



**Arambarria the pathogen involved in canker-rot of  
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in the Southern Hemisphere**

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Complete List of Authors:	Pildain, María; 1Centro de Investigación y Extensión Forestal Andino Patagónico, Ruta 259 km 14.6, C.C. 14, 9200 Esquel, Chubut, Argentina, Forest Protection; Universidad Nacional de la Patagonia San Juan Bosco - Sede Esquel; Consejo Nacional de Investigaciones Científicas y Técnicas, Guillermo; Universidad de la República Uruguay, Instituto Superior de Estudios Forestales Robledo, Gerardo; IMBIV-CONICET, Pappano, Delia; Universidad Nacional de San Juan, Instituto de Ciencias Básicas Rajchenberg, Mario; Centro de Investigación y Extensión Forestal Andino Patagónico, Forest Protection
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***Arambarria* the pathogen involved in canker-rot of *Eucalyptus*, native trees wood-rots and grapevine diseases in the Southern Hemisphere**

M. B. Pildain<sup>1,2,3</sup>, G. A. Pérez<sup>4</sup>, G. Robledo<sup>3,5</sup>, D. B. Pappano<sup>6</sup>, M. Rajchenberg<sup>1,2,3\*</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Centro de Investigación y Extensión Forestal Andino Patagónico (CIEFAP), Ruta 259 km 14.6, C.C. 14, 9200 Esquel, Chubut, Argentina

<sup>2</sup>Universidad Nacional de la Patagonia S.J. Bosco, Ruta 259 km 14.6, 9200 Esquel, Chubut, Argentina

<sup>3</sup>Consejo Nacional de Investigaciones Científicas y Técnicas, Argentina

<sup>4</sup>Instituto Superior de Estudios Forestales, Centro Universitario de Tacuarembó, Universidad de la República, Joaquín Suárez 215, 45000 Tacuarembó, Uruguay

<sup>5</sup>Instituto Multidisciplinario de Biología Vegetal, Universidad Nacional de Córdoba, C.C.495, 5000, Córdoba, Argentina

<sup>6</sup>Universidad Nacional de San Juan, Instituto de Ciencias Básicas, Facultad de Filosofía, Humanidades y Arte, Av. Libertador San Martín 1109 O, 5400 San Juan, Argentina

\*E-mail: mrajchenberg@ciefap.org.ar (for correspondence)

**Summary**

*Arambarria* (Hymenochaetales, Basidiomycota) is a monotypic genus recently described to accommodate specimens from the Patagonian forests of Argentina wrongly assigned in the past to *Inocutis jamaicensis*. On the basis of a wide sampling of strains and phylogenetic analysis inferred from combined sequences including the nuc rDNA ITS1-5.8-ITS2 region, 28S rDNA D1-D2 domains and partial sequences of translation elongation factor 1-a (*tef1- $\alpha$* ) we demonstrate that this genus is associated to an important canker-rot of eucalypt plantations in Uruguay, to wood-rots of many native and exotic hosts, and to ‘hoja de malvón’ and chlorotic leafroll of grapevines diseases in Central Chile, Central Argentina and Uruguay, formerly assigned to *I. jamaicensis* and/or *Fomitiporella* sp. The combined phylogenetic analysis showed the existence of three, **closely** related clades that corresponded to (1) the Pampas of Uruguay and Argentina (“uruguay” clade), (2) the Monte, Chaco Serrano and Yungas forests of Argentina (“cognata” clade), and (3) the Patagonian Andes forests and Chilean Province (“destruens” clade). Lack of morphological differences between taxa from the three clades, their occurrence in both native and exotic hosts, **previous** results showing interfertility between isolates from Uruguay and Argentina, and the lack of full support in the concatenated ITS + 28S + *tef1- $\alpha$*  analysis, prevents us to distinguish and describe three different taxa; the proper name of the taxon being *Arambarria*

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3 *cognata* comb. nov. A fourth, distinctly separated clade corresponded to South African strains isolated from  
4 vineyards representing an undescribed taxon associated to Esca grapevine disease in that country. *Arambarria*  
5 is shown to be unrelated to *Inocutis*, with which it was confused in the past and, so far, remains restricted to  
6 the Northern Hemisphere in America (Mexico, Jamaica and the USA).  
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12 Short title: *Arambarria* a new pathogen for old diseases  
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### 15 16 17 **Introduction**

18 Hymenochaetaceae (Hymenochaetales, Basidiomycota) is a fungal family comprising species with a worldwide  
19 distribution and extensive host range, including cultivated and native trees, shrubs and herbaceous plants (Dai  
20 2010; Zhou et al. 2016; Sharma 1995; among others). These fungi cause white heart rot and/or canker rot and  
21 are actively involved in the degradation of standing and fallen wood. Canker rots occurs when functional  
22 sapwood is killed by the heart rot fungus and that results in development of a stem canker (Vasaitis 2013).  
23  
24 Another characteristic that defines this family is the controversy and confusion in the naming of taxa, a very  
25 important issue related their relevance as fungal pathogens and wood-rotters. Accurate species identification  
26 of the causal organism of plant disease is therefore crucial for disease control and prevention.  
27

