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Contributions of North American endophytes to the phylogeny, ecology, and taxonomy of Xylariaceae (Sordariomycetes, Ascomycota)

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Peer reviewed



- Endophytes illuminate Xylariaceae circumscription and phylogenetic structure.
- Endophytes occur in lineages previously not known for endophytism.
- Boreal and temperate lichens and non-flowering plants commonly host Xylariaceae.
- Many have endophytic and saprotrophic life stages and are widespread generalists.

| 1 (| Contributions | of North | American | endophytes | to the | phylogeny, |
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- 2 ecology, and taxonomy of Xylariaceae (Sordariomycetes,
- 3 Ascomycota)

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| $\begin{array}{c} 31\\ 32\\ 33\\ 34\\ 35\\ 36\\ 37\\ 38\\ 39\\ 40\\ 41\\ 42\\ 43\\ 44\\ 44\end{array}$ | Keywords: Daldinia loculata; endolichenic fungi; symbiosis; systematics; Xylaria cubensis; Xylariomycetidae |
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50 Abstract

51 The Xylariaceae (Sordariomycetes) comprise one of the largest and most diverse families of 52 Ascomycota, with at least 85 accepted genera and ca. 1,343 accepted species. In addition to 53 their frequent occurrence as saprotrophs, members of the family often are found as endophytes 54 in living tissues of phylogenetically diverse plants and lichens. Many of these endophytes remain 55 sterile in culture, precluding identification based on morphological characters. Previous studies 56 indicate that endophytes are highly diverse and represent many xylariaceous genera; however, 57 phylogenetic analyses at the family level generally have not included endophytes, such that their 58 contributions to understanding phylogenetic relationships of Xylariaceae are not well known. Here 59 we use a multi-locus, cumulative supermatrix approach to integrate 92 putative species of fungi 60 isolated from plants and lichens into a phylogenetic framework for Xylariaceae. Our collection 61 spans 1,933 isolates from living and senescent tissues in five biomes across North America, and 62 here is analyzed in the context of previously published sequence data from described species 63 and additional taxon sampling of type specimens from culture collections. We found that the 64 majority of strains obtained in our surveys can be classified in the hypoxyloid and xylaroid 65 subfamilies, although many also were found outside of these lineages (as currently 66 circumscribed). Many endophytes were placed in lineages previously not known for endophytism. 67 Most endophytes appear to represent novel species, but inferences are limited by potential gaps 68 in public databases. By linking our data, publicly available sequence data, and records of 69 ascomata, we identify many geographically widespread, host-generalist clades capable of 70 symbiotic associations with diverse photosynthetic partners. Concomitant with such cosmopolitan 71 host use and distributions, many xylariaceous endophytes appear to have both endophytic and 72 saprotrophic life stages. Overall, our study reveals major gaps in the availability of multi-locus 73 datasets and metadata for this iconic family, and provides new hypotheses regarding the ecology 74 and evolution of endophytism and other trophic modes across the family Xylariaceae.

75

77 **1. Introduction**

78

79 Fungi are one of the most diverse and ecologically important clades of life (Hammond, 1995; 80 Agrios, 2005), yet only a tiny fraction of their estimated diversity has been discovered and 81 described (i.e., < 5%; Hawksworth, 1991; Hawksworth, 2001; Mueller and Schmit, 2007). Many of 82 the 'missing fungi' – species filling the gap between the number thought to exist (1.5 to 9 million 83 species, Cannon, 1997; Hawksworth, 1991; Hawksworth, 2001; O'Brien et al., 2005) and those 84 described to date (ca. 99,000 species; Blackwell, 2011) - are microfungi living in cryptic 85 symbioses (Agrios, 2005; Blackwell, 2011; Hawksworth, 1991; Hyde, 2001). In particular, an 86 enormous amount of yet-unknown diversity is thought to occur as endophytes, which inhabit 87 apparently healthy, above-ground tissue of all major lineages of land plants (i.e., Class 3 88 endophytes, sensu Rodriguez et al., 2009), and as endolichenic fungi, which occur in 89 symptomless lichen thalli in close association with the photobiont (i.e., the algal or cyanobacterial 90 partner in lichen thalli; Arnold et al., 2009; Li et al., 2007; Suryanarayanan et al., 2005; U'Ren et 91 al., 2012; U'Ren et al., 2014). 92 The majority of foliar endophytes and endolichenic fungi (hereafter, globally referred to as 93 endophytes) are members of the Pezizomycotina (see Rodriguez et al., 2009), with particular 94 diversity in the Dothideomycetes, Eurotiomycetes, Leotiomycetes, Pezizomycetes, and 95 Sordariomycetes (e.g., Arnold et al., 2009; Bálint et al., 2015; Chen et al., 2015; Davey et al., 96 2013; Tedersoo et al., 2013; U'Ren et al., 2012; U'Ren et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2006;

97 Zimmerman and Vitousek, 2012). These endophytes occur in ecosystems ranging from hot

98 deserts to wet forests, to arctic tundra (e.g., Arnold et al., 2009; Davis et al., 2003; Del Olmo-Ruiz

and Arnold, 2014; Gazis and Chaverri, 2010; Higgins et al., 2007; Massimo et al., 2015;

100 Suryanarayanan et al., 2011; U'Ren et al., 2012; Zimmerman and Vitousek, 2012). Individual

101 plants and lichen thalli can harbor phylogenetically diverse endophytes, with significant turnover

across the geographic ranges of their hosts (e.g., Fisher et al., 1994; Fisher et al., 1995; Higgins

103 et al., 2014; U'Ren et al., 2012; Vaz et al., 2014; Zimmerman and Vitousek, 2012). Endophytes in

104 plants can play important ecological roles, mediating defense against pathogens and herbivores

and influencing host responses to abiotic stressors such as drought (Arnold et al., 2003; Arnold
and Engelbrecht, 2007; Costa Pinto et al., 2000; Estrada et al., 2013; Mejía et al., 2008). They
are increasingly recognized as a major source of novel metabolic products for use in medicine,
agriculture, and industry (Ding et al., 2009; Deyrup et al., 2007; Fan et al., 2014; JiménezRomero et al., 2008; Paranagama et al., 2007; Staniek et al., 2008; Strobel et al., 1997; Strobel
and Long, 1998; Wu et al., 2011) and as an important but under-studied aspect of plant and
lichen biology.

112 Studies over the last four decades have revealed an extremely high richness of 113 xylariaceous endophytes (Xylariales, Sordariomycetes, Pezizomycotina) (e.g., Petrini and Petrini, 114 1985; Rogers, 2000). They inhabit the living tissues of phylogenetically diverse plants, including 115 conifers, angiosperms, ferns, lycophytes, and bryophytes in a diverse range of biogeographic 116 provinces (e.g., Arnold et al., 2009; Brunner and Petrini, 1992; Carroll and Carroll, 1978; Davey et 117 al., 2014; Davis et al., 2003; Del Olmo-Ruiz and Arnold, 2014; Higgins et al., 2007; Okane et al., 118 2012; Petrini and Petrini, 1985; Petrini et al., 1995). They also occur frequently in taxonomically 119 diverse lichens encompassing diverse growth forms (e.g., foliose, fruticose, crustose) and 120 substrates (e.g., terricolous, saxicolous, epiphytic) (Arnold et al., 2009; Petrini and Petrini, 1985; 121 Suryanarayanan et al., 2005; Wu et al., 2011). Some xylariaceous endophytes persist in leaf 122 litter, reflecting abilities to decompose lignocellulose and the capacity of some species to directly 123 infect decaying leaves, potentially circumventing the need for an endophytic life stage (Osono, 124 2002; 2005; 2006).

125 Many endophytic Xylariaceae remain sterile in culture or reproduce only asexually on 126 standard media (Stadler et al., 2013), precluding identification based on teleomorphic characters 127 such as stromata features and ascospore number (see Petrini and Petrini, 1985; Rogers, 1979a; 128 2000; Rogers et al., 2002). Anamorphic cultures can be classified based on conidiophore 129 branching and the nature of conidiogenous cell proliferation (Ju and Rogers, 1996), as well as 130 cultural characteristics such a growth rates and color (Petrini and Petrini, 1985). However, 131 anamorphic characters alone often lack sufficient information for species-level identification 132 (Petrini and Petrini, 1985; Stadler et al., 2013). As a result, estimates of species boundaries and

133 taxonomic placement of endophytes frequently are assigned on the basis of BLAST comparisons 134 of barcode sequences (i.e., nuclear ribosomal internal transcribed spacers and 5.8S; ITS rDNA) 135 in GenBank. This approach is often problematic due to inconsistencies in levels of interspecific 136 ITS rDNA variation among taxonomic groups (Nilsson et al., 2008), misidentified sequences in 137 public databases (Bridge et al., 2003; Harris, 2003; Peršoh et al., 2009; Vilgalys, 2003), and 138 problems posed by under-representation of fungal biodiversity in public databases, such that the 139 closest named BLASTn hit is not always the closest relative (see Gazis et al., 2012; U'Ren et al., 140 2009). Misassignment of unknown sequences can erroneously expand or contract the family 141 concept over time, alter taxonomic concepts for genera and species (e.g., Xylaria hypoxylon; see 142 Peršoh et al., 2009), and confound ecological inferences for newly discovered strains for which 143 only ITS rDNA or other single-locus data are available.

144 As currently circumscribed, Xylariaceae comprise one of the largest and most diverse 145 families of filamentous Ascomycota, with at least 85 accepted genera and an estimated 1,343 146 accepted species (Eriksson, 2006; Kirk et al., 2008; Stadler et al., 2013). Traditionally two 147 subfamilies are recognized: Hypoxyloideae and Xylarioideae (Dennis, 1961). Currently 148 recognized species include saprotrophs occurring in wood, litter, soil, and dung, and a few plant 149 pathogens that cause canker diseases (e.g., Entoleuca mammata on Populus), root rots (e.g., 150 Xylaria mali on Malus), and needle blight (e.g., Hypoxylon herpotrichoides on Pseudotsuga and 151 Picea) in agricultural and natural systems (Edwards, 2003; Martin, 1967; Rogers, 1979a; 2000; 152 Rogers and Ju, 1996; Whalley, 1985). Although several described species are close matches 153 with endophytes in BLAST comparisons of ITS rDNA sequences, the taxonomic placement of 154 those endophytic isolates rarely is investigated based on multi-locus phylogenetic analyses (but 155 see Bills et al., 2012; Pažoutová et al., 2010b; Visser et al., 2009). To our knowledge, few novel 156 species of Xylariaceae have been described solely as endophytes from anamorphic cultures (but 157 see Worapong et al. [2001] and González et al. [2009] for description of Muscodor spp.). 158 Given the captivating ascomata morphologies (i.e., spore-bearing structures resulting

from sexual reproduction) and ecological importance of *Xylaria* and related taxa, the Xylariaceae
have long received attention from mycologists. A particularly rich tradition of morphological

161 systematics (e.g., Dennis, 1957; Hawksworth and Whalley, 1985; Ju et al., 1993; Ju and Rogers, 162 1996; Ju et al., 1998; Læssøe et al., 1989; Miller, 1961; Möller, 1901; Pouzar, 1985a; 1985b; 163 Rogers, 1981; Rogers and Ju, 1996; Rogers et al., 1997a; 1997b) is increasingly complemented 164 by chemotaxonomic (e.g., Fournier et al., 2010; Læssøe et al., 2010; 2013; Stadler and Fournier, 165 2006; Stadler et al., 2008; 2010) and molecular approaches (e.g., Bills et al., 2012; Hsieh et al., 166 2005; 2010; Jaklitsch et al., 2014; Peršoh et al., 2009; Whalley, 1996). Several genera have been 167 updated or monographed recently (e.g., Daranagama et al., 2015; Rogers et al., 2002; Peršoh et 168 al., 2009; Stadler et al., 2014) and NCBI contains nucleotide data for >3,000 isolates representing 169 ca. 442 recognized species (as of August 2015). Phylogenetic analyses support monophyly of the 170 family as presently circumscribed (Tang et al., 2009), but numerous studies suggest that many 171 recognized genera and species may not be monophyletic (see Daranagama et al., 2015; Hsieh et 172 al., 2005; 2010; Pažoutová et al., 2010b), and many genera require taxonomic revisions (Stadler 173 et al., 2013). Integrating previously unknown strains into a robust phylogenetic framework for the 174 Xylariaceae can provide insight into the taxonomic circumscription at the family and infrafamilial 175 levels, illustrate previously unknown connections between anamorphic and teleomorphic species, 176 and inform evolutionary relationships, host ranges, distributions, major ecological modes, and 177 diversity of major clades, previously known taxa, newly found strains, and the family as a whole. 178 The goal of this study was to address the impact of a large collection of endophytic and 179 saprotrophic fungi on the circumscription of the Xylariaceae and infrafamilial taxa. Our work takes 180 advantage of 1,933 newly cultured isolates representing 92 putative species, which were 181 collected from living photosynthetic tissues of angiosperms, conifers, ferns, lycophytes, 182 bryophytes, and lichens, as well as senescent and decomposing leaves of selected woody plants 183 in five biomes across North America (U'Ren et al., 2010; 2012). Here, we place these strains in a 184 multi-locus phylogenetic framework in conjunction with additional sequencing of type specimens 185 from culture collections and previously published sequence data from described species. We then 186 address the following questions: (1) Does the inclusion of newly cultured isolates alter current 187 phylogenetic hypotheses regarding the delimitation of Xylariaceae and the relationships and

