Levels of specificity of *Xylaria* species associated with fungus-growing termites: a phylogenetic approach

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Abstract

Fungus-growing termites live in obligate mutualistic symbiosis with species of the basidiomycete genus Termitomyces, which are cultivated on a substrate of dead plant material. When the termite colony dies, or when nest material is incubated without termites in the laboratory, fruiting bodies of the ascomycete genus Xylaria appear and rapidly cover the fungus garden. This raises the question whether certain Xylaria species are specialised in occupying termite nests or whether they are just occasional visitors. We tested Xylaria specificity at four levels: (1) fungus-growing termites, (2) termite genera, (3) termite species, and (4) colonies. In South Africa, 108 colonies of eight termite species from three termite genera were sampled for Xylaria. Xylaria was isolated from 69% of the sampled nests and from 57% of the incubated fungus comb samples, confirming high prevalence. Phylogenetic analysis of the ITS region revealed 16 operational taxonomic units of Xylaria, indicating high levels of Xylaria species richness. Not much of this variation was explained by termite genus, species, or colony; thus, at level 2-4 the specificity is low. Analysis of the large subunit rDNA region, showed that all termite-associated Xylaria belong to a single clade, together with only three of the 26 non-termite-associated strains. Termite-associated Xylaria thus show specificity for fungus-growing termites (level 1). We did not find evidence for geographic or temporal structuring in these Xylaria phylogenies. Based on our results, we conclude that termite-associated Xylaria are specific for fungus-growing termites, without having specificity for lower taxonomic levels.

Keywords: fungus-growing termite, host specificity, Macrotermitinae, mutualistic symbiosis, phylogeny, Xylaria

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Introduction

Symbioses, intimate interactions between different species, are widespread. They range from being beneficial to one species at the cost of the other (parasitic) to being mutually beneficial (mutualistic). Mutualistic symbioses often play a

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dominant role in ecosystems, as the combined characteristics of two different organisms in a mutualism allow them to exploit previously inaccessible niches (Herre *et al.* 1999).

An impressive example of mutualistic symbiosis is the mutualism between termites of the subfamily Macrotermitinae and fungi of the basidiomycete genus *Termitomyces* (Darlington 1994; Aanen *et al.* 2002). The termites provide *Termitomyces* with faecal pellets of finely comminuted dead plant material and create a climate where *Termitomyces* can thrive on this substrate. In return, *Termitomyces* degrades the pellets, and thereby provides digestible and nutritious material for the termites (Sands 1969; Wood & Thomas 1989). The sponge-shaped structure of faecal pellets, called fungus comb, is overgrown with *Termitomyces* (Katoh *et al.* 2002; Moriya *et al.* 2005; Shinzato *et al.* 2005; Aanen 2006). The mutualistic symbiosis between fungus-growing termites and their fungal symbionts is the result of long-term co-evolution (reciprocal genetic adaptation), during which apparently no reversal to free-living state of either of the partners has occurred (Aanen *et al.* 2002).

When symbiotic partners have a high fidelity towards each other, the process of co-evolution may result in cospeciation or co-cladogenesis (Wade 2007). The latter is reflected in similar phylogenetic tree topologies of both partners. In the fungus-growing termite mutualism, where termites and *Termitomyces* are mutually dependent, the tree topologies show signs of co-cladogenesis, mainly at the termite genus level (Aanen *et al.* 2002, 2007; Rouland-Lefèvre *et al.* 2002).

Like in many other symbioses, the focus has so far mainly been on the two most obvious players in the symbiosis. However, the list with examples of multi-partner symbioses is growing. To name just a few, in the lower termite family Rhinotermitidae, there is a three-partner association between termites, protists and bacteria (Noda *et al.* 2007); a parasite has been discovered that plays a stabilising role in the fig-pollinator mutualism (Dunn *et al.* 2008), and in fungusgrowing ants even more symbionts co-occur: currently that symbiosis counts five described partners (Little & Currie 2007). It seems that multi-partner symbiosis is not an exception, but rather the rule (Sachs & Simms 2006).

Also in nests of fungus-growing termites, many organisms other than termites and Termitomyces have been found: inquiline flies (Gumming 1996), a range of arthropods (Batra & Batra 1979), bacteria (Shinzato et al. 2005; Hongoh et al. 2006), and many fungi (Sands 1969; Thomas 1987b; Shinzato et al. 2005). Especially members of the ascomycete genus Xylaria have been frequently reported from fungusgrowing termite nests (Ju & Hsieh 2007; Rogers et al. 2005; Okane & Nakagiri 2007). Visible structures of Xylaria typically occur when termite nests are dead or decaying (Rogers et al. 2005). When Xylaria species emerge, they cover fungus combs throughout the fungus garden with mycelium, stromata, and synnemata, some with ascomal initials (Rogers et al. 2005). When fungus comb from a healthy nest is incubated in the absence of termites, it is often covered by a vigorous mycelium of Xylaria within a few days (Batra & Batra 1979; Thomas 1987c; Shinzato et al. 2005; Okane & Nakagiri 2007). Could Xylaria be a third symbiont in the fungus-growing termite mutualistic symbiosis?

The nature of *Xylaria* in the nests of fungus-growing termites has been a point of debate. Thomas (1987a) observed that all fungi isolated from a fungus comb also occurred in the surrounding soil, except for *Termitomyces*

and Xylaria, which suggests specificity of these two types of fungi for fungus-growing termites. Sannasi (1969) described X. nigripes as the cultivated symbiont of Odontotermes redemanni, without mentioning Termitomyces. Batra & Batra (1979) claimed that Xylaria is an additional symbiont, growing in the comb and enhancing the breakdown of lignin by *Termitomyces*. In contradiction with a beneficial role, there are records stating that Xylaria is being suppressed in the fungus garden (Thomas 1987c), and thus may be seen as an antagonistic instead of a beneficial symbiont (Moriya et al. 2005). Beneficial or not, Rogers et al. (2005) posed that certain Xylaria species (e.g. X. escharoidea, X. furcata and X. nigripes) have co-evolved with termites, while other species may be associated with termites as saprotrophs or in other less- specific ways. The latter Xylaria species could behave as opportunistic weeds, competing with Termitomyces for substrate and benefiting from the unique, relatively competition-free niche. There is thus still no consensus about the nature of fungus-growing termite-associated Xylaria.

Here, we investigate whether *Xylaria* is specialised on fungus-growing termites. In other words, do certain *Xylaria* species specifically and perhaps exclusively occur in nests of fungus-growing termites? Do termite-associated *Xylaria* show signs of co-evolution with fungus-growing termites like the cultivated *Termitomyces* does? We approach these questions about *Xylaria* specificity for fungus-growing termites by estimating the phylogenetic relationships between *Xylaria* isolates from termite nests and *Xylaria* isolates that are not associated with termites. We test the specificity of *Xylaria* for fungus-growing termites at four levels: (1) fungus-growing termites (Macrotermitinae), (2) termite genera, (3) termite species, and (4) termite colonies (nests).