28 An important canker- and stem-rot disease of *Eucalyptus globulus* Labill. (Myrtaceae) has been extensively  
29 studied in plantations of this species in the last decade in Uruguay. The causal agent of the disease was  
30 reported as *Inocutis jamaicensis* (Murrill) A.M. Gottlieb, J.E. Wright & Moncalvo (syn.: *Inonotus jamaicensis*  
31 Murrill) (Hymenochaetales, Basidiomycota) (Martínez 2005; Speranza et al. 2006; Lupo et al. 2009). The fungus  
32 has been responsible for up to 15% incidence in southeastern Uruguay eucalypt plantations, causing important  
33 white fibrillar, stringy wood-rots in the hardwood, ridges of callus tissue and axially cracking of the bark,  
34 necessitating the search for tree species, clones and/or varieties for replacement (Oliver Sala et al. 2005).  
35  
36 *Inocutis jamaicensis* was also found associated with vineyards in Uruguay (Pérez et al. 2008) and with several  
37 native tree species growing in the gallery forests of Parana and Uruguay rivers that belong,  
38 phytogeographically, to the Paranaense Province, Amazonic Domain (Cabrera 1971). Recorded hosts include  
39 *Dodonaea viscosa* (L.) Jacq. Chapulixtle (Sapindaceae), *Baccharis dracunculifolia* D. C. (Asteraceae), *Eupatorium*  
40 *buniifolium* Hook. ex Arn. (Asteraceae), *Heterothalamus alienus* (Spreng.) Kuntze (Asteraceae), *Daphnopsis*  
41 *racemosa* Gris. (Timelaceae), *Lithraea brasiliensis* (L.) March. (Anacardiaceae), *Parkinsonia aculeata* L.  
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3 (Fabaceae) and *Scutia buxifolia* Reiss. (Rhamnaceae); and the cultivated *Acacia longifolia* Willd. and *A.*  
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5 *melanoxydon* R. Br. (Fabaceae)(Martínez 2005; Pérez et al. 2008).  
6  
7 More recently, *I. jamaicensis* was demonstrated to be, in part, responsible for the grapevine trunk disease in  
8  
9 vineyards of west Argentina (Mendoza and San Juan provinces), which is the main grape and wine productive  
10  
11 area in that country (Lupo et al. 2006). The so named ‘hoja de malvón’ (‘geranium-like leaf’) disease is  
12  
13 characterized by symptomatic curly chlorotic leaves formation, trunk discoloration and decay, and by the  
14  
15 development of a white fibrillar wood-rot in the hardwood, that may also develop into sapwood tissues. It  
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17 produces drying, necrosis and death of branches and trunks. Lupo et al. (2006) showed, based on mating  
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19 compatibility tests and Internal transcribed spacer of nuclear ribosomal RNA gene (ITS) sequencing, that the  
20  
21 basidiomycetous fungus responsible for the white fibrillar wood-rot on grapevine trunks in Mendoza and San  
22  
23 Juan provinces was the same as the one attacking eucalypts in Uruguay. The disease has been related to Esca  
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25 disease of vineyards in Europe, North America, Canada, California, New Zealand, Australia and other wine  
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27 producing areas (Surico et al. 2008). As in those countries, ‘hoja de malvón’ is also associated with several  
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29 ascomycetous genera such as *Botryodiplodia* (Sacc.) Sacc. and *Phaeoacremonium* W. Gams, Crous & M. Wingf.  
30  
31 Gatica et al. (2000) demonstrated their role in experimental inoculation of vine plantlets, also so for the then  
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33 named *Phellinus* species associated with the disease and responsible for the white fibrillar wood-rot in the  
34  
35 hardwood. This basidiomycetous fungus was found to be the most frequent species in the complex of  
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37 organisms associated with ‘hoja de malvón’ symptoms on the leaves and wood (Césari and Gatica 2001; Gatica  
38  
39 et al. 2004). It was however not assignable to any of the basidiomycetes such as *Fomitiporia mediterranea* M.  
40  
41 Fisch. in Europe (Fischer 2002) or *Fomitiporia australiensis* M. Fisch., J. Edwards, Cunningt. & Pascoe in  
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43 Australia (Fischer et al. 2005), that were found being associated with Esca disease in those countries. In Chile,  
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45 two successive works by Aguilera et al. (2002) and Auger et al. (2003) showed that the basidiomycetous fungus  
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47 associated with Leaf Curl Chlorotic grapevine disease, belonged to either an *Inocutis* Fiasson & Niemelä or a  
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49 *Fomitiporella* Murrill species. This taxon is different from species of *Fomitiporia* Murrill known to be associated  
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51 to Esca disease in different vineyards regions of the world (Fischer 2002; Fischer et al. 2005; Cloete et al. 2014).  
52  
53 In Argentina *I. jamaicensis* has been widely reported, apart from vineyard areas, from the southern  
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55 *Nothofagus*-dominated forests of Patagonia (Subantarctic Province and Domain), Central and northwestern  
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57 Argentina in the Yungas forests, and the subxerophytic Chaco and Monte regions (Gottlieb et al. 2002;  
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59 Rajchenberg 2006; Robledo and Urcelay 2009; Urcelay et al. 2012). The species was recorded on a wide range  
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3 of native hosts such as *Lomatia hirsuta* (Lam.) Diels. (Proteaceae), *Diostea juncea* (Gillies & Hook. ex Hook.)  
4 Miers and *Durantia* L. (Verbenaceae), *Allophylus edulis* St. Hil.) Radlk. (Sapindaceae), *Cedrela* sp. P. Browne  
5 (Meliaceae), *Phoebe* (Griseb.) Mez (Lauraceae), *Celtis tala* Gillet ex Planchon (Ulmaceae), *Polylepis australis*  
6 Bitter (Rosaceae), *Eupatorium buniifolium* and *Heterothalamus alienus*, *Acacia caven* (Mol.) Mol. and *A. aroma*  
7 Hook. & Arn. (Fabaceae), *Ruprechtia apetala* Weed. (Polygonaceae) and *Salix humboldtiana* Willd. (Salicaceae).  
8 It was also found on exotic trees such as *Prunus* L. spp. and *Salix babylonica* L. It was also reported from  
9 several planted/ornamental exotics in the Pampas around Buenos Aires city such as *Eucalyptus* L'Hér.,  
10 *Taxodium distichum* (L.) L. Rich. and *Fraxinus* Tourn. ex L. (Rajchenberg and Wright 1998). In all cases the  
11 fungus attacked stumps or standing trees producing white fibrillar heart-rots.  
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21 Rajchenberg et al. (2015) found that specimens from Patagonia, determined as *I. jamaicensis* on the basis of  
22 morphological studies, grouped separately from sequences of *I. jamaicensis* from the North Hemisphere and  
23 also from other *Inocutis* species. The study revealed, with the support of molecular phylogenetic studies and  
24 detailed morphological analyses, the existence of a new genus and species *Arambarria destruens* Rajchenb. &  
25 Pildain. Surprisingly, it clustered with a sequence from a Chilean strain isolated from grapevine wood decay  
26 that was determined as *Fomitiporella* sp. by Auger et al. (2003). This discovery triggered an interest to compare  
27 *I. jamaicensis* specimens of several origins and to properly establish their identity, given the fact that the name  
28 was repeatedly used in Argentina, Chile and Uruguay to name a fungus associated with different important  
29 forest and agricultural diseases. In this context, we studied the genus *Arambarria* from southern South  
30 America. Our aims were: (a) to determine its phylogenetic relationships within the Hymenochaetaceae, (b) to  
31 establish its hosts and distribution, and (c) to relate morphological features with molecular phylogeny.  
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#### 44 **Materials and methods**