188 circumscription of xylariaceous taxa? (2) What is the classification of these isolates? (3) Do they

| 189 | represent novel species or anamorphs of previously described teleomorph species? (4) How can |
|-----|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 190 | these cultures expand our knowledge of the host affiliations, substrate use, geographic |
| 191 | distribution, and phylogenetic diversity of the Xylariaceae? In addressing these questions we |
| 192 | provide an overview of currently available metadata for members of the Xylariaceae, and highlight |
| 193 | emergent patterns regarding ecological modes across this diverse, important, and |
| 194 | morphologically compelling family. |
| 195 | |
| 196 | 2. Materials and Methods |
| 197 | |
| 198 | 2.1. Field surveys |
| 199 | |
| 200 | As part of a larger study investigating the diversity and distributions of endophytic fungi, living |
| 201 | leaves and healthy lichen thalli were collected systematically in five sites representing distinct |
| 202 | environmental, biological, and biogeographic regions across North America (U'Ren et al., 2012). |
| 203 | Sites were located in the Madrean Sky Island Archipelago of southeastern Arizona (AZC); the |
| 204 | Appalachian Mountains of western North Carolina (NCH); sub-tropical scrub forest in Florida |
| 205 | (FLA); Beringian tundra and boreal forest in the Seward Peninsula ecoregion of western Alaska |
| 206 | (AKN); and inland, subalpine tundra in the Interior Highlands of east-central Alaska (AKE). |
| 207 | Endophytes were cultured from surface-sterilized tissues of living, apparently healthy plants |
| 208 | (angiosperms, conifers, lycophytes, ferns, and bryophytes) and lichens (with diverse mycobionts, |
| 209 | substrates, and growth forms) as described in U'Ren et al. (2012). In each site fungi also were |

selected woody plants (i.e., dead plant leaves, DP) and leaf litter (i.e., fallen leaves of the same
species, FP) (U'Ren et al., 2010; U'Ren, 2011). Classifying fungi broadly as "endophytes" or
"saprotrophs" based on the condition of the tissue from which they are isolated is insufficient to

cultured concurrently from surface-sterilized tissues of senescent leaves in the canopy of

- adequately define their ecological roles (U'Ren, 2011). However, for the purposes of this study
- 215 fungal OTU isolated from living host tissues (either plant or lichen) are referred to as endophytes
- 216 (even if isolates were found in non-living tissues as well), whereas fungal OTU isolated only from

| 217 | non-living plant tissues (i.e., DP and/or FP) are referred to as saprotrophs. Each isolate is |
|-----|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 218 | maintained as an axenic voucher in sterile water at the Robert L. Gilbertson Mycological |
| 219 | Herbarium at the University of Arizona (ARIZ) (Supplemental Table 1). |
| 220 | |
| 221 | 2.2. Sequencing the ITS-partial LSU rDNA of field-collected strains |
| 222 | |
| 223 | Overall, the field surveys described above generated 6,784 cultures, which were screened by |
| 224 | DNA sequencing for preliminary taxonomic placement. Methods for DNA extraction, PCR |
| 225 | amplification, DNA sequencing and sequence editing followed U'Ren et al. (2010). Briefly, DNA |
| 226 | was extracted from each isolate using phenol:chloroform:IAA (Arnold and Lutzoni, 2007). The |
| 227 | nuclear ribosomal internal transcribed spacers and 5.8S (i.e., ITS rDNA) were amplified by PCR |
| 228 | with ca. 500 bp of the adjacent nuclear ribosomal large subunit (LSU rDNA) as a single fragment |
| 229 | using primers ITS1F/LR3 or ITS5/LR3 (Gardes and Bruns, 1993; Vilgalys and Hester, 1990; |
| 230 | White et al., 1990). Amplicons were sequenced bidirectionally with the above primers using |
| 231 | Applied Biosystems BigDye® Terminator v3.1 cycle sequencing kits (Applied Biosystems 3730x/ |
| 232 | DNA Analyzer; Foster City, CA, USA) at the University of Arizona Genetics Core. The software |
| 233 | applications phred and phrap (Ewing and Green, 1998; Ewing et al., 1998) were used to call |
| 234 | bases and assemble contigs with automation provided by the ChromaSeq package in Mesquite |
| 235 | (Maddison and Maddison, 2011; http://mesquiteproject.org). Base calls were verified by visual |
| 236 | inspection of chromatograms in Sequencher v. 4.5 (Gene Codes, Ann Arbor, MI). |
| 237 | Sequences were assembled into groups by first generating a distance matrix in ESPRIT |

238 (Sun et al., 2009) based on pairwise Needleman-Wunsch alignments for all sequence pairs with

k-mer distances less than 0.5, followed by clustering using the furthest neighbor algorithm in

 $240 \qquad \text{mothur (Schloss et al., 2009). Groups were defined by 100\%, 99\%, and 95\% sequence similarity}$

as a proxy for delimiting genotypes (100%, 99%) and putative species (95%) following U'Ren et $\ensuremath{\mathsf{Ren}}$ et

al. (2009) and Liggenstoffer et al. (2010). A single representative sequence for each 95%

similarity group (hereafter, operational taxonomic unit, OTU) was queried against the curated ITS

rDNA sequence database at the Alaska Fungal Metagenomics Project

245 (http://www.borealfungi.uaf.edu/) using BLASTn (Altschul et al., 1990) to estimate taxonomic

affiliation. Overall, 92 OTU and 245 unique genotypes (based on 95% and 100% sequence

similarity, respectively) had top BLASTn hits to taxa identified as Xylariaceae. These OTU

comprise a total of 1,933 isolates (Supplemental Table 1).

249

250 2.3. Multi-locus sequencing of field-collected strains

251

A single isolate from each 95% OTU (with the exception of one OTU with two isolates in different 99% OTU) was selected for morphological examination and multi-locus sequencing (Table 1). The resulting set of 92 OTU included 39 OTU (131 isolates) found only in living plant tissues or lichen thalli (i.e., endophytes), 44 OTU (1,780 isolates) found in both living tissues and dead or fallen leaves (here, treated as endophytes), and 9 OTU (22 isolates) found only in dead or fallen leaves (here treated as saprotrophs).

258 Based on previously published multi-locus studies of Hypoxyloideae (Hsieh et al., 2005) 259 and Xylarioideae (Hsieh et al., 2010), we focused on three protein-coding genes (β -tubulin, α -260 actin and *RPB2*). β -tubulin and α -actin were amplified by PCR using primer pairs T1/T22 or 261 T11/T22 (O'Donnell and Cigelnik, 1997) and ACT-512F/ ACT-783R (Carbone and Kohn, 1999), 262 respectively. Approximately 1 kb of the gene encoding the RNA polymerase II second-largest 263 subunit (RPB2) was amplified with the primer pair fRPB2-5F/ fRPB2-7cR (Liu et al., 1999). Each 264 25 μ I reaction contained a final concentration of 5 ng of genomic DNA, 0.6 μ M forward and 265 reverse primers, 0.08 mg/ml Bovine serum albumin (BSA), and 1X REDTag ® ReadyMix (Sigma-266 Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA). Because the majority of samples (i.e., 63 out of 92) failed to amplify 267 using previously published PCR protocols for RPB2 (Liu et al., 1999) we performed a two-step 268 touchdown PCR following U'Ren et al. (2007) for the remaining isolates. After initial denaturation 269 at 94° C for 5 min, 30 cycles of touchdown PCR were performed (denaturation at 94° C for 1 min, 270 annealing for 1 min with a 0.5° C/cycle decrement starting at 60° C, and an extension at 72° C for 271 1 min), followed by 20 cycles of regular PCR (95° C for 1 min, 45° C for 1 min, 72° C for 1 min, 272 and a final extension step for 5 min at 72° C). After an initial β -tubulin PCR with eight isolates

revealed no amplification with previously published protocols (O'Donnell and Cigelnik, 1997), the
two-step touchdown protocol was used to amplify all isolates. Negative controls, which contained
all components except DNA templates, were included in parallel.

276 PCR products were evaluated by staining with SYBR Green I (Molecular Probes, 277 Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) after electrophoresis on a 1% agarose gel. When positive 278 amplicons yielded single bands, PCR products were sequenced directly as described below. 279 When isolates displayed multiple bands or weak amplification, PCR products were cloned using 280 the Strataclone PCR Cloning Kit (Stratagene, La Jolla, CA, USA) according to the manufacturer's 281 instructions, except that one-half the recommended reagent volumes were used for each 282 reaction. After blue/white screening, successfully transformed colonies were transferred to new 283 plates and incubated an additional 24 h to increase colony size. Five positive clones per isolate 284 were amplified in secondary PCR with primers M13F and M13R. Up to five amplicons per isolate 285 were selected for sequencing. PCR products were cleaned by adding 1 µl of ExoSAP-IT 286 (Affymetrix, Santa Clara, CA, USA) to 20 µl of PCR product and incubating for 60 min at 65°C 287 followed by 15 min at 85°C. Following a 1:2 dilution, PCR products (either directly from initial PCR 288 or from secondary PCR from cloning) were sequenced and edited as described above. 289 Bidirectional sequences were assembled and edited as described above. Edited 290 consensus sequences were queried against NCBI using BLASTn to estimate taxonomic 291 placement. Protein-coding sequences were subject to a BLASTx search to determine the reading 292 frame and the start/stop positions of each exon when applicable (i.e., β -tubulin and α -actin). All 293 sequences generated from cultures have been deposited in GenBank under accession numbers 294 XXXXX-XXXXX. 295 296 2.4. Sampling of previously described taxa

297

298 Available sequence data (as of January 2015) for ITS rDNA, LSU rDNA, β -tubulin, α -actin, and

299 RPB2 were downloaded from NCBI or the AFToL database (www.aftol.org) for 293 species

300 (representing 429 accessions) of Xylariomycetidae. These species represent families of

301 Xylariales proposed by Smith et al. (2003) and revised by Senanayake et al. (2015), providing the

302 basis for establishing the family boundaries of Xylariaceae: Apiosporaceae (2 species),

303 Cainiaceae (1 species; see Jeewon, 2002), Diatrypaceae (32 species), Graphostromataceae (1

304 species), Hyponectriaceae (4 species), Lopadostomaceae (1 species), Pseudomassariaceae (1

305 species), Xylariaceae (208 species), as well as Xylariales *incertae sedis* isolates (6 species)

306 (Supplemental Table 2). Several putative members of Xylariales were not included due to a lack

307 of sequence data for protein-coding genes: Coniocessiaceae (García et al., 2006), Vialaeaceae

308 (Shoemaker et al., 2013), Melogrammataceae (see Senanayake et al., 2015), and

309 Iodosphaeriaceae (see Senanayake et al., 2015). Families previously classified within Xylariales,

310 but recently proposed for placement in the Amphisphaeriales, also were included

311 (Amphisphaeriaceae [33 species] and Clypeosphaeriaceae [4 species]; Supplemental Table 2;

312 see Senanayake et al., 2015). Ophiostoma ulmi, O. piliferum, and O. stenoceras were used to

root the tree following Huhndorf et al. (2004) and Tang et al. (2007).

314 In addition, 26 putative species of Xylariaceae were obtained from the Centraalbureau

315 voor Schimmelcultures (CBS) Fungal Biodiversity Centre (Utrecht, Netherlands; Supplemental

Table 2). Cultures were chosen to represent genera and species that were lacking molecular data

317 in public databases at the time (June 2011), focusing on major clades of Xylariaceae. On receipt,

318 cultures were immediately plated on 2% malt extract agar and grown at room temperature for 1-2

319 weeks. Once sufficient mycelium was present, DNA was extracted and ITS rDNA-partial LSU

320 rDNA, β -tubulin, α -actin, and *RPB2* were PCR-amplified and sequenced as described above.

321 Sequence data for these CBS isolates have been deposited in GenBank under accession

322 numbers XXXXX-XXXXX (Supplemental Table 2).

323

324 2.5. Sequence alignment and topological incongruence tests

325

326 ITS rDNA and ITS-partial LSU rDNA sequences were analyzed using Fungal ITS extractor

327 (Nilsson et al., 2010) to create separate fasta files for ITS1, 5.8S, ITS2, and LSU rDNA. LSU

328 rDNA sequences were aligned according to the secondary structure of *Saccharomyces*

329 cerevisiae as described in Miadlikowska et al. (2006). 5.8S sequences were aligned with 330 MUSCLE 3.8.31 (Edgar, 2004) using default parameters and then edited manually. Alignments 331 for protein-coding genes were first done at the amino acid level using MUSCLE as implemented 332 in Mesquite (Maddison and Maddison, 2011). Aligned amino acids for β -tubulin, α -actin and 333 RPB2 were then back-translated to obtain nucleotide alignments and manually adjusted using the 334 "Nucleotide with AA color" option in Mesquite. For LSU and *RPB2*, ambiguously aligned 335 nucleotides (sensu Lutzoni et al., 2000) were delimited manually and excluded from subsequent 336 analyses (Supplemental Table 3). ITS1 rDNA, ITS2 rDNA, and introns from β -tubulin were too 337 divergent to be reliably aligned at such a broad taxonomic level; therefore, we tested the impact 338 of excluding these regions vs. including them in analyses after recoding as non-DNA characters 339 using Principal Coordinates Analysis (PCoA) as implemented in PICS-Ord (Lücking et al., 2011). 340 Preliminary maximum likelihood (ML) analyses were performed on a total of six single-341 locus datasets (recoded ITS1, 5.8S, and recoded ITS2 rDNA; 5.8S rDNA; LSU rDNA; RPB2; β-342 tubulin exons; and β -tubulin exons plus recoded introns) at the nucleotide level using 343 RAXMLHPC-MPI-SSE3 version 7.7.6 (Stamatakis, 2006) on the Mobyle SNAP Workbench 344 version 1.0.5 (Monacell and Carbone, 2014). Optimal tree and bootstrap searches were 345 conducted with the default rapid hill-climbing algorithm for 1000 replicates with GTR substitution 346 model (Rodríguez et al., 1990) and gamma distribution approximated with four categories in all 347 analyses. Recoded ITS1 rDNA, ITS2 rDNA, and introns from PICS-Ord were analyzed as 348 unordered characters with the GTR substitution model following recommendations in Lücking et 349 al. (2011). For each protein-coding gene, subsets of partitions were defined with the program 350 PartitionFinder v.1.1.0 (Lanfear et al., 2012), the greedy search option, and the Bayesian 351 information criterion (BIC) for model selection. 352 To identify topological incongruence among the resulting single-locus trees, a reciprocal

353 70% ML bootstrap support criterion was applied (Mason-Gamer and Kellogg, 1996). Briefly, a 354 conflict was considered significant if taxa in a strongly-supported monophyletic clade (i.e., with 355 \geq 70% bootstrap value) based on one locus were strongly supported as non-monophyletic (i.e., 356 \geq 70% bootstrap value) in another single-locus tree. No significant conflict was detected between

357 single-locus tree topologies with and without recoded data (i.e., β-tubulin exons vs. β-tubulin

exons plus recoded introns; ITS1 rDNA, ITS2 rDNA recoded plus 5.8S rDNA vs. 5.8S rDNA only),

thus the single-locus alignments including the recoded data were concatenated into a single

360 supermatrix for phylogenetic analyses.