Materials and methods

Collecting field samples and general methods

Xylaria was isolated from field samples collected in 2003, 2005 and 2007 at 12 different sites across the northeastern part of South Africa (Table 1). Comb samples were taken from nests of eight species of fungus-growing termites belonging to the genera *Macrotermes, Microtermes* and *Odontotermes*. Sampling to isolate *Xylaria* was done down to the scale of fungus combs within a nest and sections within a fungus comb.

Material from the field was stored at 5 °C, and processed within 2 days after collecting. All fungal isolations were done on malt–yeast–agar plates (20 g/L malt extract, 2 g/L yeast extract, 15 g/L agar). All incubations were at 25 °C. The first fungus comb samples of 2003 were split; one piece was incubated in light and the other in the dark. Since no differences in growth of *Xylaria* were observed, all further incubations were in the dark.

Table 1 Origin of sequences of *Xylaria* isolates from South African fungus-growing termite nests. 'ITS OTU' codes in bold indicate isolates of which also the LSU region was sequenced. *Full site descriptions: Pretoria1 = L.C. de Villiers sports grounds, University of Pretoria; Pretoria2 = PPRI-farm, Pretoria3 = Rietondale, Pretoria; Estcourt1 = between White Mountain lodge and Estcourt; Estcourt2 = along road to Estcourt; Badplaas = Vijgeboomdam, Badplaas; Blairbeth = farmland northwest of Blairbeth; Naboomspruit = Amsterdam farm, Naboomspruit; Pienaar's River = SABS farm Radium, Pienaar's River; Pietersburg = dam, New Pietersburg

Date	Nest	Comb	Isolate	Termite taxon	Site*	ITS type	ITS OTU	LSU type	GenBank Accession no.
2003-01-29	317		317	Odontotermes	Pietersburg	1.01	1		
2003-01-31	320		320	Odontotermes latericius	Pretoria2	1.01	1		
2003-01-31	324		324	Odontotermes latericius	Pretoria2	1.01	1		
2003-01-31	327		328	Odontotermes latericius	Pretoria2	1.01	1		
2003-02-06	352		353	Odontotermes transvaalensis	Pienaar's River	1.01	1		
2007-02-18	707	Е	707.E3	Macrotermes natalensis	Macrotermes natalensis Badplaas		1		
2003-01-31	326	L	326.L	Odontotermes latericius	Pretoria2	1.01	1		
2005-11-22	501	3	501.3a	Macrotermes natalensis	Pretoria2	1.01	1		
2005-11-22	501	3	501.3c	Macrotermes natalensis	Pretoria2	1.01	1		
2005-11-24	502	2	502.2b	Odontotermes	Nabooomspruit	1.01	1		
2005-11-24	504	3	504.3j	Odontotermes	Nabooomspruit	1.01	1		
2005-11-24	505	15	505.15j	Macrotermes natalensis	Nabooomspruit	1.01	1		
2005-11-24	505	17	505.17j	Macrotermes natalensis	Nabooomspruit	1.01	1		
2005-11-29	512	1	512.1a	Odontotermes	Pienaar's River	1.01	1		
2007-02-14	702	А	702.A	Macrotermes natalensis	Pretoria3	1.01	1		
2007-02-14	702	С	702.C	Macrotermes natalensis	Pretoria3	1.01	1		
2007-02-14	702	Е	702.E	Macrotermes natalensis	Pretoria3	1.01	1		
2007-02-14	702	F	702.F	Macrotermes natalensis	Pretoria3	1.01	1		
2007-02-14	702	Н	702.H	Macrotermes natalensis	Pretoria3	1.01	1		
2007-02-14	702	Κ	702.K	Macrotermes natalensis	Pretoria3	1.01	1		
2007-02-14	702	L	702.L	Macrotermes natalensis	Pretoria3	1.01	1		
2007-02-18	707	Н	707.H	Macrotermes natalensis	Badplaas	1.01	1		
2007-02-18	708	В	708 B	Odontotermes	Badplaas	1.01	1		
2007-02-18	708	H	708.H	Odontotermes	Badplaas	1.01	1		
2007-02-25	715	A	715.A	Macrotermes michaelseni	Blairbeth	1.01	1		
2007-02-25	715	D	715.D	Macrotermes michaelseni	Blairbeth	1.01	1		
2007-02-25	715	F	715.E	Macrotermes michaelseni	Blairbeth	1.01	1		
2007-02-25	715	G	715.G	Macrotermes michaelseni	Blairbeth	1.01	1		
2007-02-25	715	Ĥ	715.H1	Macrotermes michaelseni	Blairbeth	1.01	1		
2007-02-25	715	T	715.I	Macrotermes michaelseni	Blairbeth	1.01	1		
2007-03-04	716	A	716.A	Macrotermes natalensis	Estcourt1	1.01	1		
2007-03-04	716	B	716.B	Macrotermes natalensis	Estcourt1	1.01	1A	1	FI425654
2007-03-04	716	Ē	716 E	Macrotermes natalensis	Estcourt1	1.01	1	-	1,120001
2007-03-04	717	A	717.A	Macrotermes natalensis	Estcourt?	1.01	1		
2005-12-10	534	1	534.1i	Odontotermes	Nabooomspruit	1.02	1		FI425655
2005-11-24	505	19	505.19	Macrotermes natalensis	Nabooomspruit	1.03	1		FI425656
2003-01-31	323		323	Odontotermes latericius	Pretoria?	1.04	1		FI425657
2007-03-13	721	В	721.B	Odontotermes hadius	Pretoria?	1.05	1		FI425658
2005-11-22	501	2	501.2c	Macrotermes natalensis	Pretoria?	1.06	1		FI425659
2005-11-24	505	16	505 16d	Macrotermes natalensis	Nabooomspruit	1.00	1		FI425660
2005-11-24	505	18	505.18a	Macrotermes natalensis	Nabooomspruit	1.07	1		1,120000
2007-02-14	702	M	702 M	Macrotermes natalensis	Pretoria3	1.07	1		
2007-02-25	715	н	715 H2	Macrotermes michaelseni	Blairbeth	1.07	1		FI425661
2005-11-24	502	3	502.3i	Odontotermes	Nahooomspruit	1.00	1		FI425662
2005-11-24	505	12	505.12c	Macrotermes natalensis	Nabooomspruit	1.09	1		1) 120002
2007-03-13	721	C	721 C	Odontotermes hadius	Pretoria?	1.09	1		
2005-12-08	527	1	527.1d	Macrotermes natalensis	Pretoria?	1.10	1B	1	FI425663
2003-01-28	301	1	301	Macrotermes natalensis	Pretoria?	1 11	1	-	1,120000
2003-01-28	307		307	Odontotermes hadius	Pretoria?	1 11	1		
2003-01-20	313		313	Macrotermes natalensis	Pietershuro	1 11	1		
2003-01-31	322		322	Odontotermes latericius	Pretoria?	1.11	1		
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Table 1 Continued