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46 *Strains and herbarium specimens.*— Strains studied, with their voucher specimens, are deposited at the  
47 institutional culture collection (CIEFAPcc) and phytopathological herbarium (CIEFAP). For some but not all  
48 strains, duplicates were deposited at BAFC culture collection. Herbarium designations follow Thiers (2016), and  
49 culture collection designations follow that of the World Federation for Culture Collection website  
50 (<http://www.wfcc.info>).  
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52 *Morphology.*— Description of basidiomata and terminology followed Ryvarden and Melo (2014). Basidiospore  
53 measurements are expressed as L × W (L = mean basidiospore length as the arithmetic average of all  
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3 basidiospores  $\pm$  SD, W = mean spore width as the arithmetic average of all basidiospores  $\pm$  SD), Q as the mean  
4 variation in the L/W ratios between the specimens studied, and n/s = number of basidiospores measured from  
5 a given number of specimens.  
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9 *DNA extraction and PCR conditions.*— DNA was extracted from herbarium specimens or freshly collected  
10 mycelium from pure culture grown in liquid malt peptone broth consisting of 10% malt extract (Merck) (w/v)  
11 and 0.1% (w/v) Bacto peptone (Difco), in 15 mL tubes at 24 C in the dark. Approximately 50 mg of fungal tissue  
12 was sliced into small sections with a sterile blade, placed in 2mL collection tubes containing 300 $\mu$ l MicroBead  
13 solution (MO BIO Laboratories Inc., Solana Beach, California) and homogenized 30s at a velocity of 6m/s in a  
14 MP FastPrep 24 (MP Biomedicals) homogenizer. Extractions were carried out with the UltraClean™ Microbial  
15 DNA Isolation Kit (MO BIO Laboratories Inc., Solana Beach, California), following the manufacturer's  
16 recommendations. DNA quantification was performed with ultraviolet spectroscopy. The primer pairs LROR-  
17 LR5 (Vilgalys and Hester 1990), ITS5-ITS4 (White et al 1990) and 983F-2218R (Rehner and Buckley 2005) were  
18 used to amplify, respectively, the partial 28S Large sub-unit of nuclear ribosomal RNA gene (LSU) that includes  
19 the variable D1/D2 domains), the full ITS region (i.e., ITS1, ITS2 and the intervening 5.8S RNA gene) and the  
20 fragment between exons 4 and 8 of the translation elongation factor 1-a (*tef1- $\alpha$* ) gene. Amplification and  
21 sequencing of 28S, ITS and *tef1- $\alpha$*  regions are described in Rajchenberg et al. (2015), Rehner and Buckley (2005)  
22 and Amalfi et al. (2010). The amplified fragments were purified and sequenced at the DNA Synthesis and  
23 Sequencing Facility, Macrogen (Seoul, Korea). Sequences generated in this study were submitted to GenBank  
24 (*tef1- $\alpha$* : KY907685 - KY907703; ITS: KY907677 - KY907685; 28S: KY907686 - KY907703).  
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40 *Dataset selection.*— As a framework for taxon selection we used sequences of representative species from  
41 genera defined by Larsson et al. (2006), Parmasto et al. (2013), Zhou et al. (2012, 2014) and Drechsler-Santos et  
42 al. (2016) based on morphological and molecular characteristics, and accepted in the Hymenochateaceae.  
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45 Whenever possible, sequences of the generic type species were included.  
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48 *Sequence and phylogenetic analyses.*— Three data sets were analyzed for this study: concatenated analyses of  
49 the ITS region and 28S gene were used to expand available sequences for *Arambarria* on GenBank with Chilean  
50 sequences deposited in the GenBank and to ascertain its phylogenetic relationships with related genera.  
51  
52 Concatenated analyses of ITS, 28S and *tef1- $\alpha$*  was performed for *Arambarria* to solve the phylogenetic  
53 structure within the genus. Nucleotide sequences were initially edited with BioEdit 7.0.9.0 (Hall 1999), then  
54 aligned automatically with MAFFT (Katoh and Standley 2013) and manually adjusted in MEGA version 6  
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3 (Tamura et al. 2013). The final ITS dataset comprised 32 sequences and 709 characters including gaps, the LSU  
4 dataset comprised 37 sequences and 876 characters including gaps, and the *tef1- $\alpha$*  comprised 19 sequences  
5 and 979 characters including gaps. The datasets were manually combined for concatenated analyses. The two  
6 concatenated data sets (ITS + 28S and ITS + 28S + *tef1- $\alpha$* ) were assessed for congruence using the Partition  
7 homogeneity test in PAUP\* 4.0b10 (Swofford 2002). The substitution models that best fitted the sequence  
8 alignments were determined using the AIC criterion (Akaike 1974) implemented in jModelTest (Posada 2008;  
9 <http://darwin.uvigo.es>). The following models were used: (1) for ITS + 28S, TVM+I+G and TrN+I+G, respectively;  
10 (2) for ITS + 28S + *tef1- $\alpha$* , the models selected were HKY+I, TIM2+I and TIM3ef+G, respectively. Phylogenetic  
11 analysis of the individual loci and combined data set were performed using maximum likelihood (ML) with  
12 RAxML 7.2.8 (Stamatakis et al. 2014) and Bayesian (BA) inferences of phylogenies in Mr Bayes v.3.0B4  
13 (Ronquist & Huelsenbeck 2003). The number of included taxa for the concatenated ITS + 28S matrix was 35, the  
14 ITS and 28S partitions included 524 and 874 characters, respectively, for a combined data matrix of 1397  
15 characters. While with the concatenated ITS + 28S + *tef1- $\alpha$*  matrix included 19 sequences with 866 ITS  
16 characters, 660 for 28S and 979 for ITS + 28S + *tef1- $\alpha$* . Branch support was determined using nonparametric  
17 bootstrapping (1000 replicates) implemented in RAxML 7.2.8 (Stamatakis et al. 2014), using the default  
18 parameters, executed on the CIPRES (Cyber infrastructure for Phylogenetic Research) Science Gateway V. 3.1  
19 ([http://www.phylo.org/sub\\_sections/portal/](http://www.phylo.org/sub_sections/portal/), Miller et al. 2010). Bayesian phylogenetic analyses were  
20 performed using Mr Bayes v. 3.2.2 employing a Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) algorithm (Ronquist and  
21 Huelsenbeck 2003). Four independent chains were run for  $8 \times 10^6$  generations, trees were sampled every 100  
22 generations. Log files for each run were viewed in Tracer v1.6.0  
23 (<http://evolve.zoo.ox.ac.uk/software.html/tracer/>) to determine convergence. Trees generated prior to  
24 stationarity were discarded and the remainder of the trees was summarized in a majority-rule consensus tree  
25 from the four independent runs. Branch support was assessed using posterior probabilities calculated from the  
26 posterior set of trees after stationarity was reached. Trees inferred from the ITS + 28S data set were rooted  
27 with *Nothophellinus andinopatagonicus* (J.E. Wright & J.R. Deschamps) Rajchenb. & M.B. Pildain (CIEFAPcc42)  
28 and *Fuscoporia gilva* (Schwein.) T. Wagner & M. Fisch. (ATCC26729). While the outgroups for the ITS+ 28S+  
29 *tef1- $\alpha$*  were *Fomitiporia punctata* (P. Karst.) Murrill MUCL34101 and *Phellinus uncisetus* Robledo, Urcelay &  
30 Rajchenb. MUCL46231, as Rannala and Yang (2013) showed that including a closely related outgroup may  
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3 increase the statistical power of BA. Alignments and phylogenetic trees have been deposited at TreeBase:  
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5 <http://purl.org/phylo/treebase/phyloids/study/20030>.  
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## 8 9 **Results**

