

*Highlights (for review)

- 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,**
2 **ecology, and taxonomy of Xylariaceae (Sordariomycetes,**
3 **Ascomycota)**

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33 Xylariomycetidae

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 hypoxylid 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.

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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
99 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
102 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

105 and influencing host responses to abiotic stressors such as drought (Arnold et al., 2003; Arnold
106 and Engelbrecht, 2007; Costa Pinto et al., 2000; Estrada et al., 2013; Mejía et al., 2008). They
107 are increasingly recognized as a major source of novel metabolic products for use in medicine,
108 agriculture, and industry (Ding et al., 2009; Deyrup et al., 2007; Fan et al., 2014; Jiménez-
109 Romero et al., 2008; Paranagama et al., 2007; Staniek et al., 2008; Strobel et al., 1997; Strobel
110 and Long, 1998; Wu et al., 2011) and as an important but under-studied aspect of plant and
111 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 as 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
159 from sexual reproduction) and ecological importance of *Xylaria* and related taxa, the Xylariaceae
160 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
210 cultured concurrently from surface-sterilized tissues of senescent leaves in the canopy of
211 selected woody plants (i.e., dead plant leaves, DP) and leaf litter (i.e., fallen leaves of the same
212 species, FP) (U'Ren et al., 2010; U'Ren, 2011). Classifying fungi broadly as “endophytes” or
213 “saprotrophs” based on the condition of the tissue from which they are isolated is insufficient to
214 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 3730x1
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
239 *k*-mer distances less than 0.5, followed by clustering using the furthest neighbor algorithm in
240 mothur (Schloss et al., 2009). Groups were defined by 100%, 99%, and 95% sequence similarity
241 as a proxy for delimiting genotypes (100%, 99%) and putative species (95%) following U'Ren et
242 al. (2009) and Liggenstoffer et al. (2010). A single representative sequence for each 95%
243 similarity group (hereafter, operational taxonomic unit, OTU) was queried against the curated ITS
244 rDNA sequence database at the Alaska Fungal Metagenomics Project

245 (<http://www.borealfungi.uaf.edu/>) using BLASTn (Altschul et al., 1990) to estimate taxonomic
246 affiliation. Overall, 92 OTU and 245 unique genotypes (based on 95% and 100% sequence
247 similarity, respectively) had top BLASTn hits to taxa identified as Xylariaceae. These OTU
248 comprise a total of 1,933 isolates (Supplemental Table 1).

249

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

251

252 A single isolate from each 95% OTU (with the exception of one OTU with two isolates in different
253 99% OTU) was selected for morphological examination and multi-locus sequencing (Table 1).

254 The resulting set of 92 OTU included 39 OTU (131 isolates) found only in living plant tissues or
255 lichen thalli (i.e., endophytes), 44 OTU (1,780 isolates) found in both living tissues and dead or
256 fallen leaves (here, treated as endophytes), and 9 OTU (22 isolates) found only in dead or fallen
257 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 l 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 REDTaq® 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

273 revealed no amplification with previously published protocols (O'Donnell and Cigelnik, 1997), the
274 two-step touchdown protocol was used to amplify all isolates. Negative controls, which contained
275 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 μ l of ExoSAP-IT
286 (Affymetrix, Santa Clara, CA, USA) to 20 μ l 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
313 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
316 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 Mobyly 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
358 exons plus recoded introns; ITS1 rDNA, ITS2 rDNA recoded plus 5.8S rDNA vs. 5.8S rDNA only),
359 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 (XXXXXX). 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 hypoxylid 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
387 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 (XXXXXX).

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).

433 ML analyses for all four datasets were conducted with RAxML as described above.
434 Majority-rule consensus trees (70%) were built in Mesquite based on sets of 1,000 bootstrap
435 trees generated with RAxML for the four concatenated datasets. The Mesquite module Hypha
436 (Oliver et al., 2013; see also Miadlikowska et al., 2014) was used to integrate support values
437 derived from all applicable consensus trees onto each internode of the best tree derived from the
438 complete concatenated dataset (i.e., 5 + 4 + 3 + 2 + 1) (Fig. 1). No significant conflict was
439 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).