Date	Nest	Comb	Isolate	Termite taxon	Site*	ITS type	ITS OTU	LSU type	GenBank Accession no.
2003-01-31	326		326	Odontotermes latericius	Pretoria2	1.11	1		
2003-01-31	332		332	Odontotermes badius	Pretoria2	1.11	1		
2003-02-06	350		350	Odontotermes latericius	Pienaar's River	1.11	1		
2003-02-06	351		351	Odontotermes transvaalensis	Pienaar's River	1.11	1		
2002-02-19	366		366	Macrotermes	Pietermaritzburg	1.11	1		
2007-02-17	706	Е	706 E1	Macrotermes natalensis	Badplaas	1.11	1		
2003-02-02	342	Ē	342.L	Macrotermes natalensis	Pretoria?	1.11	1		
2005-11-22	501	6	501.6b	Macrotermes natalensis	Pretoria2	1 11	1		
2005-11-22	501	8	501.8a	Macrotermes natalensis	Pretoria?	1.11	1		
2005-11-24	504	5	504.5c	Odontotermes	Nabooomspruit	1.11	1		
2005-11-24	505	12	505.12b	Macrotermes natalensis	Nabooomspruit	1.11	1		
2005-11-24	518	6	518.6c	Odontotermes	Protorial	1.11	1		
2005-12-01	518	IO	518 105	Odontotermes	Protoria1	1.11	1		
2007-02-14	701	R	701 R	Macrotarmas natalancis	Protoria3	1.11	1		
2007-02-14	701	к С	701.K	Macrotarmas natalancis	Protoria?	1.11	1		
2007-02-14	702	G T	702.G	Magnotomines natalansis	Protonia?	1.11	1	1	EI42E664
2007-02-14	702	J	702.J	Manuatania antalansis	Pretoria3	1.11	1	1	FJ423004
2007-02-14	704	C T	704.C	Macrotermes natalensis	Pretorias	1.11	1		
2007-02-14	704	L	704.L	Macrotermes natalensis	Pretoria3	1.11	1		
2007-02-17	705	J	705.J	Macrotermes natalensis	Badplaas	1.11	1		
2007-02-17	706	D	706.D	Macrotermes natalensis	Badplaas	1.11	1		
2007-02-17	706	J	706.J1	Macrotermes natalensis	Badplaas	1.11	1		
2007-02-18	708	E	708.E	Odontotermes	Badplaas	1.11	1		
2007-02-18	708	F	708.F	Odontotermes	Badplaas	1.11	1		
2007-02-25	715	E	715.E	Macrotermes michaelseni	Blairbeth	1.11	1		
2007-03-04	717	C	717.C	Macrotermes natalensis	Estcourt2	1.11	1		
2007-02-17	725	G	725.G2	Macrotermes natalensis, dead nest	Badplaas	1.11	1		
2005-11-29	509	1	509.1j	Odontotermes	Pienaar's River	1.12	1		FJ425665
2005-11-24	502	4	502.4d	Odontotermes	Nabooomspruit	1.13	1D	1	FJ425666
2005-11-24	504	7	504.7j	Odontotermes	Nabooomspruit	2.01	2	2	FJ425667
2005-12-01	518	Ι	518.I9	Odontotermes	Pretoria1	2.01	2		
2005-12-01	518	HO	518.HO2	Odontotermes	Pretoria1	2.02	2		FJ425668
2005-12-01	518	HO	518.HO1	Odontotermes	Pretoria1	2.03	2		FJ425669
2003-01-31	325		325	Microtermes I	Pretoria2	3.01	3		
2003-02-02	336		337	Microtermes I	Pretoria2	3.01	3		
2005-11-29	517	А	517.A	Microtermes	Pienaar's River	3.01	3A	3	FJ425670
2003-01-29	309		309	Microtermes I	Pietersburg	3.02	3B	3	FJ425671
2003-01-29	311		311	Microtermes I	Pietersburg	3.02	3		
2003-02-02	335		335	Macrotermes natalensis	Pretoria2	4.01	4	4	FJ425672
2005-12-01	518	F	518.F8	Odontotermes	Pretoria1	5.01	5	5	FJ425673
2005-11-29	508	1	508.1j	Odontotermes	Pienaar's River	6.01	6	6	FJ425674
2003-02-02	341		341	Microtermes I	Pretoria2	7.01	7	7	FJ425675
2003-02-02	342	D	342.D	Macrotermes natalensis	Pretoria2	7.02	7		FJ425676
2003-02-06	352		352	Odontotermes transvaalensis	Pienaar's River	8.01	8		FJ425677
2003-01-31	327		327	Odontotermes latericius	Pretoria2	9.01	9		
2003-02-02	344		344	Odontotermes badius	Pretoria2	9.01	9		
2003-02-02	346		346	Odontotermes badius	Pretoria2	9.01	9		
2003-02-06	355		355	Odontotermes transvaalensis	Pienaar's River	9.01	9		
2005-11-24	504	4	504.4i	Odontotermes	Nabooomspruit	9.01	9		
2007-02-17	706	G	706.G	Macrotermes natalensis	Badplaas	9.01	9A	9A	FJ425678
2007-02-18	708	D	708.D1	Odontotermes	Badplaas	9.01	9		
2007-03-13	720	A	720.A	Odontotermes badius	Pretoria?	9.01	9		
2007-03-13	720	В	720.B	Odontotermes badius	Pretoria?	9.01	9		
2007-03-13	720	Č	720.C	Odontotermes badius	Pretoria?	9.01	9		
2007-03-13	720	D	720.D	Odontotermes badius	Pretoria2	9.01	9		
2007-03-13	721	A	721.A	Odontotermes badius	Pretoria2	9.01	9		
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Table 1 Continued

