclusion

Huge advances have been made in the understanding of the fungi in northern Thailand using polyphasic approaches and considerable advances in arranging the classification of fungi at the higher levels (cf. Tedersoo et al. 2018) have been concluded. Many novel fungi have been inventoried for the region, but much work remains. For example, many more species in the edible genus *Agaricus* await description. In these relatively well known mushroom genera we

are finding that more than 93% of species collected are new to science. In the microfungi which appear to be relatively poorly studied, the percentage does not appear to be as high. The studied regions mainly includes three provinces in northern Thailand. The southern, eastern and central provinces of Thailand and surrounding countries of Cambodia, Myanmar, Laos and Vietnam have barely been studied for fungi and thus we predict that there are huge numbers of new species waiting to be discovered in this region. At the same time, we have been finding ways to exploit these fungi. Our work has resulted in the discovery of at least ten new species which are being developed as novel industrial mushrooms. We have also isolated at least ten novel medicinal compounds from Thai fungi and are also looking at ways to exploit them in biocontrol. All of the fungi mentioned above are known to produce various therapeutic metabolites with high biological activities. It is therefore very important to properly characterize not only these compounds, but to carefully resolve the species names, so that researchers can better identify and screen potential taxa for future biotechnological applications. Fungi have been poorly exploited and yet have a huge potential in biocontrol, bioremediation, novel compound discovery as well as basic industrial organisms as edible mushrooms, fertilizers and cosmetics. With such high novelty, there is a need for extensive research to exploit the biotechnological potential of these fungi.

Acknowledgements K.D. Hyde would like to thank the Thailand Research Fund for the grant “Domestication and bioactive evaluation of Thai *Hymenopellis*, *Oudemansiella*, *Xerula* and *Volvariella* species (basidiomycetes)” Grant No. as : DBG6180033 for funding this work. Mae Fah Luang University for the grant “Taxonomy diversity, phylogeny and evolution of fungi in Capnodiales” (Grant No: 666713), for supporting this study. The authors extend their appreciation to the German Academic Exchange Service (DAAD) for a joint TRF-DAAD [PPP 2017–2018] academic exchange grant to K.D. Hyde and M. Stadler. Mingkwan Doilom thanks grant for postdoctoral researchers funded by Yunnan Human Resources and Social Security Department, and The 64th Grant from China Postdoctoral Science Foundation.

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