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

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

552 Eriksson and Hawksworth, 1991b; Hyde, 1995). A recent phylogenetic analysis based on ITS +
553 LSU rDNA placed the genus in Cainiaceae (Senanayake et al., 2015). Our analysis is not in
554 conflict with that placement of *Seynesia*, but uncertainty regarding its family-level placement
555 precludes confident delimitation of the Xylariaceae and family-level placement of the endophyte
556 clades E1 and E2 (Fig. 1, Fig. 2). In future work, multi-locus data for members of the Cainiaceae,
557 Lopadostomaceae, and Coniocessiaceae will be important to clarify the precise delimitation of
558 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

609 We used five loci (ITS rDNA, LSU rDNA, *RPB2*, β -tubulin, and α -actin) to examine the
610 relationships of 298 taxa classified as Xylariaceae (>200 species) from 24 genera representing
611 two recognized subfamilies (Hypoxyloideae and Xylarioideae; Supplemental Table 1), in
612 conjunction with 79 potentially novel species representing 1,815 isolates of endophytic and
613 saprotrophic Xylariaceae from sites across North America (Table 1; Fig. 1, Fig. 2). Two putative
614 species from our surveys were removed from final analyses due to conflict among loci, resulting
615 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 *Annulohypoxyton* clade, and the *Hypoxyton/Daldinia* clade. Our analyses recovered a well-
659 supported clade containing all of the *Hypoxyton*, *Daldinia*, and *Annulohypoxyton* taxa, as well as
660 an isolate of *Rostrohypoxyton terebratum* (see Fournier et al., 2010 for a description of the genus
661 and its paraphyly) (Fig. 1). Within this clade, *Daldinia* and *Annulohypoxyton* form well supported
662 clades in our analyses (Fig. 1). However, species of *Hypoxyton* were found in multiple clades and

663 relationships among the previously defined subclades H1, H2, and H3 (sensu Hsieh et al., 2005)
664 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

679 Overall, 34 of 77 putative species from our collection (i.e., 32 endophytic and two saprotrophic
680 OTU) were placed within the Xylarioideae as currently circumscribed. Although endophyte OTU
681 were found within all major lineages of the subfamily, they were most abundant in the “NR” and
682 “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

691 described species, and our analyses confirm the early divergence of the *Poronia-Podosordaria*
692 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 sepelebilis* 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
701 *Muscodor vitigenus* in NCBI (Table 1, Fig. 2C). The genus *Muscodor* initially was proposed to
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 similarity 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

714 As noted in previous studies, ribosomal genes alone do not provide enough phylogenetic
715 information to confidently resolve infrafamilial relationships in Xylariomycetidae (Duong et al.,
716 2004) or the evolutionary history among genera of Xylariaceae (Peláez et al., 2008; Tang et al.,
717 2009). In these circumstances, protein-coding genes such as *RPB2* can provide additional,
718 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.

727 ITS1 and ITS2 rDNA and introns of β -tubulin and α -actin were too divergent to be aligned
728 unambiguously at the ordinal or familial level. However, we used a non-alignment based method
729 (PICS-ord; Lücking et al., 2011) to extract phylogenetic information from these regions that were
730 excluded from the alignments subjected to phylogenetic searches. This method recovered a
731 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.

740

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

742

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

775 conflict (Table 1). Combining ITS rDNA similarity in a phylogenetic framework identified several
776 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
778 discussion of *Anthostomella* spp). Only five of the 12 taxa whose ITS rDNA sequences match our
779 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.