Date	Nest	Comb	Isolate	Termite taxon	Site*	ITS type	ITS OTU	LSU type	GenBank Accession no.
2005-11-29	511	1	511.1j	Odontotermes	Pienaar's River	9.02	9		FJ425679
2005-11-05	504	5	504.5j	Odontotermes	Nabooomspruit	9.03	9		FJ425680
2005-12-01	518	2	518.2c	Odontotermes	Pretoria1	9.04	9		FJ425681
2003-01-31	321		321	Odontotermes latericius	Pretoria2	9.05	9		2
2005-12-01	518	1	518.1c	Odontotermes	Pretoria1	9.05	9		
2007-02-18	708	G	708.G	Odontotermes	Badplaas	9.05	9B	9B	FJ425682
2007-02-18	708	В	708.B1	Odontotermes	Badplaas	9.05	9C	9B	2
2005-11-24	504	8	504.8a	Odontotermes	Nabooomspruit	9.06	9		FJ425683
2007-02-14	702	Ι	702.I	Macrotermes natalensis	Pretoria3	10.01	10		FJ425684
2005-11-22	501	11	501.11c	Macrotermes natalensis	Pretoria2	10.02	10		-
2007-02-18	707	F	707.F1	Macrotermes natalensis	Badplaas	10.02	10	10	FJ425685
2007-02-18	707	G	707.G2	Macrotermes natalensis	Badplaas	10.03	10		FJ425686
2007-02-24	711	С	711.C	Macrotermes natalensis	Matlhase	11.01	11	11	FJ425687
2007-02-25	715	C 715.C Macrotermes michaelseni		Blairbeth	11.01	11			
2003-01-29	310		310	Microtermes III	Pietersburg	12.01	12	12	FJ425688
2003-02-02	338		338	Macrotermes natalensis	Pretoria2	13.01	13	13	FJ425689
2003-02-02	343		343	Macrotermes natalensis	Pretoria2	13.01	13		
2003-02-06	349		349	Microtermes IV	Pienaar's River	14.01	14		FJ425690
2007-02-17	725	В	725.B	Macrotermes natalensis, dead nest	Badplaas	15.01	15		FJ425691
2007-03-08	718	В	718.B	Macrotermes natalensis	Nabooomspruit	15.02	15A	15	FJ425692
2007-02-17	706	А	706.A2	Macrotermes natalensis	Badplaas	15.03	15		FJ425693
2007-02-17	725	С	725.C	Macrotermes natalensis, dead nest	Badplaas	15.04	15		FJ425694
2007-02-17	725	G	725.G	Macrotermes natalensis, dead nest	Badplaas	15.04	15		
2007-02-18	707	Е	707.E2	Macrotermes natalensis	Badplaas	15.05	15		
2007-02-14	701	Р	701.P	Macrotermes natalensis	Pretoria3	15.05	15B	15	FJ425695
2007-02-17	706	J	706.J2	Macrotermes natalensis	Badplaas	15.05	15		
2007-02-17	725	Е	725.E	Macrotermes natalensis, dead nest	Badplaas	15.05	15		
2007-02-17	725	F	725.F	Macrotermes natalensis, dead nest	Badplaas	15.05	15		
2007-02-17	706	L	706.L	Macrotermes natalensis	Badplaas	15.06	15		FJ425696
2007-02-18	707	Ι	707.I2	Macrotermes natalensis	Badplaas	15.06	15		
2007-02-17	725	D	725.D	Macrotermes natalensis, dead nest	Badplaas	15.06	15		
2007-02-17	706	С	706.C	Macrotermes natalensis	Badplaas	15.07	15		FJ425697
2007-02-14	703	В	703.B1	Macrotermes natalensis	Pretoria3	15.08	15		FJ425698
2007-02-18	707	С	707.C2	Macrotermes natalensis	Badplaas	15.09	15C	15	FJ425699
2007-02-18	707	D	707.D2	Macrotermes natalensis	Badplaas	15.10	15D	15	FJ425700
2007-02-17	705	Н	705.H	Macrotermes natalensis	Badplaas	16.01	16	16	FJ425701

Isolating Xylaria from fungus combs

A fragment of each fungus comb ($\pm 100 \text{ cm}^3$, except for comb fragments of *Microtermes*, which were $\pm 15 \text{ cm}^3$) was incubated in a sealed cup, to which a paper tissue soaked in sterile demineralised water (DEMI) was added to make a moist chamber. *Xylaria* that developed was transferred to plates. Additionally, to ensure having material for DNA extraction, fungal tissue was taken directly from the comb, put in 96% EtOH and stored at -20 °C.

Some fungus combs were also sampled on a finer scale. They were divided in three sections: young, medium and old, based on colour and structure (Thomas 1987c). Five samples of ± 5 mm³ for each of the three sections per comb were taken and put on plates. Appearing fungi were serially transferred to fresh plates until pure.

© 2009 The Authors Journal compilation © 2009 Blackwell Publishing Ltd Pure cultures were grown on cellophane plates. After three or more days, the mycelium was harvested from the cellophane and stored at -80 °C until further processing.

Isolating Xylaria from adjacent vegetation

Three vegetation samples were taken within a 5-m radius around the termite nest. Material that showed marks of termite foraging, mostly wood, was preferred for sampling. On one occasion, dry cow dung with prominent termite feeding corridors was sampled.

Grass, dead wood (including woody herbs), and fresh wood samples were processed in different ways. Grass samples were cut in 1–2 cm pieces, washed by shaking for 20 s in 10 mL DEMI and put on plates. Dead wood samples were cut to core pieces of 0.5 to 2 cm³, swiftly moved through a Bunsen burner flame, and put on plates. Fresh wood samples were surface sterilised by washing for 1 min in 70% EtOH, 2 min in sodium hypochlorite, 1 min in 96% EtOH, and 30 s shaking in sterile tap-water. They were then dried in brown paper bags for two weeks and finally processed as described for the dead wood samples.

Ten subsamples per vegetation sample were put on plates and incubated. Appearing fungi were transferred serially to fresh plates until pure and further treated as described above.

Extracting DNA, PCR and sequencing

Table 1 gives an overview of the origin of all sequences. DNA was extracted using three protocols: (i) the QIAGEN DNeasy plant kit for 2003-isolates, (ii) the chloroform-phenol extraction method (Sambrook *et al.* 1989) for 2005-isolates, and (iii) the Chelex extraction method for 2005 and 2007 isolates.

Polymerase chain reaction (PCR) amplification of the ribosomal RNA gene regions ITS1, 5.8S and ITS2 was done using the primers ITS1 and ITS4 (5'-TCCGTAGGTGAAC-CTGCGG-3' and 5'-TCCTCCGCTTATTGATATGC-3', respectively; White *et al.* 1990). PCR amplification of approximately 800 bp of the large subunit (LSU; 28S) ribosomal RNA gene region was done using the primers LR0R and LR5 (5'-ACCCGCTGAACTTAAGC-3' and 5'-TCCTGAGGGAAACTTCG-3', respectively; Vilgalys Mycology Lab, Duke University, USA; www.biology.duke.edu/fungi/mycolab/primers.htm).

PCR products were purified with the QIAGEN PCR purification kit or with the Gen Elute PCR Clean-Up kit (Sigma). PCR products were sent to Eurofins MWG Operon Sequencing Department (Martinsried, Germany), where they were sequenced using the primer ITS1 for the ITS region, and LR0R and LR5 for the LSU region.

Estimating phylogeny of Xylaria

Sequences were manually checked and cut to same length in ChromasPro version 1.41 (Technelysium Pty Ltd). The alignments were made in MAFFT version 6 using the L-INS-i method with standard settings (Katoh *et al.* 2005).

ITS sequences were used to test *Xylaria* specificity for termite genus, species and colony (levels 2–4). The phylogenetic tree was estimated using the neighbour-joining (NJ) method and uncorrected distances (Saitou & Nei 1987) in PAUP* version 4.0b10 (Swofford 2002). The NJ tree was midpoint-rooted and branch support values were estimated with 1000 bootstrap samples. Groups of sequences that shared over 97.5% sequence identity were considered as an operational taxonomic unit (OTU). From the ITS tree, *Xylaria* specificity for termite genus, species and nest could be inferred only in a qualitative way.