361

362 2.6. Phylogenetic analyses to delimit Xylariaceae and place newly cultured strains within

- 363 Xylariomycetidae
- 364

365 The following seven subsets (obtained with PartitionFinder) were analysed with RAxML as 366 described above to infer relationships within Xylariomycetidae: (1) 5.8S, β-tubulin first codon 367 position, and LSU rDNA; (2) RPB2 first codon position; (3) RPB2 second codon position; (4) 368 *RPB2* third codon position; (5) β -tubulin second codon position; (6) β -tubulin third codon position; 369 and (7) recoded ITS1 rDNA, ITS2 rDNA, and β -tubulin introns. The final concatenated dataset for 370 Xylariomycetidae containing 520 terminal taxa (including three Ophiostoma spp. as the outgroup) 371 has been deposited in TreeBASE (XXXXX). Sequences for α -actin were not included in these 372 analyses because they were not available in GenBank for Xylariomycetidae representatives other 373 than Xylariaceae.

374 Once the taxonomic boundaries for Xylariaceae were estimated using this concatenated 375 supermatrix for Xylariomycetidae (Supplemental Fig. 1), non-Xylariaceae taxa were removed 376 from each alignment (except Diatrype disciformis and Eutypa lata, which were chosen to root 377 subsequent trees based on the topology of the Xylariomycetidae phylogeny and the availability of 378 multi-locus data; Supplemental Fig. 1; Supplemental Table 2). Although preliminary analyses 379 placed Graphostroma platystoma (the sole species in Graphostromataceae; Barr et al., 1993) in a 380 well-supported clade with Biscogniauxia arima, B. marginata, B. granmo, and B. simplicior (a 381 placement that agrees with morphological similarity between anamorphs of G. platystoma and 382 hypoxyloid Xylariaceae), it was removed due to uncertainty regarding its affinities to Xylariaceae 383 (see Senanayake et al., 2015) and low quality sequence data for non-ribosomal loci (see 384 Supplemental Table 2). Additionally, isolates considered previously to be within the Xylariaceae,

385 but which appeared outside of the monophyletic Xylariaceae in these analyses, also were

386 removed (i.e., Anthostomella torosa, Dicyma funiculosa, D. pulvinata, and 13 newly isolated OTU

tentatively identified as Xylariaceae based on BLASTn; Supplemental Tables 1-2; Table 1).

388 Because analyses were performed prior to the reclassification of *Seynesia* in the Cainaceae (see

389 Senanayake et al., 2015), these analyses included *Seynesia erupens* as well as two endophyte

390 OTU (clades E1-E2) that are potentially outside Xylariaceae. As described below, their resulting

391 placement is not in conflict with recent studies (see Senanayake et al., 2015).

392

393 2.7. Phylogenetic analyses of Xylariaceae using a cumulative supermatrix approach

394

395 When taxon sampling was narrowed to focus on putative Xylariaceae, a total of 79 putative 396 species defined at 95% ITS-partial LSU rDNA sequence similarity from our collections 397 (representing 1,815 isolates total) remained in the analysis. The family-level focus decreased the 398 prevalence of ambiguous regions in the *RPB2* and LSU rDNA alignments, and alignments were 399 adjusted to gain additional phylogenetically informative characters (Supplemental Table 3). For 400 each individual locus, ML analyses and assessment of topological incongruence were performed 401 as described above. No significant conflict was detected between single locus tree topologies 402 with and without recoded data, such that all recoded data were kept in the concatenated dataset. 403 However, conflict among different loci resulted in the removal of seven taxa (FL0975, NC1612, 404 Nemania diffusa AT-113, N. aenea JF02118, N. serpens AT-114, N. chestersii JF04024, and 405 Xylaria sp. XT09003). For four additional taxa, single sequences that were in conflict with other 406 loci were removed (*RPB2* FL0933; β-tubulin FL0016, FL0804, and *Xylaria escharoidea* 658; 407 Supplemental Table 4). Conflicting sequences potentially represent alternative copies of β -tubulin 408 (see Keeling et al., 2000; Landvik et al., 2001) or contaminants. After removing conflicting 409 sequences single-locus analyses were repeated to assess congruence. 410 Following the assessment of congruence, the single-locus alignments were concatenated 411 into a single supermatrix for subsequent ML analysis. The supermatrix contained 77 putative

412 species (representing 1,778 isolates total and 78 terminal taxa) from our collections as well as

413 209 previously described taxa. DNA partitions for the five-locus supermatrix were analyzed in 414 PartitionFinder using the parameters described above. The following seven subsets were 415 specified for the RAXML analysis: (1) α -actin first codon position, α -actin second codon position, 416 and β -tubulin second codon position; (2) third codon position for both α -actin and β -tubulin; (3) 417 5.8S rDNA, α -actin introns (for which 15 bp could be reliably aligned), β -tubulin first codon 418 position, and LSU rDNA; (4) RPB2 first codon position; (5) RPB2 second codon position; (6) 419 *RPB2* third codon position; and (7) recoded β -tubulin introns, α -actin introns, ITS1 rDNA and ITS2 420 rDNA. The final concatenated alignment containing 367 terminal taxa has been deposited in

421 TreeBASE (XXXXX).

422 Because only a subset of taxa within Xylariaceae were represented by all five loci (Table 423 1; Supplemental Table 2), we examined the effect of adding taxa with an increasing amount of 424 missing data using a cumulative supermatrix approach (following Miadlikowska et al. 2006; 2014; 425 and Gaya et al., 2012). Four individual datasets were analyzed: (1) taxa containing a minimum of 426 four loci (i.e., taxa with 5 loci sequenced + taxa with 4 loci sequenced, i.e., hereafter refer to as 5 427 + 4; (2) taxa containing a minimum of three loci (i.e., 5 + 4 + 3); (3) taxa containing a minimum of 428 two loci (i.e., 5 + 4 + 3 + 2); and (4) all taxa (5 + 4 + 3 + 2 + 1). For each dataset, the appropriate 429 partition subsets were defined with PartitionFinder using the parameters described previously. 430 The subsets for the first and third datasets were the same seven as used for the supermatrix 431 containing all taxa (i.e., 5 + 4 + 3 + 2 + 1 dataset; see above). The 5 + 4 + 3 data set had an 432 additional subset for the third codon position of β -tubulin (Supplemental Table 5).

ML analyses for all four datasets were conducted with RAxML as described above. Majority-rule consensus trees (70%) were built in Mesquite based on sets of 1,000 bootstrap trees generated with RAxML for the four concatenated datasets. The Mesquite module Hypha (Oliver et al., 2013; see also Miadlikowska et al., 2014) was used to integrate support values derived from all applicable consensus trees onto each internode of the best tree derived from the complete concatenated dataset (i.e., 5 + 4 + 3 + 2 + 1) (Fig. 1). No significant conflict was detected among these trees except at the very tip of the H1 clade (Fig. 1).

| 440 | Phylogenetic diversity (i.e., the sum of all the edge lengths in the subtree given by the tip |
|-----|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 441 | subset; PD) of Xylariaceae taxa was calculated in R (R Core Team) with the package caper |
| 442 | (Orme et al., 2013) and the topology generated from ML analysis of the 5 + 4 + 3 + 2 + 1 |
| 443 | supermatrix. To assess whether newly collected isolates significantly increased the phylogenetic |
| 444 | diversity of the Xylariaceae, PD was calculated 1,000 times for subsets of 286 taxa (77 newly |
| 445 | collected OTU plus a random selection of 209 previously named Xylariaceae taxa), which is equal |
| 446 | to the total number of previously named Xylariaceae taxa in the tree. The observed PD of all |
| 447 | previously named Xylariaceae taxa was compared to this distribution to generate a distribution- |
| 448 | independent p-value (Supplemental Fig. 2). The R code is available at XXXX. |
| 449 | |
| 450 | 2.8. Comparison of newly collected strains with known taxa |
| 451 | |
| 452 | To assess the potential novelty of newly cultured isolates when the topology of the tree alone is |
| 453 | inconclusive, we compared ITS rDNA sequences of taxa present in the Xylariaceae tree (when |
| 454 | available) to ITS rDNA sequence data for 205 Xylariaceae taxa identified to species but not |
| 455 | represented in the multi-locus dataset due to lack of sequences for non-ITS rDNA loci in NCBI |
| 456 | (Supplemental Table 6). Sequences were clustered into OTU at 95%, 97%, 99% and 100% using |
| 457 | ESPRIT and mothur following methods described above (see also U'Ren et al. 2012 for |
| 458 | methods). These data were used to assess the number of cases in which a newly cultured taxon |
| 459 | was found within the same 95% OTU as a named taxon (see Table 1; Fig. 2). |
| 460 | |
| 461 | 2.9. Examining host breadth, substrate diversity, and geographic distribution of Xylariaceae |
| 462 | |
| 463 | We next identified taxa from previously published studies that are closely related to taxa in our |
| 464 | final data set. Most Xylariaceae are not represented by multiple loci in GenBank; instead, they are |
| 465 | represented (when present) by ITS rDNA sequences. We accessed this larger sampling to |
| 466 | address questions with regard to host breadth, substrate diversity, and geographic distribution |
| 467 | across the multi-locus phylogenetic framework developed here. |

468 ITS rDNA sequences for newly cultured isolates from our continental surveys, as well as 469 reference taxa, were queried against NCBI's nr database using an e-value cutoff of $1 \times e^{-3}$. The 470 output was filtered to remove self hits, accessions from U'Ren et al. (2010; 2012), and hits with 471 percent identity <99%. If the same accession was a hit for multiple taxa, the hit with the highest 472 bit score was selected and the duplicate removed. A small fraction of BLASTn hits representing 473 sequences from uncultured isolates (i.e., clones or next-generation sequences) also were 474 excluded (n = 24; 1.9% of filtered hits).

From the list of filtered accession numbers, the geographic origin, host lineage (e.g., Angiosperm), and substrate information (e.g., surface sterilized leaf) for each isolate were extracted from the respective metadata in GenBank and parsed using custom scripts (XXXX) (Supplemental Tables 7-8). In the cases of missing metadata, information was gathered (when possible) from manuscripts in which the sequences were published. Information on geographic distribution, host, and substrate for reference taxa also was collected from published species descriptions and online resources (Supplemental Table 9).

482 To visualize metadata in a phylogenetic framework, information for each terminal taxon 483 was classified into broadly defined categories (Fig. 2). Categories for provenance included (1) 484 U.S., Canada; (2) Mexico, South/Central America, Caribbean; (3) Europe, Russia; (4) Asia; and 485 (5) "Other" (e.g., Hawaii, Australia, New Zealand, Papua New Guinea, Africa, the Middle East, 486 and Antarctica, grouped as "other" due to a paucity of metadata from those sites). Isolates from 487 the Hawaiian Islands were included in "other" rather than U.S./Canada due to their geographical 488 isolation from the continental U.S. Categories for host breadth included (1) angiosperm; (2) 489 "gymnosperm" (i.e., Pinophyta and Ginkgo biloba); (3) spore-bearing vascular plant (i.e., 490 lycophytes and ferns); (4) bryophyte (i.e., mosses and liverworts) and (5) lichen (LT). Substrate 491 categories included (1) living plant leaves or non-woody stems (LP); (2) dead plant leaves in 492 canopy (DP); (3) fallen plant leaves in leaf litter (FP); (4) wood/bark; (5) root; (6) seed; (7) soil; (8) 493 insect-associated; and (9) fallen fruits/inflorescences (Fig. 2). Data for each isolate were added to 494 the phylogenetic tree using a custom R script (XXXX).

495

496 2.10. Macromorphological characterization of newly collected strains

497

498 Newly collected isolates representing each putative species were subcultured from water 499 vouchers onto 2% MEA (20 g/L of malt extract [Amresco, Solon, OH, USA] and 15 g/L of agar 500 [Fisher Scientific, Pittsburgh, PA, USA]) and grown at room temperature under ambient light 501 conditions. To verify the identity of each isolate prior to macromorphological characterization, 502 DNA was extracted from each culture using the RedExtract-N-Amp Plant Kit (Sigma-Aldrich) 503 following a modified protocol. Under sterile conditions a small piece of mycelium was placed in a 504 1.5 ml tube with 100 µl of extraction buffer and 100 µl of 0.5 mm zirconium oxide beads (Next 505 Advance, Averill Park, NY, USA). After bead-beating for 1 min, the mycelium was incubated for 506 10 min at 95°C, after which 100 µl of dilution solution was added and the solution was vortexed 507 briefly. DNA was stored at -20°C until used for PCR. The ITS-partial LSU rDNA was amplified by 508 PCR with the primer pair ITS1F/LR3 using REDExtract-N-Amp PCR Ready Mix (Sigma-Aldrich, 509 St. Louis, MO, USA) following the manufacturer's recommendations and the PCR protocol 510 described in Arnold et al. (2007). PCR products were visualized and sequenced as described 511 above. Sequences were verified as 100% identical to expected sequences for each strain. After 512 verification, a 5 mm wide plug of each culture was transferred to 2% oatmeal agar (OA) plates to 513 induce sporulation (Ju et al., 2005). Cultures were grown under ambient light/dark condition at 514 room temperature (ca. 21.5°C) for up to six months before colony morphology was photographed 515 (Supplemental Fig. 3).