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

790 Such conclusions are dependent on a defined level of ITS rDNA sequence similarity;
791 however, the degree of intraspecific ITS rDNA variability differs among taxonomic groups (see
792 Nilsson et al., 2008). For five *Xylaria* spp., U'Ren et al. (2009) reported low intraspecific variation
793 in ITS rDNA ($1.43\% \pm 2.94\%$), and variation between sister taxa averaged $4.18\% \pm 2.18\%$.
794 However, Stadler et al. (2013) noted that different morphological species can have identical ITS
795 rDNA sequences (e.g., *Daldinia concentrica* and *D. steglichii*). Across both subfamilies, we found
796 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.
798 2). This appears more common for species of Xylarioideae than Hypoxyloideae (Fig. 2).
799 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, *Hypoxyton submonticulosum* (Ju and Rogers, 1996) is

803 described as a fast-growing isolate with pale-mouse grey, cinnamon, to grayish sepia color, with
804 sporulating regions scattered over the colony surface. However, an endophyte representing the
805 same OTU (NC0708) remained as sterile, white mycelia after six months in culture on the same
806 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

823

824 Many Xylariaceae species have broad distributions in forests across both the Northern and
825 Southern Hemispheres (e.g., *Daldinia* spp. Stadler et al., 2014), whereas other species appear to
826 be restricted geographically (e.g., *Xylotumulus gibbisporus* endemic to Hawai'i; Rogers and Ju,
827 2012). However, distribution data based on ascomata are likely to be incomplete due to the fact
828 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 asymptotically on
830 a wide diversity of plant species and substrates (e.g., Petrini and Petrini, 1985). Additionally,

831 species of Xylariaceae reported to have cosmopolitan distributions may potentially represent
832 complexes of cryptic species revealed only by detailed morphological, chemical, or molecular
833 analyses (e.g., *Daldinia eschscholzii*; see Stadler et al., 2004). Therefore, incorporating publicly
834 available sequence data (many representing cryptic microfungi, including endophytes) coupled
835 with records of ascomata can provide further information to estimate the geographic distribution,
836 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

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

861 The majority of terminal taxa in the tree with an endophytic life stage also were recovered
862 from senescent 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 tuberoidea* in southern Mexico,
881 Venezuela, French Guiana, and Guyana). Over a third of terminal taxa (n = 137; 37.5%) were
882 found in ≥ 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

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

892

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). Ascospores 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).

928

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

931

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

959

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

971 endophytic and saprotrophic OTU. Importantly, representative cultures have been deposited in
972 the Gilbertson Mycological Herbarium (ARIZ), where they are available on request for additional
973 characterization. Additionally, this work detects potentially misidentified specimens and
974 sequences in public databases, illuminates large gaps in available metadata for sequences
975 deposited in NCBI, and identifies the need for novel methods to integrate ITS rDNA sequences
976 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 hypoxylid 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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1011

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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 $\geq 70\%$ from all four bootstrap analyses of
1707 the cumulative supermatrix approach. An asterisk (*) denotes nodes with $\geq 70\%$ 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
1719 – *Hypoxylon pulvicidum*; see also Table 1). Columns of numbers after taxon names indicate (1)
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 $\geq 99\%$ 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 $\geq 99\%$ 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

1737 **Supplemental Figure 1.** Phylogenetic relationships among 517 putative members of the
1738 Xylariomycetidae (92 endophytic and saprotrophic OTU [representing 93 total isolates] collected
1739 in our surveys and 424 previously named taxa) inferred with maximum likelihood analysis of
1740 combined ITS rDNA, LSU rDNA, *RPB2*, and β -tubulin sequences. Three species of *Ophiostoma*
1741 (Ophiostomatales, Sordariomycetes) were used to root the tree based on Huhndorf et al. (2004)
1742 and the availability of multi-locus data (Supplemental Table 2). Isolates are color-coded based on

1743 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 saprotroph 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

1751 **Supplemental Figure 2.** Probability density of phylogenetic diversity (PD; the sum of all the edge
1752 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 \pm SD =
1755 29.5 ± 0.41). The dotted line represents the observed PD of all previously named Xylariaceae
1756 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%
1761 oatmeal agar (OA) under ambient light/dark condition at room temperature (ca. 21.5°C) for up to
1762 six months.