### 10 **Phylogenetic analyses**

11  
12 Phylogenetic analyses based on the concatenated dataset ITS + 28S placed taxa in well resolved clades that  
13 included *Arambarria*, *Fomitiporella*, *Inocutis*, *Phellinotus* Drechsler-Santos & Robledo and the taxa *Fulvifomes*  
14 *inermis* (Ellis & Everh.) Y.C. Dai, *F. chinensis* (Pilát) Y.C. Dai and *Inonotus tenuissimus* H.Y. Yu, C.L. Zhao & Y.C.  
15 Dai (Zhao 2014, Rajchenberg et al. 2015)(BS=75%; PP=0.95). Combined and single loci phylogenetic analyses of  
16 ITS and 28S sequences (Fig. 1, Suppl. Fig. 1) confirm that *Arambarria* is a monophyletic genus and includes all  
17 specimens formerly identified as *Inocutis* spp. in southern South American countries (Argentina, Chile and  
18 Uruguay)(BS=90%; PP=1.0). We included sequences of *I. jamaicensis* from Arizona (USA, RLG15819) and of  
19 another species of *Inocutis* with available ITS and LSU sequences, *I. dryophila* (Berk.) Fiasson & Niemelä. A  
20 noteworthy discovery came from the inclusion of South African *Inocutis* Taxon 3 specimens (Cloete et al. 2015)  
21 that were placed as a basal group (BS=100%; PP=1.0) within *Arambarria*. Four major clades can be recognized  
22 within clade *Arambarria* based on the individual and concatenated dataset ITS + 28S (Fig. 1, Suppl. Fig. 1). The  
23 “destruens” (BS=60%; PP=0.99), “cognata” (BS=95%; PP=1.0) and “uruguay” (BS=85%; PP=0.98) clades, which  
24 are distributed across Argentina, Chile and Uruguay, and a basal one from South Africa (BS =100%; PP =1.0).  
25  
26 Phylogenies of *Arambarria* based on individual loci and concatenated ITS + 28S + *tef1-α* reconstructed the same  
27 major clades (Fig. 2, Suppl. Fig.2) but only support the “destruens” clade (Fig. 2, Suppl. Fig.2). Combined ITS +  
28 28S and individual analyses differentiate *Arambarria* from *Inocutis* s. str. The *I. jamaicensis* sequence from the  
29 North Hemisphere grouped basally within *Inocutis* but separated from the other species *I. dryophila*.  
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### 48 **Morphology & Taxonomy**

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50 *Arambarria cognata* (Bres.) Rajchenb. & Pildain comb. nov.

Fig. 3

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52 MycoBank MB820520

53  
54 Bas.: *Polyporus rheades* Pers. var. *cognatus* Bres. Annls. Mycol. 18(1/3): 34, 1920.

55  
56 Syn.: *Arambarria destruens* Rajchenb. & Pildain, Mycologia 107: 759, 2015 (Holotype BAFC!), MycoBank

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58 MB809350  
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3 For formal descriptions of this taxon see Gottlieb et al. (2002), Rajchenberg & Wright (1998), Martínez (2005,  
4  
5 2006), Rajchenberg (2006) and Rajchenberg et al. (2015) under *Inonotus* or *Inocutis jamaicensis*.

6  
7 Specimens are variable macromorphologically, from resupinate, effused reflexed to strictly pileate. Pilei are  
8  
9 triquetrous to unguulate, solitary or numerous imbricate, up to 3–7 × 2–4 × 0.5–1.5–3 cm; pilear surface is  
10  
11 velutinous to slightly hispid but soon becomes glabrous and displays a smooth, sometimes radially wrinkled,  
12  
13 hardened surface, chestnut, reddish brown to dark reddish brown; the margin is blunt, concolorous with pilear  
14  
15 surface but cream coloured in large specimens. The context is homogeneous, presenting or not presenting a  
16  
17 black line below the tomentum that runs partially or all along the pileus and is formed by the hardened pilear  
18  
19 surface; a line may also be present in the base of tubes; context golden brown always lacking a granular core at  
20  
21 the base. Pores are round to subgyrose, mostly 3-4-5/mm. The hyphal system is monomitic throughout, with  
22  
23 simple-septate generative hyphae, with thin- to thick- hyaline to coloured walls. Setae are absent.

24  
25 Basidiospores are abundant, broadly ellipsoid, ellipsoid to ovoid, adaxially flattend, 5.7–6.8–7.1 × 3.8–5.0  
26  
27 µm, thick-walled, yellowish in water, chestnut in KOH 5%, IKI- and acyanophilous.

28  
29 Some specimens from clade “uruguay” are prone to form large pileate basidiomata that lack resupinate  
30  
31 portions (Fig. 3B; also cfr. Pérez et al. 2008 Fig. 1), but this was related to large and standing stems, as  
32  
33 basidiomata similar to typical specimens from clades “destruens” and “cognata” (Fig. 3A, 3C) were also formed  
34  
35 in thinner and inclined stems (cfr. Lupo et al. 2006, Fig. 1). Basidiospores showed a range of size variation that  
36  
37 overlapped among specimens from the different clades (Tables 1 and 2). Nevertheless, Q values showed a  
38  
39 progressive increase from “destruens” to “cognata” and “uruguay” specimens (Table 2).

40  
41 A duplex context is the main morphological difference with *I. jamaicensis* s.str. and the lack of a distinct  
42  
43 granular core being a general difference with species in *Inocutis*, though the granular core may be lacking in  
44  
45 certain specimens of *I. jamaicensis* (Gilbertson and Ryvarde 1987, Valenzuela et al. 2013). Martínez (2006)  
46  
47 described sclerified hyphae from rudimentary granular core in some Uruguayan specimens.

48  
49 *Fomitiporella* is distinguished by perennial taxa with a dimitic hyphal system (Wagner and Fischer 2002).

50  
51 *Inocutis rheades* (Pers.) Fiasson & Niemelä is similar, but differs by the presence of a distinct granular core in  
52  
53 the context, by somewhat larger pores 2-3-4/mm, and by mainly growing on *Populus*. Microscopically they are  
54  
55 similar (Table 1) (Dai 2010; Ryvarde and Melo 2014).

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3 Materials studied (specimens and/or strains):

4  
5 Phylogenetic clade “cognata”

6  
7 **ARGENTINA, CÓRDOBA**, leg. C. Spegazzini n°13, ad truncos (Holotype of *P. rheades* var. *cognatus*, SI). Ibid., leg.

8  
9 T. Stuckert 6847, 26 Apr 1899, det. C. Spegazzini (LPS 21857). Ibid, leg. ipse 6889 (LPS 21856).

10  
11 **ARGENTINA, CÓRDOBA**, Punilla, Cuesta Blanca, on *Eupatorium buniifolium*, C. Urcelay 132, 136 and 137, 10 Jul

12  
13 1999 (CORD). San Javier, La Ola, Pampa de Achala, on dead stem of standing *Polylepis australis*, Robledo 64, 18

14  
15 Jun 2001. JUJUY, Santa Bárbara, El Fuerte, on stem of *Eupatorium* sp., 4623 Feb 2001. **MENDOZA**, Luján de

16  
17 Cuyo, *Vitis vinifera* L. var. C. Grande, isolated from wood-rot, leg. M. Gatica, 1999 (CIEFAPcc 198). **SAN JUAN**,

18  
19 Pocito, Carpintería, Finca Parralcha, *Vitis vinifera* var. Imperial Seedles, isolated from wood-rots, leg. D.B.