516

517 **3. Results and Discussion**

518

In addition to well-known saprotrophs, previous studies have revealed numerous endophytic
Xylariaceae in biomes ranging from high latitudes to the tropics (e.g., Arnold et al., 2009; Brunner
and Petrini, 1992; Carroll and Carroll, 1978; Davey et al., 2014; Davis et al., 2003; Del Olmo-Ruiz
and Arnold 2014; Higgins et al., 2007; Okane et al., 2012; Osono 2006; Petrini and Petrini, 1985;
Petrini et al., 1995). Although tropical Xylariaceae occurring in living and dead plants and lichens

524 are considered to be particularly diverse, our surveys captured many species of xylariaceous 525 fungi in subtropical, temperate, and boreal hosts (U'Ren, 2011; U'Ren et al., 2012). Incorporating 526 this large collection of plant- and lichen-associated strains from diverse sites in North America 527 into multi-locus phylogenetic analyses with previously described taxa significantly increases the 528 known phylogenetic diversity of Xylariaceae and provides an enriched perspective on 529 relationships proximate to, and within, this ecologically diverse family (Fig. 1, Fig. 2, 530 Supplemental Fig. 1, Supplemental Fig. 2). 531 532 3.1. Phylogenetic delimitation of Xylariaceae within Xylariomycetidae 533 534 Most taxa currently recognized as Xylariaceae formed a single clade in our single-locus 535 (phylogenies not shown) and multi-locus analyses (Supplemental Fig. 1). However, several taxa 536 previously described as Xylariaceae (Anthostomella torosa AFTOL-ID 732, Dicyma funiculosa, 537 and D. pulvinata; Ju et al., 1993; Kohlmeyer and Volkmann-Kohlmeyer, 2002; Peláez et al., 2008; 538 Stchigel and Guarro, 1998; Udagawa et al., 1994) appeared outside of this family in single-locus 539 and four-locus analyses (Supplemental Fig. 1). Athough placement of these taxa is uncertain due 540 to low support, both Dicyma and Anthostomella are known to be problematic with regard to

541 phylogenetic placement (Peláez et al., 2008; also see Daranagama et al., 2015).

542 Xylariaceae and Diatrypaceae have been proposed previously as sister families due to 543 shared morphological features (Parguey-Leduc, 1972; Schrantz, 1960; Rogers, 1979a). However, 544 a recent analysis suggests Xylariaceae may be more closely related to Cainiaceae (Senanayake 545 et al., 2015; see also Maharachchikumbura et al., 2015). In our phylogenetic analysis of the 546 subclass Xylariomycetidae the Cainaceae (represented here by Seynesia erumpens, was more 547 closely related to Xylariaceae than the Diatrypaceae (with moderate support, Supplemental Fig. 548 1). When members of Diatrypaceae were used as the outgroup in our analysis focusing on 549 Xylariaceae, Seynesia erumpens was nested within the ingroup but outside known Xylariaceae 550 (Fig. 1). Seynesia was classified previously in Amphisphaeriaceae (Eriksson and Hawksworth, 551 1991a; 1993), but was moved to Xylariaceae based on ascospore morphology (see Barr, 1990;

Eriksson and Hawksworth, 1991b; Hyde, 1995). A recent phylogenetic analysis based on ITS +
LSU rDNA placed the genus in Cainiaceae (Senanayake et al., 2015). Our analysis is not in
conflict with that placement of *Seynesia*, but uncertainty regarding its family-level placement
precludes confident delimitation of the Xylariaceae and family-level placement of the endophyte
clades E1 and E2 (Fig. 1, Fig. 2). In future work, multi-locus data for members of the Cainiaceae,
Lopadostomaceae, and Coniocessiaceae will be important to clarify the precise delimitation of
Xylariaceae.

559 More generally, the placement of many taxa within Xylariomycetidae was challenging due 560 to low support values at many deep internodes. This speaks to a general challenge in the 561 systematics and taxonomy of the subclass and its member families (e.g., Senanayake et al., 562 2015), leading us to examine the contributions of the loci included in phylogenetic analyses. The 563 final Xylariomycetidae dataset consisted of four loci (ITS rDNA, LSU rDNA, *RPB2*, and β -tubulin 564 and contained a total of 4,700 characters (Supplemental Table 3). In agreement with previous 565 studies of other Ascomycota (e.g., Miadlikowska et al., 2014), alignments of protein coding genes 566 yielded a greater proportion of alignable nucleotides than did the ribosomal genes (Supplemental 567 Table 3). Although the alignment of LSU rDNA was slightly longer than that for RPB2 (1,272 bp 568 vs. 999 bp, respectively), 97% of nucleotides were unambiguously aligned for RPB2, whereas 569 nearly half (46%) of nucleotides in the LSU rDNA alignment could not be aligned unequivocally 570 due largely to the presence of introns (Supplemental Table 3). For the β -tubulin alignment, only 571 exons could be aligned with confidence, but exons contain limited variation (618 distinct 572 alignment patterns). Thus, introns for β -tubulin were recoded using PICS-Ord (Lücking et al., 573 2011), yielding an alignment with 1,664 distinct alignment patterns. No significant conflict was 574 observed between β-tubulin gene trees with and without the recoded characters, and the percent 575 of nodes with bootstrap support \geq 70% increased from 38.8% to 60.9%. A similar strategy was 576 used to recode ITS1 rDNA and ITS2 rDNA, as these hypervariable regions could not be aligned 577 reliably across such distantly related taxa (see Bruns, 2001). Inclusion of recoded ITS rDNA 578 increased the number of alignment patterns for this region from 58 to 305, and the number of 579 well-supported nodes increased from 1.5% to 25.4% in the single locus tree. Accordingly,

580 additional sequences of phylogenetically informative loci from extended taxon sampling will be

581 necessary to clarify the ordinal- and family-level relationships within the Xylariomycetidae.

582

583 3.2. Placement of several newly cultured isolates outside Xylariaceae illustrates conflicts with
584 BLASTn results

585

586 Overall, 13 of 92 putative species from our surveys were tentatively identified as Xylariaceae 587 based on BLASTn hits for ITS-partial LSU rDNA, but were placed outside of the Xylariaceae in 588 our four-locus analysis (Table 1, Supplemental Fig. 1). These 13 OTU represent endophytes 589 (nine OTU) and saprotrophs (four OTU) and comprise 118 isolates overall (Table 1; 590 Supplemental Table 1). They were placed in clades containing species from four different families 591 of Xylariomycetidae or in clades containing no closely related reference taxa; however, their 592 phylogenetic placements are inconclusive due to low bootstrap support and insufficient taxon 593 sampling (Supplemental Fig. 1).

594 Discrepancies between BLASTn and phylogenetic analyses could occur because of (1) a 595 lack of closely related isolates in GenBank (especially problematic when analyses were restricted 596 only to named sequences), (2) high sequence similarity to species previously thought to be in the 597 Xylariaceae but of uncertain placement under current systematics frameworks (i.e., top BLASTn 598 hit to Creosphaeria sassafras; see also Supplemental Fig. 1), or (3) misidentified sequences in 599 GenBank (Peršoh et al., 2009; Vilgalys, 2003). Examination of BLAST results illustrates that 600 seven of the 13 OTU had top BLASTn hits to Anthostomella conorum CBS 119333 (EU552099). 601 The remaining five OTU had top BLASTn hits to unknown fungi with the closest named taxa in 602 the Xylariaceae. These results reiterate that assigning taxonomy (even at the family level) for 603 unknown isolates based solely on the top ITS BLASTn hit can be problematic (see also Stadler et 604 al., 2013; Gazis et al., 2012; U'Ren et al., 2009; but see Kõljalg et al., 2013 regarding the UNITE 605 ITS rDNA database).

606

607 3.3. Subfamily structure within Xylariaceae

608

We used five loci (ITS rDNA, LSU rDNA, *RPB2*, β-tubulin, and α-actin) to examine the
relationships of 298 taxa classified as Xylariaceae (>200 species) from 24 genera representing
two recognized subfamilies (Hypoxyloideae and Xylarioideae; Supplemental Table 1), in
conjunction with 79 potentially novel species representing 1,815 isolates of endophytic and
saprotrophic Xylariaceae from sites across North America (Table 1; Fig. 1, Fig. 2). Two putative
species from our surveys were removed from final analyses due to conflict among loci, resulting
in the inclusion of 77 putative species (OTU) from our collections.

616 Genera within the Xylariaceae generally are organized into the subfamilies based on 617 geniculosporium- or nodulisporium-like conidiophores in the anamorphic state (Ju and Rogers, 618 1996). However, the family currently contains numerous genera of uncertain placement due to 619 anamorphs that differ from those above (e.g., libertella-like conidiophores) or have unknown 620 conidial states (Ju and Rogers, 1996; Stadler et al., 2013). Previous analyses of the Xylariaceae 621 focused only on select taxa (e.g., Peršoh et al., 2009; Tang et al., 2009), were based on single 622 loci (e.g., ITS rDNA; Peláez et al., 2008; Sánchez-Ballesteros et al., 2000), or were restricted to 623 one subfamily (Hypoxyloideae, Hsieh et al., 2005; Xylarioideae, Hsieh et al., 2010), such that the 624 phylogenetic relationships of the two subfamilies and the placement of numerous genera incertae 625 sedis could not be addressed.

626 Although the clades containing currently recognized Hypoxyloideae and Xylarioideae 627 (sensu Stadler et al., 2013) were highly supported in our analyses, the two subfamilies were not 628 recovered here as sister clades (Fig. 1). Instead, our analyses suggest that the Xylariaceae may 629 be divided into three main lineages: (1) Hypoxylon, Daldinia, Annulohypoxylon, and closely 630 related genera; (2) a clade comprised of Durotheca and Biscogniauxia (Biscogniauxia, Camillea, 631 and Obolarina); and (3) Xylarioideae and related taxa. However, additional data is needed to 632 confirm these relationships with high support values. Our analysis places four endophyte-only 633 clades (E4-E7) as a grade preceding the origin of the Xylarioideae as currently delimited (see 3.5, 634 below; see also Fig. 1). These clades contained 12 of 77 putative species of Xylariaceae from our 635 collections (Fig. 1). Overall, early divergences of endophyte clades associated with each

636 subfamily and the Xylariaceae as a whole suggest an early origin of endophytic and/or

637 endolichenic fungi associated with diverse photosynthetic partners.

638

639 3.4. Phylogenetic perspectives on Hypoxyloideae

640

641 Overall, 28 of 77 putative species from our collection (i.e., 26 endophytic and two saprotrophic 642 OTU) were placed within the Hypoxyloideae in our multi-locus analyses, or in affiliation with 643 Whalleya, here treated as within Hypoxyloideae (see below). These strains were placed in all 644 genera of Xylariaceae included in the analysis with the exception of Durotheca and Obolarina. 645 Results of our analyses are largely congruent with the study of Hypoxyloideae by Ju et al. 646 (2007). However, in our topology Whalleya microplaca was placed in a clade outside of species 647 currently classified as Hypoxyloideae, whereas Ju et al. (2007) suggested a close relationship of 648 Whalleya with species of Biscogniauxia and Theissenia (renamed Durotheca; see Læssøe et al., 649 2013). Developmentally, Whalleya microplaca resembles Biscogniauxia (i.e., the presence of 650 bipartite stromata), but stromata and anamorphs are morphologically similar to diatrypaceous 651 fungi (e.g., anamorphic isolates of Whalleya have libertella-like conidiogeneous structures; 652 Rogers et al., 1997b; Stadler et al., 2014; see also Glawe and Rogers, 1986). Our analyses 653 placed three endophyte OTU with W. microplaca (clade E3, Fig. 1) and placed E3 as sister to the 654 known Hypoxyloideae, with strong support from two bootstrap analyses. Pending morphological 655 examination, we suggest that the Hypoxyloideae may be expanded to include clade E3 (Fig. 1). 656 Within Hypoxyloideae, Hsieh et al. (2005) recognized three major clades based on ML 657 and Bayesian analyses of β -tubulin and α -actin genes: the *Biscogniauxia* clade, the 658 Annulohypoxylon clade, and the Hypoxylon/Daldinia clade. Our analyses recovered a well-659 supported clade containing all of the Hypoxylon, Daldinia, and Annulohypoxylon taxa, as well as 660 an isolate of Rostrohypoxylon terebratum (see Fournier et al., 2010 for a description of the genus 661 and its paraphyly) (Fig. 1). Within this clade, *Daldinia* and *Annulohypoxylon* form well supported 662 clades in our analyses (Fig. 1). However, species of Hypoxylon were found in multiple clades and

relationships among the previously defined subclades H1, H2, and H3 (sensu Hsieh et al., 2005)
were not confirmed (Fig. 1).

665 Additionally, the position of *Biscogniauxia* as sister to the clade containing *Hypoxylon*, 666 Annulohypoxylon, and Daldinia (see Hsieh et al., 2005; see also Læssøe et al., 2013) was not 667 recovered here. Our topology suggests that Biscogniauxia and Durotheca (see Læssøe et al., 668 2013 for genus description) are sister to one another, but the relationship is not well supported 669 and the placement of this two-genus clade relative to other genera in the Hypoxyloideae is 670 uncertain in our analysis. A sister relationship between these genera would agree with results of 671 high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) illustrating that the chemical profiles of 672 Biscogniauxia and Durotheca are closer to each other than to Hypoxylon and Daldinia (Læssøe 673 et al., 2013). In turn, the highly supported Biscogniauxia clade contained isolates of Camillea 674 tinctor and Obolarina dryophila (see Pažoutová et al., 2010b for discussion of Biscogniauxia

675 paraphyly).

676

677 3.5. Phylogenetic perspectives on Xylarioideae

678

Overall, 34 of 77 putative species from our collection (i.e., 32 endophytic and two saprotrophic
OTU) were placed within the Xylarioideae as currently circumscribed. Although endophyte OTU
were found within all major lineages of the subfamily, they were most abundant in the "NR" and
"HY" clades (sensu Hsieh et al., 2010; Figs. 1, and 2D).

683 Hsieh et al. (2010) grouped members of the Xylarioideae into four major clades: (1) the 684 clade containing Xylaria spp. associated with termite nests (i.e., subgenus Pseudoxylaria; TE); (2) 685 the clade containing Xylaria hypoxylon and closely related species (HY); (3) the clade containing 686 Nemania, Rosellinia, Entoleuca, and Euepixylon (NR); and (4) the clade containing Xylaria 687 polymorpha and closely related species (PO). Our analyses strongly support the monophyly of 688 these clades and relationships among them, with the exception of the node encompassing all four 689 clades, which was recovered in all four analyses but never with support values \geq 70% (Fig. 1). 690 Overall, relationships among terminal branches were highly similar to those reported for

described species, and our analyses confirm the early divergence of the *Poronia-Podosordaria*clade within the Xylarioideae (see Hsieh et al., 2010).