1763

1764 **Supplemental Table 1.** Geographic and host information for xylariaceous isolates collected in
1765 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 $\geq 99\%$ 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 $\geq 99\%$ identity to previously

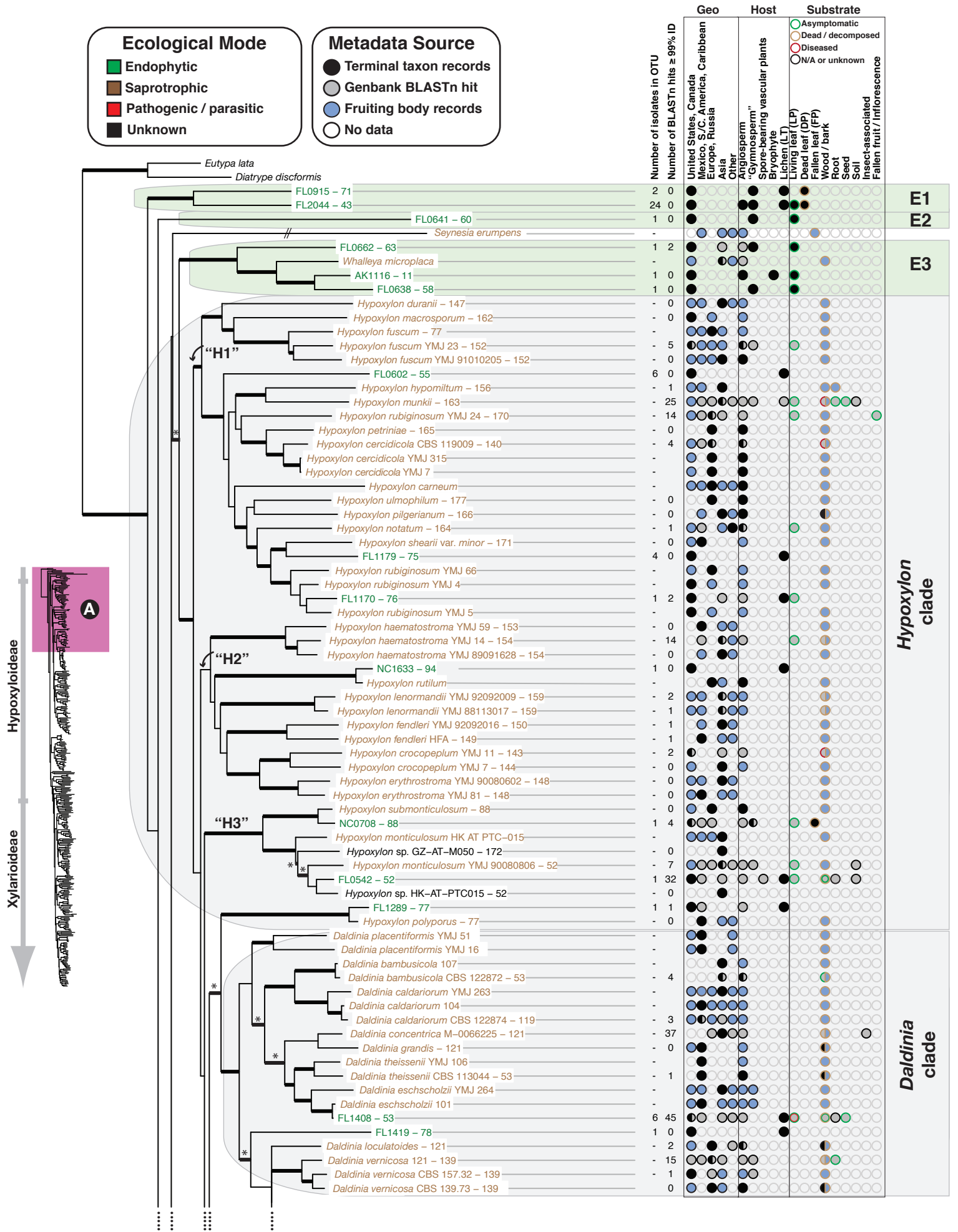
1786 named Xylariaceae taxa. Data reported as listed in NCBI.