20  
21 Pappano, Oct-Nov 2014 (CIEFAPcc 16, 63, 72, 547, 550, 551, 552, 556 and 563, isolated from 8 different plants).

22  
23 **TUCUMÁN**, Trancas, 1229 asl, 26°17'21"LS 65°31'13.4" LW, on fallen branch, G.L. Robledo 940, 22 Mar 2007.

24  
25 Trancas, Dique El Cadillal, on living stem of *Cedrela*, 26°37'24.5" LS 65°11'55.6" LW, G.L. Robledo 788, 18 Feb

26  
27 2007.

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29  
30 Phylogenetic clade “destruens”

31  
32 **ARGENTINA, CHUBUT**, Lago Puelo National Park, W arm of Lago Puelo, oriental slope of Valle de las Lágrimas,

33  
34 Los Tineos stream, on stem and branches of a dead *Diostea juncea* in *Austrocedrus chilensis* (D.Don) Pic. Ser. et

35  
36 Bizzarri forest, 10 May 1996, M. Rajchenberg 11172 (holotype, BAFC 34575) (Ex-type strains BAFcCc 1500,

37  
38 CIEFAPcc192. GenBank accessions: ITS AY072033, 28S KP347520). Ibid., 4 May 1998, A. Greslebin AG1591.

39  
40 **CHUBUT**, Los Alerces National Park, Lago Verde, track to Lago Menéndez, ca. 50 m from the bridge on

41  
42 Arrayanes river, on fallen trunk of *Lomatia hirsuta*, 9 May 1996, M. Rajchenberg 11116 (BAFC 34592, isolate

43  
44 BAFcCc 1508, CIEFAPcc 194). Ibid., Lago Futalaufquen, Cerro Dedal, beginning of the track towards the

45  
46 mountain's top, on fallen branch of *Diostea juncea*, 9 May 1997, M. Rajchenberg 11230 (BAFC 34591). Ibid.,

47  
48 Lago Futalaufquen, 'head' of the Lake, on dead branches of living *Diostea juncea* at the lake shore, 12 Dec

49  
50 2012, M. Rajchenberg 12504 and 12505. Ibid., 25May 2011, M. Rajchenberg 12478 (isolate CIEFAPcc 347.**CHILE**,

51  
52 **SANTIAGO**, Región Metropolitana Quebrada de la Plata, on *Baccharis* Sch.Bip. ex Walp. sp., P. Sandoval, 2012

53  
54 (SGO 160477).

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57  
58 Phylogenetic clade “uruguay”

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3 **ARGENTINA, BUENOS AIRES**, Magdalena, Estancia El Destino, M. Rajchenberg & D. Job, 28 Aug 1984 (BAFC  
4 30218). La Plata, Villa Elisa, leg. & det. C. Spegazzini, 26 May 1921, on *Eucalyptus* sp. (LPS 21859). Ibid., leg. &  
5 det. ipse, May 1921, on *Eucalyptus globulus* Labill. (LPS 21860). **URUGUAY**, Montevideo, leg. & det. C.  
6 Spegazzini, May 1914 (LPS 21858). **URUGUAY, DURAZNO**, Ruta 5 km 205, on *Acacia melanoxylon*, G. Pérez  
7 CGP465, Apr 2014. **CANELONES**, Atlántida, Ruta Interbalnearia km 41, on *Acacia longifolia*, G. Pérez CGP 466,  
8 467 and 468, Apr 2014. Ibid., on *Dodonaea viscosa*, G. Pérez CGP 473 and 474, Apr 2014. Ibid., monosporic  
9 culture from CGP 468, as CGP 469. **TACUAREMBO**, Balneario Iporá, plantation behind De las Pintangueras  
10 street, on *Eucalyptus globulus*, G. Pérez CGP 470, 471 and 472, Jul 2014. **LAVALLEJA**, Route 14 between Battle  
11 and Zapicán, Uruguay Forestal, on *Eucalyptus globulus*, R. Linares, Aug 2002. Estancia Ruralco, on stump of *E.*  
12 *globulus*, S. Lupo, L. Bettucci & S. Martínez (MVHC 5001).

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25 *Inocutis jamaicensis*s.s. (specimens and/or strains):

26 **JAMAICA**, Mabess River, at 3000 ft, Underwood 23, Apr 1903 (Holotype, NY!). **USA, NEW MEXICO**, Mescalero  
27 I.R., on *Quercus gambelii* Nutt., F.G. Hawksworth 98525, 3 Sep 1952 (det. R.L. Gilbertson) (ARIZ 017567).

28  
29 **ARIZONA**, Cochise Co., Coronado National Forest, Chiricahua Mts., Rucker Canyon, on *Quercus arizonica*, E.R.  
30 Canfield 71121, 22 Jul 1971 (det. R.L. Gilbertson) (ARIZ 017566). Ibid., South Fork of Cave Creek, on *Q. arizonica*  
31 Sarg., R.L. Gilbertson 15819, 1 Sep 1985 (ARIZ 011096 duplic at USDA Forest Service Herbarium); strain RLG-  
32 15819 = CIEFAPcc 420.

## 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 **Discussion**

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42 *Inocutis jamaicensis* was recorded in Uruguay as the pathogen responsible of a serious stem and rot-canker in  
43 *E. globulus* and *E. viminalis* Labill. plantations, also associated with white-rots in the trunks and major branches  
44 of vineyards. Chlorotic leafroll in Chile and 'hoja de malvón' in Argentina are major diseases of grapevine  
45 production in southern South America, similar to Esca disease in many other productive areas around the  
46 world. A white-rot is associated with these diseases, which has been the subject of many studies in order to  
47 establish its etiology, due to the fact that the fungus is one of the main isolated taxa and also partially  
48 responsible of 'hoja de malvón' symptomatology (Gatica et al. 2000). Cloete et al. (2015) summarized the  
49 knowledge on Hymenochaetales fungi associated to grapevine diseases worldwide. In Argentina and Chile the  
50 species associated with the white rot have been known as *I. jamaicensis* and *Fomitiporella* sp., respectively, the  
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3 latter named as 'Fomitiporella vitis' (Auger et al. 2003 and 2005; Surico et al. 2008) but was never formally  
4 described (cfr. Indexfungorum and MycoBank).