To quantify *Xylaria* specificity at these levels, an AMOVA in Arlequin version 3.1 (Excoffier & Schneider 2005) was performed with the ITS sequences as input. Differences between *Xylaria* occurrences in nest of termites belonging to different genera were tested with the likelihood ratio test (*G*-test in Sokal & Rohlf 1995), which is approximately distributed as chi-square. Furthermore, BLAST searches were done on the ITS sequences. The origins of the top three BLAST hits were evaluated to check if geographic factors could explain the reconstructed phylogenetic patterns.

Sequences of the more conservative LSU region were used to estimate higher-level phylogenetic relationships between the termite-associated and non-termite-associated *Xylaria*. This way, the specificity of *Xylaria* for fungus-growing termites as a whole (level 1 specificity) could be assessed. Table 2 gives an overview of all LSU sequences that were included in the analysis.

Different groups of isolates were included in the phylogenetic analysis based on the LSU region. First, one up to four isolates of each OTU in the ITS tree (except OTU 8 and OTU 14) were selected for sequencing of the LSU region. This resulted in 15 different LSU sequences. Next, these termite-associated Xylaria sequences were blasted, and the top six BLAST hits were included in the LSU data matrix. As many of these hits were shared between OTUs, this resulted in 19 additional LSU sequences. Third, as the retrieved GenBank sequences did not include any African taxa (which is probably due to an under-representation of Africa in studies of Xylariaceae), we obtained 10 South African plant-associated Xylaria isolates of which the LSU region was sequenced. This resulted in an additional four different non-termite-associated Xylaria LSU sequences. Fourth, to break up the possibly long branch separating the outgroup from the ingroup, we also included three sequences that occurred repeatedly as lower-score BLAST hits. Finally, the LSU phylogeny was rooted with Sordaria fimicola, which belongs to the sister group of Xylariales (Sordariales; James et al. 2006), as outgroup.

A phylogenetic tree based on the LSU region was estimated using Maximum Likelihood (ML) in PAUP*. Using ModelTest version 3.7 (Posada & Crandall 1998), the optimal nucleotide substitution model for the ML method was calculated; Likelihood settings from best-fit model (TIM + I + G) selected by Akaike information criterion (AIC): Lset Base = (0.24100.2203 0.3133); Nst = 6; Rmat = $(0.8149 \ 1.8768 \ 0.6456 \ 0.1964$ 6.5287); Rates = gamma; Shape = 0.4689; Pinvar = 0.6158.

Two different support values for the branches of the ML tree were estimated. First, ML branch support values were estimated, using the Heuristic Search option 'fast step-wise addition' (PAUP*) with 1000 bootstrap samples. Second, the posterior probability of branches was estimated with Bayesian Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) analysis in MrBayes version 3.1.2 (Ronquist & Huelsenbeck 2003). Using MrModeltest version 2.2 (Nylander 2004), the optimal

Table 2 Overview of all LSU sequences used in this study

Name	Ecological origin	Geographic origin	GenBank Accession no.
Ingroup		Sequence identity within ingroup:	94.6–99.6%
OTU 1	fungus-gr. termite nest	South Africa	FJ425706
OTU 2	fungus-gr. termite nest	South Africa	FJ425707
OTU 3	fungus-gr. termite nest	South Africa	FJ425708
OTU 4	fungus-gr. termite nest	South Africa	FJ425709
OTU 5	fungus-gr. termite nest	South Africa	FJ425710
OTU 6	fungus-gr. termite nest	South Africa	FJ425711
OTU 7	fungus-gr. termite nest	South Africa	FJ425712
OTU 9A	fungus-gr. termite nest	South Africa	FJ425713
OTU 9B	fungus-gr. termite nest	South Africa	FJ425714
OTU 10	fungus-gr. termite nest	South Africa	FJ425715
OTU 11	fungus-gr. termite nest	South Africa	FJ425716
OTU 12	fungus-gr. termite nest	South Africa	FJ425717
OTU 13	fungus-gr. termite nest	South Africa	FJ425718
OTU 15	fungus-gr. termite nest	South Africa	FI425719
OTU 16	fungus-gr. termite nest	South Africa	FI425720
Top six hits of BLAST search on ingro	up	Average sequence identity with ing	2 roup: 94.7–96.7%
Anthostomella sp.	(unknown)	Puerto Rico	AY780050
Astrocystis cocoes	(unknown)	(unknown)	AY083823
Fasciatispora petrakii	(unknown)	(unknown)	AY083828
Nemania difusa	(unknown)	China	DO840076
Nemania maritima	(unknown)	France	DO840074
Rosellinia corticium	(unknown)	China	DO840078
Rosellinia necatrix	(unknown)	(unknown)	AY083824
Xularia acuta	(unknown)	(unknown)	AY544676
Xularia curta	(unknown)	(unknown)	1147840
Xularia hunorulon	rotting wood	LISA	AY544648
Xularia sp	(unknown)	Thailand	DO840080
Xularia sp	(unknown)	Thailand	DQ840081
Xylaria sp.	tree Theobroma cacao	Ecuador	DQ040001
Yularia sp	tree, Theobroma cacao	Mexico	DQ327620
Xylaria sp.	tree, Theobroma cacao	Equador	DQ327627
Xylaria sp.	tree, Theobroma cileri	(unknown)	DQ527027
Xylaria sp.	troo Theobroma gileri	Equador	DQ074017 DO674826
Xylaria sp.	troo. Theobroma gileri	Ecuador	DQ074020
Nyunui sp. Nyuaria sp	troo Theobroma gileri	Equador	DQ074027
Non-termite-associated African Xvl	laria isolatos	Average seguence identity with inc	DQ074019
strain 0006	troo Suzucium ep	South A frice	EI425702
strain 1175	tree, Syzygium sp.	South Africa	FJ425702 FI425702
strain 1474	tree, Syzygium Corutum	South Africa	FJ425705
strain 14/4	tree, Syzygium legatti	South Africa	FJ423704 EI425705
Strain 1560	in group	Average accurate identity with inc	FJ423703
Lower-score fills of BLAST-search off	(contraction of the second	Average sequence identity with ing	210up: 95.1–95.7 %
Data daria fuacilia	(unknown)	(unknown)	U4/020 EL107200
Duciyiaria jragilis	(unknown)	(unknown)	EU10/290
Nemania plumbea	(unknown)	(unknown)	DQ840071
Outgroup			
Soraaria fimicola	(unknown)	(unknown)	A1545728

nucleotide substitution model for the Bayesian analysis was calculated; MrBayes settings for the best-fit model (GTR + I + G) selected by AIC: Prset statefreqpr = Dirichlet (1,1,1,1); Lset Nst = 6; Rates = invgamma. The Bayesian MCMC analysis was run for 20 million generations and every 1000th generation was sampled. The posterior probability values were calculated from these samples with burn-in = 5000.