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.

Figure2



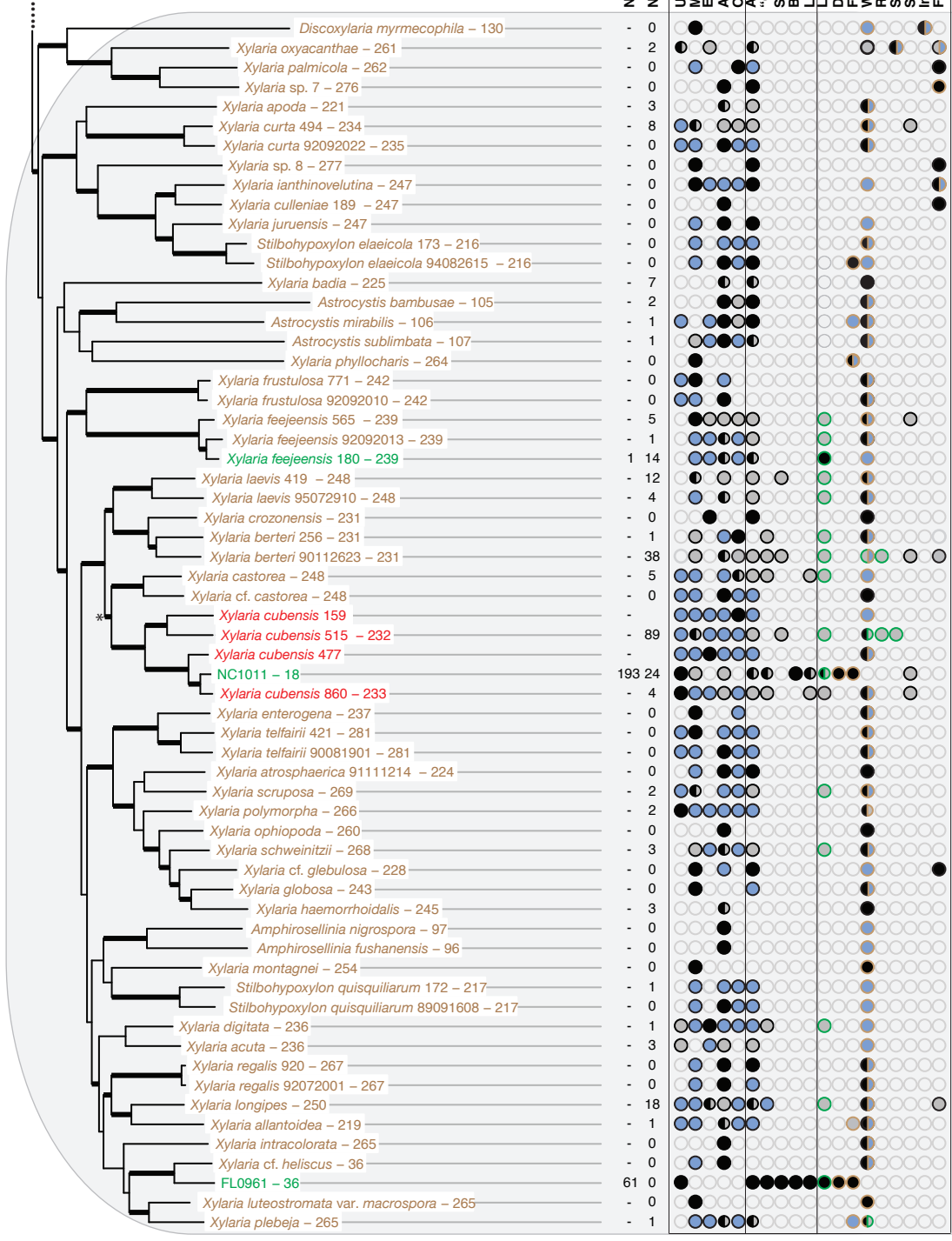
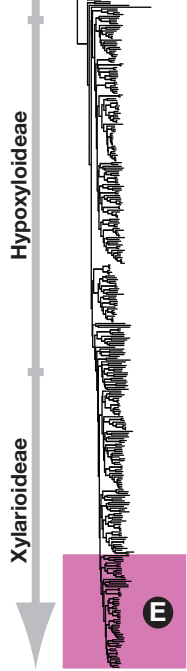
Ecological Mode