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6 *Inocutis jamaicensis* was originally described from the Caribbean area (Murrill 1904), but its presence in several  
7 parts of the Americas has been reported continuously. It has been reported from Mexico (Chihuahua,  
8 Guanajato, Hidalgo, Oaxaca, Querétaro, Sonora and Veracruz States; Valenzuela et al. 2013), USA (New Mexico  
9 and SE Arizona States; Gilbertson and Ryvarden 1987), Brazil (Parana State; Baltazar et al. 2010), Argentina and  
10 Uruguay (cfr. Introduction). The species was originally described as a *Inonotus* species but two independent  
11 studies using molecular methods and published almost simultaneously showed that it belongs to *Inocutis* and  
12 not to *Inonotus* (Gottlieb et al. 2002, Wagner and Fischer 2002). Specimens of *I. jamaicensis* from the North  
13 Hemisphere (Arizona, USA; Wagner and Fischer 2002) grouped within *Inocutis* s.s., with the type species *I.*  
14 *rheades* (Pers.) Fiasson & Niemelä and *I. dryophilus* (Berk.) Fiasson & Niemelä, *I. ludovicianus* (Pat.) T. Wagner  
15 & M. Fisch. and *I. tamaricis* (Pat.) Fiasson & Niemelä, distant to South American specimens. They are herein  
16 considered to represent the 'true' *I. jamaicensis*. Specimens from Patagonia grouped within *Inocutis* (Gottlieb  
17 et al. 2002) but were later shown to represent a different genus (Rajchenberg et al. 2015). Based on  
18 preliminary studies that showed a relationship between the Patagonian strains and an isolate recovered from  
19 *Vitis vinifera* from Chile (Rajchenberg et al. 2015) we performed a wide sampling effort to compare strains from  
20 different parts. Our study showed that materials from Uruguay, Chile and Central and southern Argentina  
21 represent a different genus, *Arambarria*, with a wide distribution area and apparently restricted to the  
22 Southern Hemisphere. The results from the phylogenetic analyses shows that *I. jamaicensis* s.s. might probably  
23 have a more restricted distribution than previously recorded and assumed based on morphological studies. We  
24 did not include *I. jamaicensis* voucher specimen from Arizona, USA, viz. Gilb. 14740 (Genbank LSU sequence  
25 AY059048, Wagner and Fischer 2002) in this study because ITS sequence data were not available, but our  
26 results correlate well with those obtained in our previous work on the Hymenochaetaceae from Patagonia  
27 (Rajchenberg et al. 2015) where the specimen was used.

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Whitin *Arambarria* the combined phylogenetic analysis showed the existence of 3, much related South  
American clades and a fourth, distinctly separated clade that corresponded to South African strains isolated  
from vineyards. The South American clades corresponded with several phytogeographic regions as follows:  
"destruens" in the Subantarctic Patagonian forest and Chilean Province, "cognata" in the Yungas forest, Monte  
and Chaco Serrano, and "uruguay" in the Pampas; in the three cases on native and cultivated trees. Within the

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3 “destruens” clade, specimens from Patagonia (CIEFAPcc192 and CIEFAPcc194) isolated from basidiomata  
4 growing on the native trees *Diostea juncea* and *Lomatia hirsuta* grouped together with Chilean sequences  
5 (SGO160477, *Fomitiporella* sp. DQ459301) that belong to specimens collected from the native *Baccharis* sp.  
6 and the introduced *Vitis vinifera*, respectively. Clade “cognata” included strains CIEFAPcc 16, 550 and 563  
7 isolated from *V. vinifera* wood-rots in San Juan province (Argentina) with specimen CORD132 from the native  
8 *Eupatorium buniifolium*. While clade “uruguay” includes collections from *Acacia* spp. and the native *Dodonaea*  
9 *viscosa*.

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11 The possibility that 3 cryptic species might be involved was evaluated. Nevertheless, and despite of the  
12 phylogenetic groups that we could detect from our analyses, only one of them (clade “destruens”) presented  
13 enough statistical support. Also, neither macro- nor micromorphological differences could be found. Only the  
14 spores’ Q values showed a progressive increase from 1.36 to 1.63, a feature that might reflect an ongoing  
15 phylogenetic separation among these clades. Based on our data and given that only few materials comprised  
16 each clade, we could not find any supporting morphological feature to suggest recognizing these clades as  
17 different species at this time. Some specimens from clade “uruguay” form large, pileate basidiomata that lack  
18 resupinate portions, that were not found in specimens belonging to the other clades, but this was related to  
19 large and standing stems and, otherwise, basidiomata similar to typical specimens from clades “destruens” and  
20 “cognata” (Fig. 3A, 3C) were also formed in thinner and inclined stems. In this regard, it has been shown that  
21 logs with larger diameter might favor decay activity, fruitbody production and volume because they generally  
22 have more constant microclimatic conditions (Boddy 1983, 2001; Urcelay and Robledo 2009). Clade  
23 “destruens” was the only well-defined and supported phylogenetic group in all the analyses. Specimens from a  
24 wide geographic area along the Andes ranges and host diversity grouped together, from the Patagonian Andes  
25 forests in the south up to the Chile Province in the north. The record of the species is still scant in Chile, but  
26 found on *Baccharis*, which grows in areas where it has been replaced by vineyards. The concatenated ITS + 28S  
27 + *tef1-α* phylogeny did not support the clades “cognata” and “uruguay” as monophyletic, neither in BA nor in  
28 RAXML analyses (RAXML=60%; BA=0.9 for “cognata” and RAXML=< 60%; BA=0.9 for “uruguay”). In addition,  
29 mating experiments between monosporic cultures from *Eucalyptus* and *V. vinifera* from Uruguay and  
30 Argentina, respectively, demonstrated interfertility (Lupo et al. 2006). Therefore, while we were able to  
31 discriminate “destruens” among the South American clades, we cannot support the description of separate  
32 species due to the absence of morphological characteristics or other data that confirm the molecular analyses.  
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3 Also, the moderate support of “cognata” and “uruguay” clades suggest an unresolved structure within the  
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5 South American specimens even with multilocus analyses. It would be necessary to include more specimens  
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7 from the wide distributional range of this genus in order to confirm or reject the hypothesis of new species  
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9 within *Arambarria*. For example, it was demonstrated for the phytopathogenic fungus *Colletotrichum* Corda  
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11 that the addition of new strains into a group containing two originally well supported sister clades the  
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13 distinctiveness of the two clades collapsed (Liu et al. 2016). Therefore, obtaining a sufficient number of strains  
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15 from diverse origins is crucial for delimiting species or introducing a novel one. Another scenario to consider is  
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17 the case of sympatric speciation, where mechanisms of reproductive isolation may evolve much later than DNA  
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19 divergence. In this case, phylogenetic studies discriminate the speciation process more accurately than the  
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21 Biological Species criterion, and closely related species may remain interfertile in *in vitro* crosses for some time  
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23 (Cai et al. 2011).