693 Our results further suggest a potential expansion of the current circumscription of 694 Xylarioideae. Clades E4-E7, which subtend the currently recognized subfamily, include 12 695 endophyte OTU as well as an Anthostomella sp. from Puerto Rico (Fig. 1, Fig. 2C). The 696 phylogenetic placement of two of these three lineages is well supported in our analyses. Two 697 OTU have highly similar ITS rDNA sequences to Anthostomella spp. that were not represented in 698 the tree due to lack of multi-locus data (NC1622 with Anthostomella sepelibilis strain F-160, 797; 699 AZ1047 with Anthostomella pinea CBS 128205) (Table 1, Fig. 2C). However, FL1105, which is 700 placed among isolates with hits to Anthostomella, has >95% ITS rDNA sequence identity to Muscodor vitigenus in NCBI (Table 1, Fig. 2C). The genus Muscodor initially was proposed to 701 702 include an endophytic fungus that produces antimicrobial volatiles (Worapong et al., 2001), but its 703 taxonomic placement in the Xylariaceae was uncertain (see Stadler et al., 2013). Placement of 704 FL1105 in clade E5 and the monophyly of this clade is highly supported in our Xylariaceae tree 705 (Figs. 1, 2C). Overall, our results suggest that Anthostomella is polyphyletic based on the 706 positions of AK1471, FL1651, AZ1047, and NC1622, which are placed in different clades despite 707 high sequence similararity to previously described species of Anthostomella (Table 1; Fig. 1; also 708 see Lu et al., 2000; Daranagama et al., 2015). Based on the strong phylogenetic support reported 709 here (Fig. 1, Fig. 2C) and pending morphological examination, we suggest that the Xylarioideae 710 may be expanded to include clades E5-E7.

711

712 3.6. Limitations of current data sets

713

As noted in previous studies, ribosomal genes alone do not provide enough phylogenetic

information to confidently resolve infrafamilial relationships in Xylariomycetidae (Duong et al.,

2004) or the evolutionary history among genera of Xylariaceae (Peláez et al., 2008; Tang et al.,

2009). In these circumstances, protein-coding genes such as *RPB2* can provide additional,

phylogenetic signal that result in more resolved phylogenies of Xylariaceae with higher statistical

719 support for clades (Tang et al., 2007; see also Reeb et al., 2004). Other protein-coding genes, 720 such as β -tubulin and α -actin, also have been used to reconstruct evolutionary relationships for 721 Hypoxylon and closely related genera of Xylariaceae (Hsieh et al., 2005). However, in the present 722 study we found that the protein coding genes β -tubulin and *RPB2* were insufficient to resolve 723 infrafamilial relationships in the Xylariomycetidae even when combined with ribosomal loci (ITS 724 rDNA, 5.8S rDNA, LSU rDNA). Analyses of the Xylariaceae using five loci (β -tubulin, α -actin, 725 RPB2, ITS plus 5.8S rDNA, and LSU rDNA) also failed to provide high statistical support for many 726 clades within the family.

T27 ITS1 and ITS2 rDNA and introns of β-tubulin and α-actin were too divergent to be aligned unambiguously at the ordinal or familial level. However, we used a non-alignment based method (PICS-ord; Lücking et al., 2011) to extract phylogenetic information from these regions that were excluded from the alignments subjected to phylogenetic searches. This method recovered a substantial amount phylogenetic signal and greatly reduced phylogenetic uncertainty.

732 Overall, our results indicate that resolving evolutionary relationships in the Xylariaceae 733 and Xylariomycetidae with high confidence will require sequence data from additional protein-734 coding genes that can be aligned unambiguously at broad taxonomic levels. Data from the gene 735 for RNA polymerase II largest subunit (RPB1), the gene for the minichromosome maintenance 736 complex component 7 (MCM7) (Chen et al., 2015; Miadlikowska et al., 2014), and/or additional 737 new molecular markers derived from the AFToL 2 project (aftol.org) are likely to be useful. Our 738 results also argue for increased taxon sampling of both endophytes and morphologically delimited 739 species not currently represented in public sequence databases.

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741 3.7. Phylogenetic perspectives on the potential novelty of newly collected strains

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743 Putatively novel species of Xylariaceae isolated from plants and lichens across North America

744 were frequently placed in previously described, major clades of Xylariaceae in both subfamilies,

including clades containing well-known plant pathogens (i.e., *Biscogniauxia*, *Kretzschmaria*),

saprotrophs (i.e., *Xylaria*), and clades thought to be specific to insects or animal dung (i.e.,

747 *Pseudoxylaria* clade and *Poronia + Podosordaria* clade, respectively; see Krug et al., 2004; Hsieh

748 et al., 2010; Rogers et al., 2005; Visser et al., 2009; Figs. 1 and 2C).

749 Although we recovered endophyte-only clades distinct from known or previously 750 sequenced isolates (e.g., E1, 2, 4, 5, 7, 8, and 9), each of which included one ore more putative 751 species, numerous OTU were resolved as closely related to previously described taxa. For 752 example, nine endophyte and saprotroph OTU were placed within a well-supported monophyletic 753 clade with multiple representatives of representative species (Fig. 1, Fig. 2; FL1408 within the 754 Daldinia eschscholzii clade; AK1016, AZ0526, AK0128, AK0995 within the D. loculata clade; 755 FL1170 within the Hypoxylon rubiainosum clade; AZ0703 within the Biscogniauxia mediterranea 756 clade; AK0226 within the Nemania serpens clade; and NC1011 within the Xylaria cubensis 757 clade).

758 However, in cases where endophytic fungi are sister to a single representative of a 759 described species, the topology of the tree alone does not help us determine whether unknown 760 isolates represent the asexual or anamorphic life stage of a described teleomorphic species or a 761 potentially novel closely related species. To address this uncertainty we analyzed the similarity of 762 our isolates to described species in the tree using ITS rDNA clustering. Despite the fact that 763 undescribed isolates are often found in the same clade or are sister to described species, only 14 764 of 77 Xylariaceae OTU isolated in our surveys (i.e., 18.2%) were part of the same 95% OTU as a 765 described species present in the tree (Fig. 2).

766 We further analyzed the ITS rDNA similarity of endophytic and saprotrophic fungi with 767 205 named Xylariaceae taxa (n = 85 species) represented in GenBank by ITS rDNA sequences, 768 but not by β -tubulin, α -actin, *RPB2*, or LSU rDNA (and thus not included in the phylogenetic 769 analyses; Supplemental Table 6). This information, presented within a phylogenetic framework, 770 accesses a large pool of publicly available sequences that exceeds the taxonomic representation 771 available based on other loci or multiple loci. Based on ITS rDNA OTU clustering at 95% 772 similarity, 10 additional OTU found in the multi-locus analysis are highly similar to named 773 sequences in NCBI (see Table 1). Two additional OTU also are similar to sequences in NCBI 774 based on ITS rDNA clustering, but were removed from the concatenated supermatrix due to

conflict (Table 1). Combining ITS rDNA similarity in a phylogenetic framework identified several

GenBank sequences with taxonomic names in apparent conflict with tree topology (e.g., *Xylaria*

777 mellissii F-048,697 found within Nemania + Rosellinia clade, Fig. 2D; also see above for

discussion of *Anthostomella* spp). Only five of the 12 taxa whose ITS rDNA sequences match our

isolates are vouchered in easily accessed culture collections (e.g., Centraalbureau voor

780 Schimmelcultures [CBS], American Type Culture Collection [ATTC], Agricultural Research

781 Service Culture Collection [NRRL]) (Table 1; Supplemental Table 6), thus precluding additional

782 morphological and molecular characterization.

Overall, 44 of 79 (55.7%) xylariaceous species collected in our surveys (representing 42 endophyte and two saprotroph OTU) appear to lack closely related, described species (Table 1; Fig. 2). Of these apparently novel OTU, 34 also lacked closely related BLASTn hits (≥99% ID) to other unnamed fungi in GenBank (Fig. 2). Importantly, these results are based only on the species diversity represented in public databases, and thus do not assess novelty with respect to those species of Xylariaceae known only from their teleomorphs or from drawings, or otherwise not represented in public databases (discussed by Stadler et al., 2013).

Such conclusions are dependent on a defined level of ITS rDNA sequence similarity;

however, the degree of intraspecific ITS rDNA variability differs among taxonomic groups (see

Nilsson et al., 2008). For five Xylaria spp., U'Ren et al. (2009) reported low intraspecific variation

in ITS rDNA (1.43% \pm 2.94%), and variation between sister taxa averaged 4.18% \pm 2.18%.

However, Stadler et al. (2013) noted that different morphological species can have identical ITS

rDNA sequences (e.g., *Daldinia concentrica* and *D. steglichii*). Across both subfamilies, we found

12 cases where different morphological species shared the same 95% OTU designation (e.g.,

797 *Xylaria plebeja, X. luteostromata* var. *macrospora*, and *X. intracolorata* designated OTU 265; Fig.

2). This appears more common for species of Xylarioideae than Hypoxyloideae (Fig. 2).

Accordingly, endophyte isolates putatively identified as previously described species may in fact

800 represent novel species. Indeed, we found cases where a comparison of the culture morphology

801 on oatmeal agar for described species (when available) differed from our observations for

802 endophytic isolates. For example, *Hypoxylon submonticulosum* (Ju and Rogers, 1996) is

described as a fast-growing isolate with pale-mouse grey, cinnamon, to grayish sepia color, with
sporulating regions scattered over the colony surface. However, an endophyte representing the
same OTU (NC0708) remained as sterile, white mycelia after six months in culture on the same
media (Supplemental Fig. 3).

807 Conversely, we found seven cases where isolates of the same putative species occurred 808 in different 95% OTU (Xylaria cubensis, X. curta, Hypoxylon dieckmannii, H. crocopeplum, H. 809 fendleri, H. haematostroma, and Nemania serpens). Assuming these isolates are correctly 810 identified and represent a single species rather than a species complex (e.g., as for Fusarium 811 solani; O'Donnell, 2000), we may overestimate the novelty of unknown fungi. For example, ITS-812 partial LSU rDNA clustering of isolates collected in our surveys identified multiple endophyte OTU 813 at 95% sequence similarity (i.e., AK0995, AK0128, AZ0526, AK0222, and AK1016). However, 814 representatives of these isolates were placed within a well-supported clade containing two 815 isolates of Daldinia loculata, suggesting that these OTU are all D. loculata rather than multiple 816 species (Fig. 2). Interestingly, these isolates represent different macromorphologies on 2% MEA 817 and OA and will need additional morphological characterization (Supplemental Fig. 3). Thus, 818 incorporating representative isolates into a multi-locus phylogenetic framework is only the first 819 step in assessing the potential novelty of endophytic and saprotrophic fungi. 820 821 3.8. Metadata availability, host breadth, substrate diversity, and geographic distribution of

822 Xylariaceae

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Many Xylariaceae species have broad distributions in forests across both the Northern and
Southern Hemispheres (e.g., *Daldinia* spp. Stadler et al., 2014), whereas other species appear to
be restricted geographically (e.g., *Xylotumulus gibbisporus* endemic to Hawai'i; Rogers and Ju,
2012). However, distribution data based on ascomata are likely to be incomplete due to the fact
that Xylariaceae species typically only form ascomata on a "preferred" host (e.g., *Obolarina*

829 *dryophila* on *Quercus*; Pažoutová et al., 2010b), despite the potential to live asymptomatically on

a wide diversity of plant species and substrates (e.g., Petrini and Petrini, 1985). Additionally,

species of Xylariaceae reported to have cosmopolitan distributions may potentially represent complexes of cryptic species revealed only by detailed morphological, chemical, or molecular analyses (e.g., *Daldinia eschscholzii*; see Stadler et al., 2004). Therefore, incorporating publicly available sequence data (many representing cryptic microfungi, including endophytes) coupled with records of ascomata can provide further information to estimate the geographic distribution, host breadth, and substrate diversity of xylariaceous species.

837 Our sampling of endophytes from diverse plant and lichen species in five sites across 838 North America emphasizes that lichen thalli are a very common habitat for Xylariaceae (see also 839 Arnold et al., 2009). The interiors of apparently healthy lichen thalli yielded 1,259 isolates 840 representing 67 putative species (84.8% of the 79 xylariaceous OTU from our surveys considered 841 here; see Table 1). These fungi were isolated from 46 lichen species representing 10 major 842 lineages of mycobionts (7 orders and 3 families incertae sedis in Lecanoromycetes) 843 (Supplemental Table 1). Although the highly diverse nature of xylariaceous endophytes from 844 angiosperms has been previously reported, especially in tropical forests (Bayman et al., 1998; 845 Govinda Rajulu et al., 2013; Linnakoski et al., 2012; Okane et al., 2008; Whalley, 1996), our data 846 illustrate that in temperate and boreal communities, Xylariaceae are especially diverse in conifers, 847 lycophytes, and bryophytes (Supplemental Table 2; see also Davis et al., 2003).

848 Although these hosts harbored a high diversity of endophytes, we observed no clear 849 phylogenetic pattern with regard to host phylogeny (Fig. 2). The vast majority of endophytic 850 Xylariaceae appear to be host generalists: 91 of 124 terminal taxa (73.4%) capable of living 851 endophytically (i.e., reported at least once from living leaves, lichen thalli, or asymptomatic inner 852 bark, cortex, sapwood, or branches of a living host) occurred on more than one host lineage (e.g., 853 angiosperm, "gymnosperm", spore-bearing vascular plant, bryophyte, or lichen; Fig. 2). There 854 was no apparent clade or species-level specificity with regard to lichen photobiont or mycobiont 855 (e.g., OTU found in cyanolichens also occurred in lichens with green algal symbionts; 856 Supplemental Table 1). At the community level, previous work suggested a unique connection 857 among fungi occurring in lichens and bryophytes (U'Ren et al., 2010; 2012), but 77.8% of 27 OTU 858 cultured in our surveys from both lichens and bryophytes also occurred in living tissues of

vascular plant hosts. Thus, non-xylariaceous taxa seem to account for the patterns observed byU'Ren et al. (2010; 2012).