- Endophytic
- Saprotrophic
- Pathogenic / parasitic
- Unknown

Metadata Source

- Terminal taxon records
- Genbank BLASTn hit
- Fruiting body records
- No data

- Number of isolates in OTU
- Number of BLASTn hits \geq 99% ID
- United States, Canada
- Mexico, S/C. America, Caribbean
- Europe, Russia
- Asia
- Other
- Angiosperm
- "Gymnosperm"
- Spore-bearing vascular plants
- Bryophyte
- Lichen (LT)
- Living leaf (LP)
- Dead leaf (DP)
- Fallen leaf (FP)
- Wood / bark
- Root
- Seed
- Soil
- Insect-associated
- Fallen fruit / inflorescence



Xylaria "PO" clade

Table1

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.

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

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

FL0359	FLA	<i>Pinus clausa</i>	LP	32, 53	38	28, 6, 2, 2	0, 9, 29, 0	<i>Xylaria</i> sp. nov.	JQ760113	submit*	submit*	submit*
FL0224	FLA	<i>Pinus elliottii</i>	LP	35, 67	29	21, 7, 1, 0	0, 0, 29, 0	<i>Xylaria</i> sp. nov.	JQ760020	submit*	submit*	submit*
FL0043	FLA	<i>Pinus elliottii</i>	LP	29, 50	4	3, 1, 0, 0	0, 0, 4, 0	<i>Xylaria</i> sp. nov.	JQ759911	submit*	submit*	submit*
NC0985	NCH	<i>Flavoparmelia caperata</i>	LT	68, 222	31	19, 6, 4, 2	0, 15, 16, 0	<i>Xylaria</i> sp. nov.	JQ761635	submit*	submit*	submit*
FL1254	FLA	<i>Usnea subscabrosa</i>	LT	37, 92	63	46, 7, 4, 6	0, 13, 50, 0	<i>Xylaria</i> sp. nov.	JQ760869	submit*	submit*	submit*
FL0933	FLA	<i>Cladonia subradiata</i>	LT	40, 72	15	13, 2, 0, 0	0, 4, 11, 0	<i>Xylaria</i> sp. nov.	JQ760565	submit*	submit*	submit*
FL1352	FLA	<i>Cladonia evansii</i>	LT	31, 103	71	55, 5, 6, 5	0, 13, 58, 0	<i>Xylaria</i> sp. nov.	JQ760970	submit*	submit*	submit*
FL0916	FLA	<i>Cladonia subradiata</i>	LT	72, 138	1	1, 0, 0, 0	0, 0, 1, 0	<i>Nemania</i> sp. nov. <i>Rosellinia subiculata</i> (matches AY909002) ^d	JQ760549	submit*	submit*	submit*
NC1218	NCH	<i>Lasalia pensylvanica</i>	LT	90, 226	2	2, 0, 0, 0	0, 2, 0, 0	<i>Nemania</i> sp. nov. <i>Nemania</i> sp. (matches FJ175173)	JQ761857	NA	submit*	submit*
NC0528	NCH	<i>Flavoparmelia caperata</i>	LT	84, 210	3	2, 0, 1, 0	0, 2, 1, 0	<i>Nemania</i> sp. nov. <i>Nemania</i> sp. (matches FJ175173)	JQ761524	submit*	submit*	submit*
FL0031	FLA	<i>Pinus elliottii</i>	LP	28, 47	36	29, 4, 2, 1	0, 0, 36, 0	<i>Nemania abortiva</i>	JQ759904	submit*	submit*	submit*