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26 After considering the distinctiveness and the wide geographical range of *Arambarria* specimens from southern  
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28 South America we proceeded to review former names and available materials. It came to our attention the  
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30 name *Polyporus rheades* (Pers.) Bondartsev & Singer var. *cognatus* Bres., which was used for a specimen  
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32 collected by Spegazzini from Córdoba Province, Argentina (Bresadola 1920). It was considered an accepted  
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34 variety of *P. rheades* by Pegler (1964), but a synonym of *I. jamaicensis* by Gottlieb et al. (2002). The  
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36 morphological study of several of Spegazzini’s specimens of var. *cognatus* (also registered by him from  
37  
38 elsewhere in Argentina, as stated in the Introduction) and the inclusion of molecular data from a specimen  
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40 from Córdoba proved to be the previous available species name and the new combination *A. cognata* has been  
41  
42 proposed. As a conclusion, with the available data at this time we support the existence of a single species *A.*  
43  
44 *cognata* in Argentina, Chile and Uruguay.

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46 *Arambarria* in southern South America represents a wood-rotting pathogen that has a wide geographical  
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48 distribution, grows on numerous native hosts and that has jumped from indigenous to introduced exotic hosts.  
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50 Host jumps are common for fungal pathogens (Wingfield 2003). This has been the case for other  
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52 Hymenochaetales described from vineyards worldwide such as *Fomitiporia mediterranea* M. Fisch., *F.*  
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54 *australiensis* M. Fisch., J. Edwards, Cunningt. & Pascoe and *F. capensis* M. Fisch., M. Cloete, L. Mostert & F.  
55  
56 Halleen that are responsible of the white-rot decays in vineyards in the Mediterranean, Australian and South  
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58 African areas, respectively (Cloete et al. 2014, Fischer 2002, Fischer et al. 2005). *Inonotus rickii* (Pat.) D.A. Reid  
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3 (a Neotropical species) is a pathogen of *Platanus acerifolia* Mill. ex Münchh. and *Acer negundo* L. in planted  
4 tree areas/streets of Buenos Aires city (Rajchenberg and Robledo 2013). In South Africa, several *Ganoderma*  
5 species have been described attacking introduced *Jacaranda mimosifolia* D. Don. trees in Pretoria (Coetzee et  
6 al. 2015). In Sumatra, *G. philippii* (Bres. & Henn. ex Sacc.) Bres. is responsible for root rot of exotic *Acacia*  
7 *mangium* Willd. and *Eucalyptus* trees (Coetzee et al. 2011). Fungal host jump events are connected with  
8 anthropogenic introduction (Slippers et al. 2005). In this context it is also worthy to note that an intensive trade  
9 of vine cuttings from Chile to Argentina either formal or informally occurred in the 1990s due to laws that  
10 aimed to stimulate agricultural development, securing interchange of biological materials in the two  
11 neighboring wine growing areas of Chile and Argentina. Present knowledge regarding pathogen-host  
12 interaction shows that some plant pathogens have a broad host range and are capable of parasitizing host  
13 plants of different families, being host jump and host expansion the common evolutionary mechanisms that  
14 enables host specific pathogens to shift from one host to another or to acquire new host and, in most cases,  
15 host shift consequently produces the most devastating disease outbreaks (Woolhouse et al. 2005).

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28 Our study recovered *Inocutis* Taxon 3 of the Hymenochaetales isolated from South African vineyards (Cloete  
29 et al. 2015) within the clade "Arambarria". However, it might represent a species different from the South  
30 American *A. cognata*. The record of *I. jamaicensis* on *Phyllica* L. sp. (Rhamnaceae) from Tristan da Cunha island  
31 (Reid 1955) may be a clue of the existence of a species morphologically similar to the North Hemisphere *I.*  
32 *jamaicensis* and to the South American *A. cognata*. The island is very isolated but is phytogeographically  
33 related to the South African Cape Floral Kingdom, where fynbos formation presents most of the species  
34 diversity in *Phyllica* (Richardson et al. 2001). Based on the morphological similarity between *I. jamaicensis* and  
35 *A. cognata*, the possibility exists that Reid's record found in that island is a specimen of the South African  
36 *Inocutis* Taxon 3 of the Hymenochaetales, and an indication that it might be found on *Phyllica* in the continent.  
37 According to the above facts, we expect to find a taxon that might be morphologically very similar to the  
38 southern South American taxon, but phylogenetically distinct.

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50 In conclusion, this study confirms the distinctiveness of *Arambarria* as a pathogen within the  
51 Hymenochaetaceae especially so *vis à vis* *Inocutis*. It also shows the existence of two distinct species, *A.*  
52 *cognata* present in Argentina, Chile and Uruguay, and an unnamed species in South Africa. Both species are  
53 associated to native and introduced forest and agriculturally important trees. From a pathological perspective,  
54 it seems likely that these taxa jumped from native hosts to introduced ones given their geographic distribution  
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3 and hosts diversity. Future work will be needed to determine if the present phylogenies reflect population  
4 structure or species delimitation in southern South America and the proper taxonomic delimitation of the  
5 South African taxon.  
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### 10 11 12 **Acknowledgments**

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### Captions of Tables and Figures

Table 1. Basidiospore measurements of *Arambarria cognata* and related taxa.

Table 2. Concise basidiospores size variation in specimens from different clades.

Fig. 1. Phylogenetic relationships of *Arambarria* inferred from ITS and LSU sequences via maximum likelihood (ML) and Bayesian (BA). Thick vertical black bars show the root branch for the specific lineage indicated by the adjacent label. Thick horizontal branches are supported by bootstrap value greater than 60% (ML) and 0.9 (BPP). PAT, Patagonia; SJ, San Juan; ARG, Argentina; CH, Chile; SA, South Africa; UR, Uruguay; USA United States of America; TAC, Tacuarembó; CAN, Canelones; STE, Stellenbosch. Sequences in bold were generated in this study. T, sequences obtained from the genus type species.

Fig. 2. Phylogram generated from ITS+28S+ *tef1- $\alpha$*  combined sequence data with maximum likelihood and Bayesian analysis. Thick vertical black bars show the root branch for the specific lineage indicated by the adjacent label. Thick horizontal branches are supported by bootstrap value greater than 60% (ML) and 0.9 (BPP). PAT, Patagonia; SJ, San Juan; ARG, Argentina; CH, Chile; UR, Uruguay. T, sequences obtained from the genus type species.

Fig. 3. A-C, Basidiomata of *Arambarria cognata*. A. on *Diostea* (Patagonia, Argentina). B. on *Eucalyptus* (Uruguay). C. on *Eupatorium buniifolium* (Córdoba Prov., Argentina). D. Wood rot in *V. vinifera* from where isolate CIEFAPcc72 was obtained.

Suppl. Fig. 1. Phylograms generated from 28S and ITS sequence data with maximum likelihood and Bayesian analysis. Thick vertical black bars show the root branch for the specific lineage indicated by the adjacent label. Thick horizontal branches are supported by bootstrap value greater than 60% (ML) and 0.9 (BPP). PAT, Patagonia; SJ, San Juan; ARG, Argentina; CH, Chile; UR, Uruguay. T, sequences obtained from the genus type species.