861 The majority of terminal taxa in the tree with an endophytic life stage also were recovered 862 from sencescent leaves or decomposing leaves, wood, bark, fruits, or flowers (74.2%; n = 92 of 863 124 terminal taxa; Fig. 2), suggesting that for many species endophytism is only one stage of a 864 complex lifecycle that can involve interactions with diverse host lineages. For example, early-865 diverging endophyte OTU (i.e., FL0915, FL2044, and FL0641) were cultured from living tissues of 866 both lichens and angiosperms, as well as dead leaves of a conifer host (Table 1; Fig. 2). In 867 contrast, only 33 of 241 (13.7%) terminal taxa not found as endophytes were collected from 868 multiple host lineages and substrates, a pattern that may reflect greater ecological specialization. 869 Indeed, a few more recently diverged clades appear to have evolved more specific host ranges 870 (e.g., Xylaria hypoxylon aggregate on angiosperms; see also Læssøe and Lodge, 1994; Rogers, 871 1979b; Whalley, 1985). However, additional sampling of endophytes of tropical lichens and non-872 angiosperm lineages is needed to confirm the pattern. Additionally, inferences can be limited due 873 to missing or incomplete metadata in public databases. For example, 32.8% and 46.7% of 1,264 874 filtered BLASTn hits lacked information for host lineage and substrate, respectively 875 (Supplemental Tables 7-8), revealing a pressing need for standardized formats and requirements 876 for metadata submission with sequences. 877 After incorporating both morphological records and GenBank metadata, we found that

878 155 of 365 terminal taxa (42.5%) were reported only in a single geographic region. Importantly, 879 geographic regions were broadly defined, such that a taxon reported from a single region might 880 still be geographically widespread within a region (e.g., Xylaria tuberoides in southern Mexico, 881 Venezuela, French Guiana, and Guyana). Over a third of terminal taxa (n = 137; 37.5%) were 882 found in \geq 3 regions (e.g., US/Canada, S. Mexico/C. and S. America/Caribbean, Europe, Asia, or 883 "Other"; Fig. 2). When analyzed in a phylogenetic context, taxa with widespread geographic 884 ranges were distributed throughout the Xylariaceae. However, Obolarina, Durotheca, 885 Pseudoxylaria, Podosordaria and Poronia, and endophyte-only clades appear more 886 geographically limited (Fig. 2). The apparent localization of certain taxa or clades may be due to

the limited range of their host (e.g., *Pseudoxylaria* on Macrotermitinae termite nests; see above),
dispersal limitation, climate, or habitat restrictions (see Whalley, 1985), and/or missing metadata
(Supplemental Tables 6-7). Additional sampling from diverse locations and hosts, using both
culturing and culture-free next generation sequencing, will help clarify the biogeographic patterns
of xylariaceous fungi.

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893 *3.9. Contributions of endophytes to understanding the ecology of described species:* Daldinia
894 loculata

895

896 Our analyses revealed a monophyletic clade containing five endophytic OTU interspersed with 897 two isolates of Daldinia loculata (Fig. 2B). Ascomata of D. loculata usually are recovered from 898 burnt or damaged Betulaceae in temperate, boreal, and montane forests of the Northern 899 Hemisphere, although the species also has been observed on wood of Salicaceae, Fagaceae, 900 and Rosaceae (Stadler et al., 2014). It has been reported previously as a foliar endophyte of non-901 angiosperm hosts (see Pažoutová et al., 2010a). In our surveys, members of the D. loculata 902 clade were frequently isolated as endophytes of diverse plants and lichens in boreal and 903 subarctic Alaska. For example, in Eagle Summit, Alaska, we isolated D. loculata from 904 asymptomatic, living photosynthetic tissue of evergreen angiosperms, conifers, lycophytes, and 905 bryophytes and long-lived thalli of nine lichen species representing different growth forms. 906 substrates, and photobionts. ITS rDNA analyses suggest that closely related isolates occur in 907 Nome, Alaska, as well as Arizona, Florida, Jamaica, Europe, and New Zealand in a range of 908 biomes from subarctic tundra to tropical high-elevation forest (Fig. 2; Supplemental Tables 1, 6-909 7). Although previously thought to be rare or absent from subtropical and tropical forests, these 910 data illustrate that the species has a wider geographic and host range than reported previously. 911 Additionally, our data may help illuminate aspects of the lifecycle of *D. loculata*. 912 Previously, the species was proposed to inhabit asymptomatic, living wood of Betula until fire kills 913 the host (Guidot et al., 2003; Johannesson et al., 2001a; 2001b; see also Rayner and Boddy, 914 1988). The fungus then grows rapidly within host tissue, forming conidia beneath the bark that are

915 dispersed by insects among burnt trees. When conidia of different mating types interact, the 916 sexual cycle is initiated, producing ascospores that are wind-dispersed to infect the unburned 917 wood of young saplings, where the fungus presumably is endophytic in woody tissues of the host 918 until another fire begins the cycle again (Guidot et al., 2003). Our data illustrate that D. loculata 919 was abundant in the photosynthetic tissues of living lichens and evergreen plants in Eagle 920 Summit (Alaska), as well as present in lower abundances in senescent leaves still attached in the 921 canopy and fallen leaves in leaf litter from the previous year) (i.e., DL, FP; Table 1; Supplemental 922 Table 1). However, we did not detect D. loculata in newly flushed leaves of Salix and Betula, 923 which suggests that leaves of these hosts may be colonized from airborne inoculum each 924 season. Whether inoculum is from wind-dispersed ascospores or asexual conidia produced on 925 senescent evergreen plants or lichens in the same site remains to be elucidated, but it implies 926 that the fungus is reproducing during intervals between fires (ca. 50-150 years in this area; 927 Johannesson et al., 2000).

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929 *3.10. Contributions of endophytes to understanding the ecology of described species:* Xylaria930 cubensis

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932 Ascomata of Xylaria cubensis are commonly encountered on decomposing angiosperm wood in 933 tropical, subtropical, and temperate forests across the globe, degrading both lignin and cellulose 934 thereby causing a physiological white rot (Rogers, 1984). However, closely related isolates are 935 frequently cultured in endophyte surveys, especially of tropical angiosperms, ferns, and 936 lycophytes (e.g., Fan et al., 2014; Fröhlich et al, 2000; Okane et al., 2008; 2012; Rodrigues, 937 1994; Rodrigues et al., 1995; Rodrigues and Samuels, 1990; 1999; Rodrigues and Petrini, 1997) 938 (Fig. 2E). Our results indicate that X. cubensis (represented by NC1011) is a frequent inhabitant 939 of temperate and subtropical lichens (Fig. 2E; Table 1; Supplemental Table 1). Of the 193 X. 940 cubensis isolates in a single 95% ITS rDNA OTU, 154 were cultured from lichens, whereas the 941 remaining were found from angiosperms, conifers, and bryophytes (Supplemental Table 1; Fig. 942 2E). Even at a finer scale there was no evidence for host specificity: numerous unique ITS rDNA

943 genotypes (based on 100% sequence similarity) were shared among different host species, 944 substrates (lichens, living, and dead plant tissues), as well as geographic locations (see also 945 Okane et al., 2012; Supplemental Table 2). The species was collected from 22 species of lichens 946 in Arizona, North Carolina, and Florida, representing five mycobiont orders (Lecanorales, 947 Teloschistales, Ostropales, Peltigerales, and Umbilicariales) and diverse substrates, growth 948 forms, and photobionts (e.g., various Trebouxiales and Nostoc species) (Supplemental Table 1). 949 All investigated lichen genera in North Carolina and Florida (>10 spp. per site) yielded X. 950 cubensis with the exception of the epiphytic crustose lichen Herpothallon rubrocintum, the only 951 representative from the class Arthoniomycetes. However, isolates of X. cubensis are reported to 952 have high morphological, genetic, and chemical diversity (Casella et al., 2013; Rodrigues et al., 953 1993; Rodriguez et al., 1995; also see above for discussion of intraspecific ITS rDNA variation) 954 and additional studies are necessary to elucidate whether X. cubensis, as currently defined, 955 represents a complex of several species, each with potentially different host and substrate 956 preferences.

957

958 3.11. Conclusions

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960 The goal of this study was to address the impact of a large collection of plant- and lichen-961 associated strains on the circumscription and phylogenetic structure of the Xylariaceae, and to 962 evaluate their evolutionary history and ecology in a multi-locus phylogenetic context. Our results, 963 coupled with previous molecular phylogenetic studies, reiterate the need for taxonomic revision at 964 several levels within the Xylariaceae (Hsieh et al., 2005; 2010; Pažoutová et al., 2010b). Such 965 revisionary work is hindered by the sheer diversity of xylariaceous fungi, a shortage of trained 966 mycologists, the lack of reproductive structures in culture for many strains, biases in existing data, 967 the lack of molecular data from type specimens (especially non-ITS rDNA sequence data) and 968 the need for additional phylogenetic molecular markers (see Stadler et al., 2013; Stadler et al., 969 2014 for discussion of revision; also see Daranagama et al., 2015; Senanayake et al., 2015). 970 Given the current situation, it is premature to assign taxonomic names to the majority of our

endophytic and saprotrophic OTU. Importantly, representative cultures have been deposited in
the Gilbertson Mycological Herbarium (ARIZ), where they are available on request for additional
characterization. Additionally, this work detects potentially misidentified specimens and
sequences in public databases, illuminates large gaps in available metadata for sequences
deposited in NCBI, and identifies the need for novel methods to integrate ITS rDNA sequences
into robust, multi-locus phylogenetic analyses.

977 More generally, our study expands current knowledge regarding the ecology, host use, 978 and geographic distributions of well-known Xylariaceae. We found that the majority of 979 xylariaceous endophytes obtained in large surveys in North America can be classified in the 980 hypoxyloid and xylaroid subfamilies, although numerous endophytes also were found outside of 981 these lineages (as currently circumscribed). Most newly cultured strains appear to represent 982 novel species rather than previously described species, but inferences are limited by the potential 983 for previously known Xylariaceae to be absent from public databases. Representatives of the 984 lineages associated with the origin of Xylariaceae were found in living, asymptomatic leaves of 985 angiosperms, gymnosperms, and bryophytes, consistent with the purported origin of endophytism 986 early in the evolution of the Pezizomycotina (Lutzoni et al., in review). Our data suggest that in 987 general, temperate and boreal xylariaceous endophytes have both endophytic (in both plants and 988 lichens) and saprotrophic life stages (i.e., many endophyte OTU also contained isolates found 989 inside non-living leaves (consistent with observations by Osono, 2002; 2005; 2006). However, 990 additional work is necessary to determine the saprotrophic capabilities of endophytic OTU 991 presented here, and the genomic, transcriptomic, and metabolic base of endophytic, 992 saprotrophic, and pathogenic modes in this compelling and diverse family.

993

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- 1668 Figure Legends
- 1669

1670 Figure 1. Phylogenetic relationships among 365 Xylariaceae representatives, including 77 newly 1671 collected endophyte and saprotroph putative species (representing 78 isolates) from field surveys 1672 of plants and lichens in five sites across North America and 287 previously named taxa. The tree 1673 was inferred by maximum likelihood based on a combined five-locus dataset (i.e., ITS rDNA, LSU 1674 rDNA, *RPB2*, α -actin, and β -tubulin sequences, described in the text as the 5 + 4 + 3 + 2 + 1 1675 dataset). Two species of Diatrypaceae (Diatrype disciformis and Eutypa lata) were used to root 1676 the tree based on the results of a four-locus supermatrix analysis of the Xylariomycetidae 1677 (Supplemental Fig. 1) and the availability of multi-locus sequence data (Supplemental Table 1678 2). The four-box grid at each internode indicates maximum likelihood bootstrap support values 1679 derived from our cumulative supermatrix approach (see legend and Materials and Methods). 1680 Major clades of Hypoxyloideae (Hypoxylon clades "H1", "H2", and "H3", Daldinia clade, 1681 Annulohypoxylon clade, Durotheca, and Biscogniauxia clade) are defined according to Hsieh et 1682 al. (2005) and Læssøe et al. (2013). Major clades of Xylarioideae are defined according to Hsieh 1683 et al. (2010): subgenus *Pseudoxylaria* (*Pseudoxylaria* "TE" clade); *Xylaria hypoxylon* and closely

- 1684 related taxa (*Xylaria* "HY" clade); the clade containing *Nemania* spp., *Rosellinia* spp. and
- 1685 Entoleuca mammata (Nemania + Rosellinia "NR" clade); and the clade containing Xylaria
- 1686 polymorpha and closely related taxa (*Xylaria* "PO" clade). Red and dark-blue fonts indicate taxa

1687 included in analyses by Hsieh et al. (2005) and Hsieh et al. (2010), respectively. Black font 1688 indicates isolates from studies listed in Supplemental Table 2 (with the exception of Obolarina 1689 and Durotheca, none of the genera listed in black has been described formally using both 1690 morphological and molecular data). Light blue strain- and species names indicate specimens 1691 sequenced for the present study. Representative isolates from our surveys are shown as a two-1692 letter code (AZ, NC, FL, AK) followed by the isolate number, the host and substrate information 1693 for the 95% ITSrDNA-partial LSU OTU represented by that isolate (LT, lichen thallus; LP, living 1694 plant tissue; DP, dead leaves in the canopy; and FP, dead plant leaves in leaf litter), and the total 1695 number of isolates in the OTU (Table 1). Subfamily classifications (i.e., Hypoxyloideae or 1696 Xylarioideae) are based on Stadler et al. (2013). Genera currently unclassified at the subfamily 1697 level (i.e., Whalleya and Anthostomella; see Stadler et al., 2013), as well as endophyte clades 1698 E3-E7 are indicated on the tree as incertae subfamiliae. Two endophyte OTU (clades E1-E2) as 1699 well as Seynesia erumpens are labeled as incertae familiae reflecting the recent proposal of 1700 Seynesia as a member of the Cainaceae rather than Xylariaceae (see Senanayake et al., 2015). 1701 The blue star denotes Hypoxylon argillaceum CBS 527.63, a potentially misidentified isolate for 1702 which taxonomic revision may be warranted.