To test the specific phylogenetic hypothesis that termiteassociated *Xylaria* form a monophyletic group, we used the Bayes factor test (Kass & Raftery 1995). In this test, the marginal likelihood of the constrained tree topology is compared with the marginal likelihood of the unconstrained topology and the ratio of these likelihoods is defined as the Bayes factor (B_{10}). The Bayes factor values were interpreted according to recommendations developed by Kass & Raftery (1995): values of 2 $\log_e(B_{10})$ (two times the difference between the harmonic means of the two models) above 10 are considered as strong evidence to support the unconstrained model over the other.

Results

Distribution of Xylaria

Xylaria appeared on samples from 69% of the fungus-growing termite nests (Table 3), and on 57% of the fungus comb samples (Table 4). *Xylaria* was significantly more prevalent in *Odontotermes* combs (83%) than in *Macrotermes* and *Microtermes* combs (52% and 45%, respectively, see Table 4, *G*-test: G = 12.52, d.f. = 2; P < 0.005).

Although *Xylaria* was present in the majority of nests and fungus combs, it appeared only twice on plates with the ± 5 mm³ fine-scale samples (two out of 360 samples). Thus, when the sample size is small, the chance that *Xylaria* emerges is small. This suggests that *Xylaria* is distributed in the fungus comb in distinct patches. Many other fungi, as well as yeast and bacteria did emerge from the fine-scale samples. Plates with fine-scale samples of young and medium sections showed a range of microorganisms (1–5

Table 3 Prevalence of Xylaria in South African fungus-growingtermite nests

Year	Nests sampled	Nests with <i>Xylaria</i> on incubated combs	% nests with <i>Xylaria</i>
2003	54	37	69
2005	37	20	54
2007	17	17	100
Total	108	74	69

different microorganisms per sample such as *Alternaria* sp., *Penicillium* sp., *Trichoderma* sp., *Rhizopus* sp.), while plates with samples from the old section regularly only showed growth of *Termitomyces*. This finding that fresh fungus comb contains more microorganisms than old comb, is in accordance with observations by Thomas (1987b).

No *Xylaria* species emerged from any of the vegetation samples. Isolates with *Xylaria*-like culture morphology were sequenced, but BLAST results showed that none of the sequenced strains belonged to the genus *Xylaria*. On plates with these samples, mainly fast-sporulating fungi (i.e. *Alternaria* sp., *Aspergillus* sp., *Fusarium* sp., *Penicillium* sp., *Rhizopus* sp.), yeasts and bacteria were observed.

Specificity of Xylaria

The ITS region was successfully sequenced for 142 *Xylaria* isolates from fungus comb material (Table 1). The phylogenetic tree based on *Xylaria* ITS sequences shows 16 well-defined clades, which each have over 97.5% sequence similarity and therefore were treated as OTUs (Fig. 1).

Specificity of Xylaria on levels 2-4 was generally low. First, identical ITS types occurred on fungus combs from different termite genera and species. For example, ITS type 1.11 was found in nests of *Macrotermes michaelseni*, M. natalensis, O. badius, O. latericius, and O. transvaalensis (Table 1). Second, different ITS types occurred on fungus combs from the same termite nest. For example, ITS types from OTUs 1, 9, and 15 were all found in nest 706 (Table 1). However, there are patterns in the ITS tree that suggest some specificity. First, all five nests of Microtermes contained OTU 3 (with ITS type 3), while this OTU 3 was never encountered in nests of the two other termite genera. Second, OTU 1 (with ITS type 1) was never encountered in nests of Microtermes, while OTU 1 was the most common taxon in nests of Macrotermes and Odontotermes (Table 1). The AMOVA test, used to quantify Xylaria specificity, showed that 10% of the molecular variation in ITS sequences was explained by genus and 7% by species (AMOVA: $P \ll 0.001$).

Specificity of *Xylaria* on level 1, i.e. for fungus-growing termites, can be inferred from Fig. 2. The phylogenetic tree

Table 4 Prevalence of Xylaria in comb fragments from nests of South African fungus-growing termites

	2003			2005			2007			Weighed mean	
Genus	Combs incubated	<i>Xylaria</i> emerged	% Combs with <i>Xylaria</i>	Combs incubated	<i>Xylaria</i> emerged	% Combs with <i>Xylaria</i>	Combs incubated	<i>Xylaria</i> emerged	% combs with <i>Xylaria</i>	% combs with <i>Xylaria</i>	
Macrotermes	14	8	57.14	116	40	34.48	108	75	69.44	51.68	
Microtermes	18	9	50	13	5	38.46				45.16	
Odontotermes	22	20	90.91	22	20	70.37	7	7	100	83.3	
Total	54	37	68.52	151	65	43	115	82	71	57.37	



_ 1 change

Fig. 1 Estimated phylogeny of *Xylaria* isolated from South African fungus-growing termite nests, based on ITS sequences. The colours of the bars indicate to which termite genus/genera the nests belong, from which the *Xylaria* isolates originate: *Macrotermes* (red), *Microtermes* (blue) and *Odontotermes* (yellow), and the surface is proportional to the respective number of isolates. Each operational taxonomic unit (OTU) was given a number (in bold), and a letter when more than one isolate within an OTU was selected for LSU sequencing. The tree was estimated using the NJ method (PAUP*). Bootstrap values of 1000 replications are shown above the branches.

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Fig. 2 Estimated phylogeny of Xylaria isolated from fungus-growing termite nests (grey area) and non-termite-associated Xylaria(ceae) (white area), based on LSU sequences. The width of the coloured bars is proportional to the number of isolates that is represented by each isolate of which the LSU region was sequenced. The colours of the bars indicate to which termite genus/ genera the nests belong, from which the Xylaria isolates originate: Macrotermes (red), Microtermes (blue) and Odontotermes (yellow). The tree was estimated using maximum likelihood (PAUP*) with Sordaria fimicola (Ascomycota, Sordariales) as an outgroup. Branch support was estimated in two ways, and values > 50% are given: 1 (above the line) ML bootstrap values of 1000 replicates (using a heuristic search option), and 2 (below line) Bayesian posterior probability values.

— 0.01 substitutions/site

based on LSU sequences shows that all termite-associated *Xylaria* belong to a single clade, together with only three of the 26 non-termite-associated strains. A tree in which the termite-associated *Xylaria* are constrained to form a monophyletic group is strongly rejected using the Bayes factor test 2 $\log_e(B_{10}) = 17.52$ (Kass & Raftery 1995).

To check if geographic or temporal factors could be causing the clustering, a BLAST search on ITS sequences was done (Table 5). This showed that top BLAST hits of 12 of the 16 OTUs were fungus-growing termite-associated isolates, half of which came from Asia. We neither found evidence for temporal factors influencing the structure of our data. For example, multiple identical ITS types were found over all sampling years (e.g. ITS type 1.01 and 9.01; Table 1).