FL1152	FLA	<i>Parmotrema rampoddense</i>	LT	39, 71	15	10, 1, 2, 2	0, 0, 15, 0	<i>Nemania abortiva</i>	JQ760771	submit*	submit*	submit*
NC0608	NCH	<i>Parmotrema reticulatum</i>	LT	86, 193	44	27, 6, 3, 8	0, 44, 0, 0	<i>Nemania diffusa</i>	JQ761596	submit*	submit*	submit*
AK1383 ^a	AKN	<i>Hypogymnia physodes</i>	LT	13, 18	1	1, 0, 0, 0	0, 0, 0, 1	<i>Nemania</i> sp. nov.	JQ759694	submit*	submit*	submit*
FL0980	FLA	<i>Usnea mutabilis</i>	LT	73, 142	1	1, 0, 0, 0	0, 0, 1, 0	<i>Nemania beaumontii</i>	JQ760608	submit*	submit*	submit*
FL1238	FLA	<i>Usnea subscabrosa</i>	LT	65, 127	3	2, 0, 1, 0	0, 0, 3, 0	Xylariaceae sp. nov.	JQ760853	submit*	submit*	submit*
NC0429 ^a	NCH	<i>Diploschistes scruposus</i>	LT	22, 199	102	67, 27, 3, 5	1, 33, 68, 0	Xylariaceae sp. nov.	JQ761458	submit*	submit*	submit*
AZ0448	AZC	<i>Punctelia hypoleucites</i>	LT	21, 32	1	1, 0, 0, 0	1, 0, 0, 0	Xylariaceae sp. nov.	HM123176	submit*	submit*	submit*
AZ0398 ^a	AZC	<i>Peltigera rufescens</i>	LT	12, 30	74	62, 6, 2, 4	35, 32, 2, 5	<i>Nemania serpens</i> <i>Nemania serpens</i> (matches AF201703) ^d	HM123137	submit*	submit*	submit*
NC0962	NCH	<i>Sticta beauvoisii</i>	LT	89, 219	1	1, 0, 0, 0	0, 1, 0, 0	<i>Nemania serpens</i>	JQ761617	submit*	submit*	submit*
AK0226 ^a	AKE	<i>Pleurozium schreberi</i>	LP	9, 12	1	0, 1, 0, 0	0, 0, 0, 1	<i>Nemania serpens</i>	JQ758707	submit*	submit*	NA
NC1011	NCH	<i>Lecanora oreinoides</i>	LT	18, 27	193	154, 30, 4, 5	1, 142, 50, 0	<i>Xylaria cubensis</i>	JQ761659	submit*	submit*	submit*
FL0961	FLA	<i>Usnea mutabilis</i>	LT	36, 99	61	46, 7, 3, 5	0, 23, 38, 0	<i>Xylaria</i> cf. <i>heliscus</i> <i>Muscodor yucatanensis</i> (matches FJ917287)	JQ760593	submit*	submit*	submit*
FL0975†	FLA	<i>Usnea mutabilis</i>	LT	38, 69	36	33, 1, 0, 2	0, 5, 31, 0	<i>Hypoxyton papillatum</i> (matches AF201710)	JQ760604	submit*	submit*	NA
NC1612†	NCH	<i>Lecanora oreinoides</i>	LT	93, 240	1	1, 0, 0, 0	0, 1, 0, 0	<i>Hypoxyton papillatum</i> (matches 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 multigene analyses due to topological 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

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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

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