1703

1704 Figure 2. Phylogenetic integration of geographic and ecological metadata in the evolutionary 1705 context of the Xylariaceae (Fig. 1). Tree topology and clade definitions follow Fig. 1. Thickened 1706 branches indicate maximum likelihood bootstrap values ≥70% from all four bootstrap analyses of 1707 the cumulative supermatrix approach. An asterisk (*) denotes nodes with ≥70% support from at 1708 least one of the bootstrap analyses from the cumulative supermatrix approach (e.g., 5 + 4) (see 1709 Fig. 1). Major clades are shaded according to the ecological mode of the majority of taxa used in 1710 the multilocus analysis: green shading, endophyte clade (numbered E1-E9); grey, saprotroph; 1711 white, pathogen; brown, dung-associated; peach, termite-associated; and purple, equivocal. 1712 Within clades, terminals are labeled with colored fonts to indicate ecological mode of the terminal 1713 taxon based on review of the literature (see Supplemental Table 9 and legend). Within taxon 1714 names, numbers after the dash indicate the 95% OTU designation based on clustering analysis

1715 of ITS rDNA sequences for all isolates (when available) included in the phylogenetic analyses 1716 (e.g., Daldinia vernicosa 121-139 belongs to OTU 139). In cases where an isolate recovered in 1717 our surveys was within the same 95% ITS rDNA group as a named taxon not present in the tree 1718 due to lack of multi-locus data, the species name follows the OTU designation (e.g., FL1857 - 83 - Hypoxylon pulicicidum; see also Table 1). Columns of numbers after taxon names indicate (1) 1719 1720 the total number of isolates recovered in our surveys represented per 95% ITS rDNA group (see 1721 also Table 1) and (2) the number of BLASTn hits with ≥99% identity (isolates lacking numbers did 1722 not have ITS rDNA sequences in NCBI) (Supplemental Tables 7-8). The geographic locations of 1723 collection, photobiont host lineage, and substrate type are indicated for each terminal taxon. Solid 1724 black circles represent metadata from our field surveys (Supplemental Table 1; Table 1) or 1725 reference taxa (Supplemental Table 2). Solid grey circles represent metadata gathered from 1726 filtered BLASTn hits at ≥99% similarity (Supplemental Tables 6-7). Solid blue circles represent 1727 information associated with fruiting bodies, gathered by reviewing recent species monographs. 1728 species descriptions, and public databases (Supplemental Table 9). For substrate metadata, the 1729 color of outer circles indicates the condition of the host tissue at the time of collection (e.g., 1730 asymptomatic living tissue (green), diseased living tissue (red), dead or decomposed tissue 1731 (brown), N/A or unknown (black); see substrate legend). The "Other" category for geographic 1732 location denotes isolates from Australia, New Zealand, Papua New Guinea, Africa, the Middle 1733 East, and Antarctica, which were rarely represented across the dataset.

1734

1735 Supplemental Information

1736

Supplemental Figure 1. Phylogenetic relationships among 517 putative members of the
Xylariomycetidae (92 endophytic and saprotrophic OTU [representing 93 total isolates] collected
in our surveys and 424 previously named taxa) inferred with maximum likelihood analysis of
combined ITS rDNA, LSU rDNA, *RPB2*, and β-tubulin sequences. Three species of *Ophiostoma*(Ophiostomatales, Sordariomycetes) were used to root the tree based on Huhndorf et al. (2004)
and the availability of multi-locus data (Supplemental Table 2). Isolates are color-coded based on

recently proposed family designations (see Senanayake et al., 2015). The main clade

1744 representing Xylariaceae plus Graphostroma platystoma (Graphostromataceae) and Seynesia

1745 *erumpens* (Cainaceae), as well as 79 endophyte and saptrotroph OTU from our surveys is

1746 collapsed for readability. See main text for discussion of *Graphostroma* and *Seynesia*. Several

1747 taxa previously classified as Xylariaceae (Anthostomella torosa, Dicyma funiculosa, and D.

1748 *pulvinata*) were found outside Xylariaceae. Support values are based on 1,000 maximum

1749 likelihood bootstrap replicates. Bootstrap values <50% are not shown.

1750

Supplemental Figure 2. Probability density of phylogenetic diversity (PD; the sum of all the edge
lengths in the subtree given by a subset of tips) calculated for 77 endophytic taxa and 1,000

1753 random subsets of 209 previously named Xylariaceae taxa (for a total of 286 taxa, which matches

1754 the total number of named Xylariaceae taxa used in the phylogenetic analyses; mean PD ± SD =

1755 29.5 ± 0.41). The dotted line represents the observed PD of all previously named Xylariaceae

taxa without the OTU gathered in our surveys (PD = 27.91; P<0.001).

1757

1758 **Supplemental Figure 3.** Macromorphological characterization of 70 xylariaceous isolates

1759 (representing 69 OTU based on 95% ITS-partial LSU rDNA similarity) collected in our surveys

1760 from five North American sites. Cultures were grown on 2% malt extract agar (MEA) and 2%

oatmeal agar (OA) under ambient light/dark condition at room temperature (ca. 21.5°C) for up to
six months.

1763

1764 Supplemental Table 1. Geographic and host information for xylariaceous isolates collected in1765 our surveys from five North American sites.

1766

1767 **Supplemental Table 2**. Reference taxa included in the present study.

1768

1769 Supplemental Table 3. Description of the single locus datasets used for analyses of the

1770 Xylariomycetidae and Xylariaceae.

| 1771 | |
|------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 1772 | Supplemental Table 4. Taxa with significant conflict (as defined in Materials and Methods) |
| 1773 | detected among single-locus phylogenies. |
| 1774 | |
| 1775 | Supplemental Table 5. Characteristics of datasets used for the cumulative supermatrix analyses |
| 1776 | of the Xylariaceae. |
| 1777 | |
| 1778 | Supplemental Table 6. Accession numbers for ITS rDNA sequences from 205 previously named |
| 1779 | Xylariaceae taxa not present in phylogenetic analyses due to lack of multi-locus data. |
| 1780 | |
| 1781 | Supplemental Table 7. Metadata from ITS rDNA BLASTn hits with ≥99% identity to endophytic, |
| 1782 | endolichenic, and saprotrophic OTU collected in our surveys from five North American sites. Data |
| 1783 | reported as listed in NCBI. |
| 1784 | |
| 1785 | Supplemental Table 8. Metadata from ITS rDNA BLASTn hits with ≥99% identity to previously |
| 1786 | named Xylariaceae taxa. Data reported as listed in NCBI. |
| 1787 | |
| 1788 | Supplemental Table 9. Geographic, host, and substrate information for previously identified |
| | |

1789 Xylariaceae taxa based on published monographs, species descriptions, or online resources.

Figure1













Hypoxyloideae

Xylarioideae

----- 0.05 length units

Xylaria "PO" clade

Table 1. Host species, OTU designation (95% ITS-partial LSU rDNA) and number of representatives, geographic information, and GenBank accession numbers for endophytic, endolichenic, and saprotrophic fungi collected in our surveys of five North American sites. GenBank accession numbers in bold represent new sequences generated as part of this study.

GenBank accession numbers

| Representative Isolate | Origin* | Host species | Tissue type** | OTU (95, 100%) | Total # isolates in 95% OTU | # Isolates per tissue type (LT, LP, DP, FP)** | # Isolates per site (AZC, NCH, FLA, AK)*** | Putative taxonomic classification ° | ITS - partial LSU rDNA | RPB2 | β- tubulin | α-actin |
|---------------------------|---------|---------------------------|------------------|----------------------|--------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|------------------------------|---------|---------------|---------|
| AK1199 | AKN | Equisetum arvense | LP | 10, 14 | 6 | 0, 4, 0, 2 | 0, 2, 0, 4 | Xylariomycetidae incertae sedis | JQ759542 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| AZ0196 | AZC | Quercus rugosa | DP | 16, 25 | 69 | 0, 14, 35, 20 | 42, 18, 9, 0 | Xylariomycetidae incertae sedis | HM122945 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| AZ0339 | AZC | Quercus rugosa | FP | 19, 28 | 13 | 0, 0, 1, 12 | 2, 7, 4, 0 | Xylariomycetidae incertae sedis | HM123082 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| FL0674 | FLA | Pinus elliottii | LP | 33, 55 | 6 | 0, 3, 2, 1 | 0, 0, 6, 0 | Xylariomycetidae incertae sedis | JQ760367 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| FL0456 | FLA | Cladonia didyma | LT | 46, 86 | 1 | 1, 0, 0, 0 | 0, 0, 1, 0 | Xylariomycetidae incertae sedis | JQ760182 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| FL0650 | FLA | Pinus elliottii | LP | 61, 248 | 2 | 0, 2, 0, 0 | 0, 0, 2, 0 | Xylariomycetidae incertae sedis | JQ760354 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| FL0677 | FLA | Pinus elliottii | LP | 64, 123 | 1 | 0, 1, 0, 0 | 0, 0, 1, 0 | Xylariomycetidae incertae sedis | JQ760370 | submit* | submit* | NA |
| FL0850 | FLA | Herpothallon rubrocinctum | LT | 69, 133 | 1 | 1, 0, 0, 0 | 0, 0, 1, 0 | Xylariomycetidae incertae sedis | JQ760489 | submit* | submit* | NA |
| FL1681 | FLA | Pinus clausa | FP | 80, 185 | 1 | 0, 0, 0, 1 | 0, 0, 1, 0 | Xylariomycetidae incertae sedis | submit* | submit* | submit* | NA |
| FL1780 | FLA | Quercus inopina | FP | 82, 188 | 1 | 0, 0, 0, 1 | 0, 0, 1, 0 | Xylariomycetidae incertae sedis | submit* | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| FL2152 | FLA | Pinus clausa | DP | 85, 191 | 2 | 0, 0, 2, 0 | 0, 0, 2, 0 | Xylariomycetidae incertae sedis | submit* | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| NC0532 | NCH | <i>Hypnum</i> sp. | LP | 87, 205 | 14 | 3, 11, 0, 0 | 0, 14, 0, 0 | Xylariomycetidae incertae sedis | JQ761527 | submit* | NA | submit* |
| NC1491 | NCH | Pseudevernia consocians | LT | 92, 236 | 1 | 1, 0, 0, 0 | 0, 1, 0, 0 | Xylariomycetidae incertae sedis | JQ761899 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| FL2044 | FLA | Serenoa repens | DP | 43, 95 | 24 | 17, 1, 6, 0 | 0, 0, 24, 0 | Xylariomycetidae incertae sedis | submit* | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| FL0915 | FLA | Cladonia subradiata | LT | 71, 137 | 2 | 1, 0, 1, 0 | 0, 0, 2, 0 | Xylariomycetidae sp. nov. | JQ760548 | submit* | submit* | NA |
| FL0641 | FLA | Pinus elliottii | LP | 60, 120 | 1 | 0, 1, 0, 0 | 0, 0, 1, 0 | Xylariomycetidae sp. nov. | JQ760347 | submit* | NA | submit* |
| FL0662 | FLA | Pinus elliottii | LP | 63, 122 | 1 | 0, 1, 0, 0 | 0, 0, 1, 0 | Xylariaceae sp. nov. | JQ760360 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| FL0638 | FLA | Pinus elliottii | LP | 58, 118 | 1 | 0, 1, 0, 0 | 0, 0, 1, 0 | Xylariaceae sp. nov. | JQ760345 | submit* | NA | submit* |
| AK1116 | AKN | Cassiope tetragona | LP | 11, 15 | 2 | 0, 2, 0, 0 | 0, 0, 0, 2 | Xylariaceae sp. nov. | JQ759464 | submit* | submit* | NA |
| FL0602 | FLA | Cladonia evansii | LT | 55, 113 | 6 | 6, 0, 0, 0 | 0, 0, 6, 0 | <i>Hypoxylon</i> sp. nov. | JQ760314 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| FL1179 | FLA | Pyxine eschweileri | LT | 75, 161 | 4 | 4, 0, 0, 0 | 0, 0, 4, 0 | <i>Hypoxylon</i> sp. nov. | JQ760795 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| FL1170 | FLA | Parmotrema rampoddense | LT | 76, 159 | 1 | 1, 0, 0, 0 | 0, 0, 1, 0 | Hypoxylon rubiginosum | JQ760786 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| NC1633 | NCH | Diploschistes scruposus | LT | 94, 242 | 1 | 1, 0, 0, 0 | 0, 1, 0, 0 | <i>Hypoxylon</i> sp. nov. | JQ761992 | NA | NA | submit* |
| NC0708 | NCH | Pinus strobus | FP | 88, 214 | 1 | 0, 0, 0, 1 | 0, 1, 0, 0 | Hypoxylon submonticulosum | submit* | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| FL0542 | FLA | Cladonia leporina | LT | 52, 104 | 1 | 1, 0, 0, 0 | 0, 0, 1, 0 | Hypoxylon monticulosum | JQ760257 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| FL1289 | FLA | Cladonia leporina | LT | 77, 169 | 1 | 1, 0, 0, 0 | 0, 0, 1, 0 | Hypoxylon polyporus | JQ760904 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| FL1408 | FLA | Parmotrema tinctorum | LT | 53, 111 | 6 | 6, 0, 0, 0 | 0, 0, 6, 0 | Daldinia eschscholzii | JQ761025 | submit* | submit* | NA |
| FL1419 | FLA | Parmotrema tinctorum | LT | 78, 179 | 1 | 1, 0, 0, 0 | 0, 0, 1, 0 | Daldinia sp. nov. | JQ761035 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| AK1016 | AKE | Arctoparmelia separata | LT | 2, 2 | 86 | 53, 25, 2, 6 | 0, 0, 0, 86 | Daldinia loculata | JQ759383 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| AZ0526 | AZC | Physcia caesia | LT | 6, 7 | 111 | 48, 38, 11, 14 | 1, 0, 0, 110 | Daldinia loculata | HM123248 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| AK0222 | AKE | Pleurozium schreberi | LP | 7, 8 | 29 | 16, 11, 1, 1 | 0, 0, 5, 24 | Daldinia loculata | JQ758703 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| AK0128 | AKE | Pleurozium schreberi | LP | 3, 3 | 36 | 17, 11, 2, 6 | 0, 0, 0, 36 | Daldinia loculata | JQ758621 | submit* | submit* | submit* |