Discussion

Specificity of Xylaria

Our data show that *Xylaria* has specificity for fungusgrowing termites (level 1), as all termite-associated *Xylaria* cluster together (Fig. 2). We find three (out of the 26) related non-termite-associated isolates in that same clade, although for two of these three, the origin is unclear. There are several possible explanations for this pattern. First, it could mean that there is a clade of *Xylaria* species that have a preference for — but are not restricted to — colonies of fungus-growing termites. Second, the pattern could mean that there have been five independent transitions of

OTU	blast hit 1	blast hit 2	blast hit 3
1	EU203587	EU203585	EU164405
	Xularia sp	Xularia sp	Xularia sp
	termite-associated	termite-associated	termite-associated
	Central Africa	Central Africa	Central Africa
	98/100%	98/100%	98/100%
	uppublished	uppublished	unpublished
2	FU164401	FI 1164402	FU203584
2	Xularia sp	Xularia sp	Xularia sp
	tormita-associated	tormito-associated	tormite-associated
	Control A frico	Control A frice	Control Africa
	90/97/0	90/ 97 %	90/97/0
2	unpublished	A POZ4817	EE402524
3	AI 5/29/0	AD2/481/	EF425534
	Poaosoraaria tulasnel	Xylaria polymorpha	xyiaria sp.
	coprophilous	termite-associated	endophytic
	UK	Japan	Panama
	86/96%	84/95%	84/95%
	Ridderbusch <i>et al.</i> 2004	Okane & Nakagiri 2007	Gilbert & Webb 2007
4	AY315402	EF026121	EU678666
	<i>Xylariaceae</i> sp.	Nemania primolutea	Xylaria sp.
	endophytic	(unknown)	endophytic
	(unknown)	Asia	Asia
	90/91%	88/92%	90/91%
	Davis <i>et al.</i> 2003	unpublished	unpublished
5	EU164407	AY572970	AF163029
	Xylaria sp.	Podosordaria tulasnei	Xylaria arbuscula
	termite-associated	coprophilous	(unknown)
	Central Africa	UK	(unknown)
	98/96%	84/90%	84/90%
	unpublished	Ridderbusch et al. 2004	Lee <i>et al.</i> 2000
6	EU164404	AB217793.1	AB274815.1
0	Xylaria sp.	Uncultured xylariaceous fungus	Xylaria angulosa
	termite-associated	termite-associated	termite-associated
	Central Africa	Japan	Japan
	90/90%	100/88%	100/87%
	unpublished	Shinzato et al. 2005	Okane & Nakagiri 2007
7	EU164400	EU164408	AB217793
	<i>Xylaria</i> sp.	<i>Xylaria</i> sp.	uncultured xylariaceous fungus
	termite-associated	termite-associated	termite-associated
	Central Africa	Central Africa	Japan
	98/97%	87/90%	87/89%
	unpublished	unpublished	Shinzato et al. 2005
8	EU164400	EU164408	AB217793
	Xylaria sp.	Xylaria sp.	uncultured xylariaceous fungus
	termite-associated	termite-associated	termite-associated
	Central Africa	Central Africa	Japan
	91/92%	98/90%	100/87%
	unpublished	unpublished	Shinzato et al. 2005
9	AB217793	EU164400	EU164408
	uncultured xylariaceous fungus	Xylaria sp.	Xularia sp.
	termite-associated	termite-associated	termite-associated
	Japan	Central Africa	Central Africa
	100/94%	86/92%	98/89%
	Shinzato et al. 2005	unpublished	unpublished
10	AB217793	EU164408	EU164400
	uncultured xylariaceous fungus	Xularia sp.	Xylaria sp.
	termite-associated	termite-associated	termite-associated
	Japan	Central Africa	Central Africa
	99/88%	98/87%	90/89%
	Shinzato <i>et al.</i> 2005	unpublished	unpublished
	Similaro et m. 2000	arpuononeu	arpublica

Table 5 First hits of BLAST search on the first ITS type of each OTU. Indicated are (from top to bottom): GenBank Accession number, name,ecology, geographical origin, query coverage/maximum identity, reference

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Table 5 Continued

OTU	blast hit 1	blast hit 2	blast hit 3
11	AB217793	EU164406	EU164408
	uncultured xylariaceous fungus	<i>Xylaria</i> sp.	<i>Xylaria</i> sp.
	termite-associated	termite-associated	termite-associated
	Japan	Central Africa	Central Africa
	100/87%	98/86%	98/85%
	Shinzato et al. 2005	unpublished	unpublished
12	DQ491487	AF163029	AY183369
	Xylaria hypoxylon	Xylaria arbuscula	Xylaria arbuscula
	(unknown)	(unknown)	endophytic
	(unknown)	Asia	(unknown)
	78/91%	78/91%	77/91%
	AFTOL project	Lee <i>et al.</i> 2000	unpublished
13	AB274815	EU164408	EU113197
	Xylaria angulosa	Xylaria sp.	uncultured fungus
	termite-associated	termite-associated	root endophyte
	Japan	Central Africa	Australia
	100/98%	97/87%	90/87%
	Okane & Nakagiri 2007	unpublished	Chambers et al. 2008
14	AY315404	DQ780445	AB041994
14	Xylaria sp.	Xylaria sp.	<i>Xylaria</i> sp.
	Endophyte	Endophyte	Endophyte
	USA	Thailand	Japan
	100/91%	99/91%	100/91%
	Davis <i>et al.</i> 2003	Promputtha et al. 2007	unpublished
15	AB274813	AB217790	AB217789
	Geniculisynnema termiticola	uncultured xylariaceous fungus	uncultured xylariaceous fungus
	termite-associated	termite-associated	termite-associated
	Japan	Japan	Japan
	76/92%	76/86%	74/87%
	Okane & Nakagiri 2007	Shinzato <i>et al.</i> 2005	Shinzato <i>et al.</i> 2005
16	AB274813	AB217790	AB217789
	Geniculisynnema termiticola	uncultured xylariaceous fungus	uncultured xylariaceous fungus
	termite-associated	termite-associated	termite-associated
	Japan	Japan	Japan
	100/92%	76/89%	76/89%
	Okane & Nakagiri 2007	Shinzato <i>et al.</i> 2005	Shinzato <i>et al.</i> 2005
	Charle & Pullugit 2007	511112400 01 W. 2000	21112400 07 00. 2000

Xylariaceae to an association with fungus-growing termites. However, a more parsimonious explanation than five independent transitions is a single transition to termite nests in the most recent common ancestor of the termiteassociated clade, and two reversals to a free-living state afterwards. We have provided evidence that this observed specificity pattern is not a result of geographic origin of our samples or temporal factors.

We found no strong specificity at lower taxonomical levels (levels 2–4). Different ITS types of *Xylaria* appeared on a single fungus comb, whereas single ITS types appeared on combs from different termite genera (Table 1; Fig. 1). Only 10% and 7% of the ITS sequence variation could be explained by termite genus and species, respectively. Thus, there is no congruence between *Xylaria* phylogeny and fungus-growing termite genera, in contrast to what was found earlier for *Termitomyces* and fungus-growing termites

(Aanen *et al.* 2002, 2007) or for *Escovopsis* and fungusgrowing ants (Currie *et al.* 2003). Despite that result, nests of *Microtermes* harboured different *Xylaria* taxa than nests of the two other termite genera sampled in this study (Table 1; Fig. 1). This pattern could be the result of differences between termite genera in selection pressures that act on *Xylaria*. For example, the comb material, structure or turnover time, or the characteristics of (faecal) excretions could differ between termite genera.

In our study, we observed 16 different OTUs of termiteassociated *Xylaria*, indicating a large cryptic species richness of the fungal group involved. Whereas Batra & Batra (1979) mentioned only one *Xylaria* species, viz. *X. nigripes*, as the termite-nest associate, recent studies mention at least four (Okane & Nakagiri 2007) or even 20 different termite-associated *Xylaria* species (Ju & Hsieh 2007). Our study provides further evidence of a large number of unknown *Xylaria* species in termite nests, whose evolutionary relationships and ecological roles deserve further study.

It should be noted that there is a need for more representative sampling of species, more ecological information about the sampled species, more taxonomic work and more molecular data on the specimens. As an illustration, when performing a BLAST search on the LSU sequences, none of the BLAST hits were African taxa and none were termite-associated taxa. This could mean that African LSU or termite-associated *Xylaria* LSU sequences are underrepresented in GenBank, or both. Furthermore, information on the origin is often incomplete (Table 2).

Distribution of Xylaria

Xylaria was found in the vast majority of sampled fungusgrowing termite nests, but not on all fungus comb samples from nests where *Xylaria* was present. While *Xylaria* emerged from 57% of the 100 cm³ comb samples, it emerged hardly from the ± 5 mm³ samples. In the (fine-scale) comb samples where *Xylaria* was not observed, it may have been present but suppressed or out-competed by other fungi, as no selective medium was used for plating. However, we consider it likely that absence of *Xylaria* in individual combs is the result of a patchy distribution within nests. In contrast with what Batra & Batra (1979) have reported, our results indicate that *Xylaria* is not present throughout the comb as continuous mycelium, but either as spores or as small mycelial patches.

We have no explanation for the differences between termite genera in *Xylaria* prevalence, although one might hypothesise that this is the result of differences in fungus garden hygiene or structure.

Visible Xylaria structures were never observed in living termite colonies, while they occurred frequently and prominently when the fungus combs were incubated without termites. Furthermore, we obtained five genetically different pure Xylaria cultures from a dead termite colony, where Xylaria was fruiting throughout the nest. These observations match earlier reports that, in the presence of termites, fungi other than the cultivated Termitomyces do not develop (Shinzato et al. 2005) and that Xylaria typically produces fruiting structures in decaying or dead termite nests (Thomas 1987 c; Wood & Thomas 1989; Rogers et al. 2005). It has been hypothesised that termites actively control the species composition in their nests, for example by excreting antimicrobial peptides (Lamberty et al. 2001; Fuller 2007). Active suppression by termites of spore germination and/ or mycelial growth could explain the inferred patchy distribution of Xylaria across fungus combs in living termite nests. Considering these observations, we can hypothesise that (i) in living termite colonies Xylaria is controlled effectively; (ii) Xylaria is not eliminated but controlled only temporarily; and (iii) Xylaria is better than other fungi at taking over the comb in the absence of termites.

An unanswered question is how Xylaria enters the nest and survives until the nest is decaying. It seems unlikely that Xylaria enters the termite nest from the soil, since Thomas (1987a) did not observe Xylaria in the surrounding soil. Members of the genus Xylaria (Ascomycotina, Xylariales) occur in a wide variety of habitats (Whalley 1996). They are found not only on dead plant material, but also as endophytes in living plants (Petrini & Petrini 1985; Whalley 1996; Davis et al. 2003). Xylaria species can degrade lignin, causing white rot in wood and plant debris (Whalley 1996; Osono & Takeda 1999). Since termites feed on (dead) wood, they could bring inocula of Xylaria into the nest through foraging activities. However, we were not able to isolate Xylaria from vegetation adjacent to the nest or dead wood on which termites had been foraging, for comparison with our termite-associated Xylaria isolates. Rogers et al. (2005) suggest that certain Xylaria species (X. escharoidea, X. furcata and X. nigripes) have co-evolved with termites, because they seem to have been selected for smaller spore size. Assuming termites as the dispersion agents, small spores are more easily ingested or otherwise carried by insects and thus increase chances of dispersal (Rogers 2000). As for surviving once inside the termite nests, we may speculate that Xylaria is latently present in some less hygienic corners of the nest or in the core regions of the fungus-comb until the termite colony disintegrates. Termite-associated Xylaria may behave like 'sit-and-wait saprotrophs', foliar-endophytes that are latently present on the leaf and only start degrading it when the leaf falls from the tree (Herre et al. 2007). Having large quantities of the wood-derived substrate, termite nests are certainly worth waiting for.

The nature of termite-associated Xylaria

Since termite-associated Xylaria show specificity for fungusgrowing termites, a next question is what the nature of Xylaria in fungus-growing termite nests is. In fungus-growing ants - an independently evolved symbiosis between social insects and fungi - an ascomycete fungus has also been found, Escovopsis (Currie et al. 1999). Escovopsis is a prevalent mycoparasitic symbiont that is highly specialised on the ant fungus garden and has co-evolved with the ants (Currie et al. 2003; Reynolds & Currie 2004). Xylaria might be a mycoparasite too. However, no mycoparasitic members of the Xylariales are known. Moreover, Termitomyces is not known to suffer from parasites. It can easily be isolated in pure culture from a healthy fungus comb, without a selective medium (Aanen et al. 2007). Additionally, when Termitomyces and Xylaria are grown on one plate, they are both growing in delimited areas, and Xylaria does not seem to directly interfere with Termitomyces growth (A.A. Visser and D.K. Aanen, unpublished observations). We therefore deem it unlikely that Xylaria is a mycoparasite of Termitomyces.

Second, one could hypothesise that *Xylaria* has a beneficial role like *Termitomyces* (Batra & Batra 1979). This cannot be excluded based on our data, although the patchy distribution of *Xylaria* within a nest, and the fact that multiple genotypes were obtained from single nests, plead against this idea. Furthermore, Shinzato *et al.* (2005) showed in a quantitative analysis of the fungus comb that about 99% of the fungal tissue was *Termitomyces*, which also pleads against this hypothesis.

Third, the nature of *Xylaria* in fungus-growing termite nests could be analogous to that of weeds in human agriculture (Mueller *et al.* 2005). In human agriculture, most weeds do not specialise on the farmers, nor on the crops, but on the substrate and the favourable growth conditions created by the farmers. Likewise, termite-associated *Xylaria* are a distinct group within the Xylariaceae, without having specificity for fungus-growing termites at lower taxonomic levels. We therefore hypothesise that *Xylaria* is a (latent) weed in the fungus-growing termite colony that has specialised on the fungus comb substrate.

Experimental studies are required to further elucidate the nature of termite-associated *Xylaria*. Important questions include which substrates the various termiteassociated *Xylaria* species can degrade and how strongly these *Xylaria* species depend on the substrate provided by fungus-growing termites. Future studies also need to address the question how *Xylaria* is suppressed in living termite nests.

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