| AK0995 | AKE | Flavocetraria cucullata | LT | 4, 4 | 90 | 47, 37, 1, 5 | 0, 0, 0, 90 | Daldinia loculata Hypoxylon pulicicidum (matches | JQ759362 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
|---------------------|-----|--------------------------|----|---------|-----|---------------|--------------|-----------------------------------------------------------|----------|---------|---------|---------|
| FL1857 | FLA | Pinus elliottii | DP | 83, 189 | 1 | 0, 0, 1, 0 | 0, 0, 1, 0 | JX183075) | submit* | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| NC0597 | NCH | Pseudevernia consocians | LT | 56, 114 | 40 | 33, 5, 1, 1 | 0, 36, 4, 0 | Hypoxylon sp. nov. | JQ761586 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| FL1377 | FLA | Parmotrema tinctorum | LT | 47, 105 | 26 | 17, 4, 2, 3 | 0, 19, 7, 0 | Hypoxylon sp. nov. | JQ760995 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| NC1073 | NCH | Selaginella tortipila | LP | 70, 206 | 9 | 1, 6, 2, 0 | 0, 8, 1, 0 | Hypoxylon sp. nov. | JQ761719 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| FL1043 | FLA | Cladonia evansii | LT | 27, 46 | 39 | 26, 10, 3, 0 | 0, 0, 39, 0 | Hypoxylon sp. nov. | JQ760666 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| FL0890 | FLA | Pyxine eschweileri | LT | 25, 41 | 98 | 65, 15, 7, 11 | 0, 0, 98, 0 | Hypoxylon sp. nov. | JQ760526 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| FL0455 | FLA | Cladonia didyma | LT | 44, 246 | 19 | 18, 0, 0, 1 | 0, 0, 19, 0 | Annulohypoxylon sp. nov. | JQ760181 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| FL0470 | FLA | Cladonia didyma | LT | 48, 89 | 4 | 4, 0, 0, 0 | 0, 0, 4, 0 | Annulohypoxylon stygium Bissogniauxia atropupatata yar | JQ760192 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| FL1025 | FLA | Cladonia evansii | LT | 45, 85 | 19 | 15, 2, 1, 1 | 0, 7, 12, 0 | intermedia (matches AJ390412) | JQ760650 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| AZ0048 | AZC | Flavoparmelia praesignis | LT | 17, 23 | 128 | 109, 10, 5, 4 | 89, 30, 9, 0 | Biscogniauxia mediterranea | HM122805 | NA | NA | submit* |
| AZ0703 | AZC | Pseudevernia intensa | LT | 20, 31 | 10 | 8, 1, 0, 1 | 2, 7, 1, 0 | Biscogniauxia mediterranea | HM123416 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| AZ1047 | AZC | Woodsia plummerae | LP | 23, 39 | 2 | 0, 1, 0, 1 | 2, 0, 0, 0 | HQ599578) | HM123694 | submit* | NA | submit* |
| FL0804 | FLA | Cladonia subtenius | LT | 59, 119 | 5 | 2, 1, 0, 2 | 0, 0, 5, 0 | Xylariaceae sp. nov. | JQ760457 | submit* | NA | submit* |
| FL0016 | FLA | Aristida stricta | LP | 24, 40 | 1 | 0, 1, 0, 0 | 0, 0, 1, 0 | Xylariaceae sp. nov. | JQ759892 | submit* | NA | submit* |
| FL1105 | FLA | Cladonia subtenius | LT | 42, 74 | 17 | 13, 1, 0, 3 | 0, 0, 17, 0 | KC771503) | JQ760728 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| FL1272 | FLA | Usnea subscabrosa | LT | 51, 125 | 10 | 6, 1, 1, 2 | 0, 0, 10, 0 | Xylariaceae sp. nov. | JQ760887 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| FL1255 ^b | FLA | Usnea subscabrosa | LT | 34, 83 | 7 | 7, 0, 0, 0 | 0, 0, 7, 0 | Xylariaceae sp. nov. | JQ760870 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| FL1019 ^b | FLA | Parmotrema perforatum | LT | 34, 66 | 9 | 6, 3, 0, 0 | 0, 0, 9, 0 | Xylariaceae sp. nov. | JQ760644 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| FL0660 | FLA | Pinus elliottii | LP | 62, 121 | 9 | 2, 1, 0, 6 | 0, 0, 9, 0 | Xylariaceae sp. nov. | JQ760358 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| FL0821 | FLA | Cladonia subtenius | LT | 67, 129 | 4 | 1, 0, 1, 2 | 0, 0, 4, 0 | Xylariaceae sp. nov. | JQ760469 | submit* | submit* | NA |
| NC1622 | NCH | Tsuga canadensis | LP | 91, 241 | 3 | 1, 2, 0, 0 | 0, 3, 0, 0 | (matches AY908990) | JQ761984 | submit* | NA | submit* |
| FL0255 | FLA | Pinus elliottii | LP | 26, 43 | 67 | 36, 19, 2, 10 | 0, 0, 67, 0 | Xylariaceae sp. nov. | JQ760030 | NA | submit* | NA |
| FL1015 | FLA | Parmotrema perforatum | LT | 41, 81 | 17 | 16, 1, 0, 0 | 0, 0, 17, 0 | Xylariaceae sp. nov. Anthostomella brabeii (matches | JQ760640 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| FL1651 | FLA | Quercus inopina | FP | 79, 184 | 1 | 0, 0, 0, 1 | 0, 0, 1, 0 | EU552098) ^d | submit* | submit* | submit* | NA |
| NC1498 | NCH | Xanthoparmelia conspersa | LT | 30, 237 | 12 | 7, 3, 1, 1 | 0, 4, 8, 0 | Xylariaceae sp. nov. | JQ761906 | submit* | NA | submit* |
| FL0594 | FLA | Cladonia evansii | LT | 54, 112 | 4 | 3, 1, 0, 0 | 0, 0, 4, 0 | Xylariaceae sp. nov. | JQ760306 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| AK1595° | AKE | Salix pulchra | DP | 15, 21 | 1 | 0, 0, 1, 0 | 0, 0, 0, 1 | Xylariaceae sp. nov. | JQ759870 | submit* | NA | NA |
| AK1471 ^ª | AKN | Peltigera aphthosa | LT | 14, 19 | 7 | 7, 0, 0, 0 | 2, 1, 2, 2 | (matches EU552100) ^d | JQ759768 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| FL0491 | FLA | Cladonia didyma | LT | 50, 94 | 1 | 1, 0, 0, 0 | 0, 0, 1, 0 | <i>Xylaria</i> sp. nov. | JQ760210 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| FL1030 | FLA | Cladonia evansii | LT | 66, 146 | 6 | 5, 0, 0, 1 | 0, 0, 6, 0 | Xylaria arbuscula | JQ760654 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| FL1777 | FLA | Quercus inopina | FP | 81, 187 | 1 | 0, 0, 0, 1 | 0, 0, 1, 0 | Xylaria sp. nov. | submit* | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| NC1654 | NCH | Flavoparmelia caperata | LT | 95, 244 | 1 | 1, 0, 0, 0 | 0, 1, 0, 0 | Kretzschmaria deusta | JQ762008 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| FL0490 | FLA | Cladonia didyma | LT | 49, 93 | 1 | 1, 0, 0, 0 | 0, 0, 1, 0 | Xylaria venustula | JQ760209 | NA | submit* | submit* |
| FL1042 | FLA | Cladonia evansii | LT | 74, 147 | 2 | 1, 0, 0, 1 | 0, 0, 2, 0 | <i>Xylaria</i> sp. nov. | JQ760665 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| FL0609 | FLA | Cladonia evansii | LT | 57, 116 | 2 | 2, 0, 0, 0 | 0, 0, 2, 0 | <i>Xylaria</i> sp. nov. | JQ760320 | submit* | submit* | submit* |

| FL0359 | FLA | Pinus clausa | LP | 32, 53 | 38 | 28, 6, 2, 2 | 0, 9, 29, 0 | <i>Xylaria</i> sp. nov. | JQ760113 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
|---------------------|-----|-------------------------|----|---------|-----|---------------|---------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------|---------|---------|---------|
| FL0224 | FLA | Pinus elliottii | LP | 35, 67 | 29 | 21, 7, 1, 0 | 0, 0, 29, 0 | <i>Xylaria</i> sp. nov. | JQ760020 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| FL0043 | FLA | Pinus elliottii | LP | 29, 50 | 4 | 3, 1, 0, 0 | 0, 0, 4, 0 | <i>Xylaria</i> sp. nov. | JQ759911 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| NC0985 | NCH | Flavoparmelia caperata | LT | 68, 222 | 31 | 19, 6, 4, 2 | 0, 15, 16, 0 | <i>Xylaria</i> sp. nov. | JQ761635 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| FL1254 | FLA | Usnea subscabrosa | LT | 37, 92 | 63 | 46, 7, 4, 6 | 0, 13, 50, 0 | <i>Xylaria</i> sp. nov. | JQ760869 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| FL0933 | FLA | Cladonia subradiata | LT | 40, 72 | 15 | 13, 2, 0, 0 | 0, 4, 11, 0 | <i>Xylaria</i> sp. nov. | JQ760565 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| FL1352 | FLA | Cladonia evansii | LT | 31, 103 | 71 | 55, 5, 6, 5 | 0, 13, 58, 0 | <i>Xylaria</i> sp. nov. | JQ760970 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| FL0916 | FLA | Cladonia subradiata | LT | 72, 138 | 1 | 1, 0, 0, 0 | 0, 0, 1, 0 | Nemania sp. nov. | JQ760549 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| NC1218 | NCH | Lasalia pensylvanica | LT | 90, 226 | 2 | 2, 0, 0, 0 | 0, 2, 0, 0 | Rosellinia subiculata (matches AY909002) ^d | JQ761857 | NA | submit* | submit* |
| NC0528 | NCH | Flavoparmelia caperata | LT | 84, 210 | 3 | 2, 0, 1, 0 | 0, 2, 1, 0 | Nemania sp. nov. | JQ761524 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| FL0031 | FLA | Pinus elliottii | LP | 28, 47 | 36 | 29, 4, 2, 1 | 0, 0, 36, 0 | <i>Nemania</i> sp. (matches FJ175173) | JQ759904 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| FL1152 | FLA | Parmotrema rampoddense | LT | 39, 71 | 15 | 10, 1, 2, 2 | 0, 0, 15, 0 | Nemania abortiva | JQ760771 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| NC0608 | NCH | Parmotrema reticulatum | LT | 86, 193 | 44 | 27, 6, 3, 8 | 0, 44, 0, 0 | Nemania diffusa | JQ761596 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| AK1383ª | AKN | Hypogymnia physodes | LT | 13, 18 | 1 | 1, 0, 0, 0 | 0, 0, 0, 1 | Nemania sp. nov. | JQ759694 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| FL0980 | FLA | Usnea mutabilis | LT | 73, 142 | 1 | 1, 0, 0, 0 | 0, 0, 1, 0 | Nemania beaumontii | JQ760608 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| FL1238 | FLA | Usnea subscabrosa | LT | 65, 127 | 3 | 2, 0, 1, 0 | 0, 0, 3, 0 | Xylariaceae sp. nov. | JQ760853 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| NC0429 ^ª | NCH | Diploschistes scruposus | LT | 22, 199 | 102 | 67, 27, 3, 5 | 1, 33, 68, 0 | Xylariaceae sp. nov. | JQ761458 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| AZ0448 | AZC | Punctelia hypoleucites | LT | 21, 32 | 1 | 1, 0, 0, 0 | 1, 0, 0, 0 | Xylariaceae sp. nov. | HM123176 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| AZ0398 ^a | AZC | Peltigera rufescens | LT | 12, 30 | 74 | 62, 6, 2, 4 | 35, 32, 2, 5 | Nemania serpens | HM123137 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| NC0962 | NCH | Sticta beauvoisii | LT | 89, 219 | 1 | 1, 0, 0, 0 | 0, 1, 0, 0 | <i>Nemania serpens</i> (matches AF201703) ^d | JQ761617 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| AK0226 ^ª | AKE | Pleurozium schreberi | LP | 9, 12 | 1 | 0, 1, 0, 0 | 0, 0, 0, 1 | Nemania serpens | JQ758707 | submit* | submit* | NA |
| NC1011 | NCH | Lecanora oreinoides | LT | 18, 27 | 193 | 154, 30, 4, 5 | 1, 142, 50, 0 | Xylaria cubensis | JQ761659 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| FL0961 | FLA | Usnea mutabilis | LT | 36, 99 | 61 | 46, 7, 3, 5 | 0, 23, 38, 0 | Xylaria cf. heliscus | JQ760593 | submit* | submit* | submit* |
| FL0975† | FLA | Usnea mutabilis | LT | 38, 69 | 36 | 33, 1, 0, 2 | 0, 5, 31, 0 | inuscodor yucatanensis (matches FJ917287) Hypoxylon papillatum (matches | JQ760604 | submit* | submit* | NA |
| NC1612† | NCH | Lecanora oreinoides | LT | 93, 240 | 1 | 1, 0, 0, 0 | 0, 1, 0, 0 | AF201710) | JQ761975 | submit* | submit* | submit* |

* Abbreviations for sites correspond to U'Ren et al. (2012). Madrean Sky Island Archipelago of southeastern Arizona (AZC); the Appalachian Mountains of western North Carolina (NCH); subtropical scrub forest in Florida (FLA); Beringian tundra and boreal forest in the Seward Peninsula ecoregion of western Alaska (AKN); and inland, subalpine tundra in the Interior Highlands of eastern central Alaska (AKE).

** LT corresponds to lichen thallus; LP corresponds to living plant tissue; DP corresponds to dead leaves in the canopy; and FP corresponds to fallen plant leaves.

*** Isolates from AKN and AKF are pooled due to low isolation of endophytic fungi in these

sites.

† Isolates were removed from the Xylariaceae mulitgene analyses due to toplogical conflict among single locus trees (Supplemental Table 4).

^a Although not Xylaria spp. based on phylogenetic analyses, isolates had top BLASTn hits to Xylaria sp. NRRL 40192 (EF157664), which was identified based solely or

^b Information on total isolates, isolates per tissue type, and isolates per site is based on 99% OTU.

^c Taxonomic classification is based on sister relationship and/or shared 95% ITS rDNA OTU to reference taxa in phylogenetic tree (Fig. 2). If reference species are not present in the tree due to lack of multilocus data, identification is based on only 95% ITS rDNA OTU similarity to sequences in GenBank (denoted by accession numbers following taxon names; Supplemental Table 6).

^d Based on our phylogeny (Fig. 2), this reference strain may be misidentified (see Supplemental Table 6).

Supplementary Tables Click here to download Supplementary Material: Supplemental_Tables_28sept2015.xlsx Supplementary Fig. 1 Click here to download Supplementary Material: SupplementalFig1_28sept2015.pdf Supplementary Fig. 2 Click here to download Supplementary Material: SupplementalFig2_revised_10aug205.pdf Supplementary Fig. 3 Click here to download Supplementary Material: SupplementalFig3_plate_images_compressed.pdf