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5 Suppl. Fig. 2. Phylograms generated from 28S, ITS and *tef- $\alpha$*  sequence data sets with maximum likelihood and  
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Table 1. Basidiospore measurements of *Arambarria cognata* and related taxa

Species/ Lineage	Specimen*	Mean Spore Length $\pm$ SD (L)	Mean Spore Width $\pm$ SD (W)	Spore Length	Spore Width	Q= L / W
<i>A. cognata</i> "destruens clade"	<i>destruens</i> type BAFC 34575 Chubut, ARG	6.00 $\pm$ 0.31	4.43 $\pm$ 0.36	5.69-6.31	4.07-4.79	1.35
	BAFC 34592 Chubut, ARG	5.96 $\pm$ 0.22	4.23 $\pm$ 0.31	5.74-6.18	3.92-4.54	1.41
	MR 12504 Chubut, ARG	6.24 $\pm$ 0.35	4.60 $\pm$ 0.36	5.89-6.59	4.24-4.96	1.36
	SGO160477 CHILE	6,30 $\pm$ 0,41	4,5 $\pm$ 0,39	5.89-6.71	4.11-4.89	1.40
<i>A. cognata</i> "cognata clade"	<i>cognatus</i> type Córdoba, ARG	6.38 $\pm$ 0.36	4.55 $\pm$ 0.35	6.02-6.74	4.20-4.90	1.40
	Urcelay 132 Córdoba, ARG	6.10 $\pm$ 0.25	4.18 $\pm$ 0.35	5.85-6.35	3.83-4.53	1.46
	Robledo 64 Córdoba, ARG	6.09 $\pm$ 0.32	4.29 $\pm$ 0.30	5.77-6.41	3.99-4.59	1.42
	Robledo 46 Jujuy, ARG	5.97 $\pm$ 0.22	4.08 $\pm$ 0.25	5.75-6.19	3.83-4.33	1.46
	Robledo 788 Jujuy, ARG	5.94 $\pm$ 0.19	4.04 $\pm$ 0.12	5.75-6.13	3.92-4.16	1.47
<i>A. cognata</i> "uruguay clade"	Linares URU	6.85 $\pm$ 0.27	4.21 $\pm$ 0.21	6.58-7.12	4.0-4.42	1.63
	MVHC 5001 URU	6.37 $\pm$ 0.49	4.14 $\pm$ 0.18	5.88-6,86	3,96-4.32	1.54
	CGP 557 URU	6.39 $\pm$ 0.35	4.21 $\pm$ 0.27	6.04-6.74	3.94-4,48	1.52
<i>Inocutis jamaicensis</i>	<i>jamaicensis</i> RLG15819, USA	6.38 $\pm$ 0.45	4.51 $\pm$ 0.37	5.93-6,83	4.14-4,88	1.41
	<i>jamaicensis</i> Hawks98525, USA	6.63 $\pm$ 0.41	4.72 $\pm$ 0.34	6.22-7.04	4.38-5,06	1.40
	<i>jamaicensis</i> Canf71121, USA	6.86 $\pm$ 0.28	4.89 $\pm$ 0.34	6.58-7.14	4.55-5.19	1.40
<i>Inocutis rheades</i>	<i>rheades</i> type FRANCE	6.98 $\pm$ 0.20	5.01 $\pm$ 0,47	6.78-7.18	4.54-5.48	1.39

\*number of spores measured per specimen = 30. For specimen's data see text

ARG: Argentina, URU: Uruguay



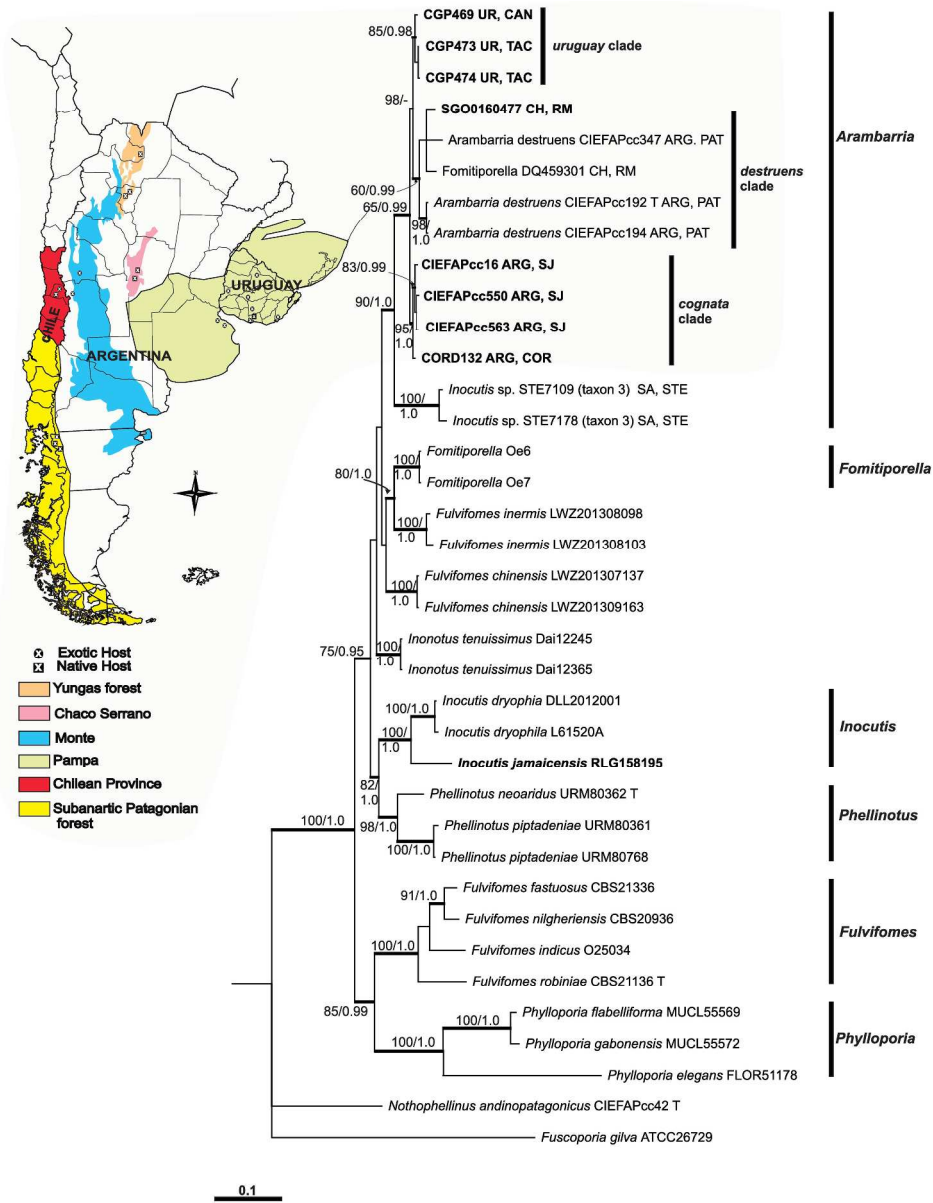
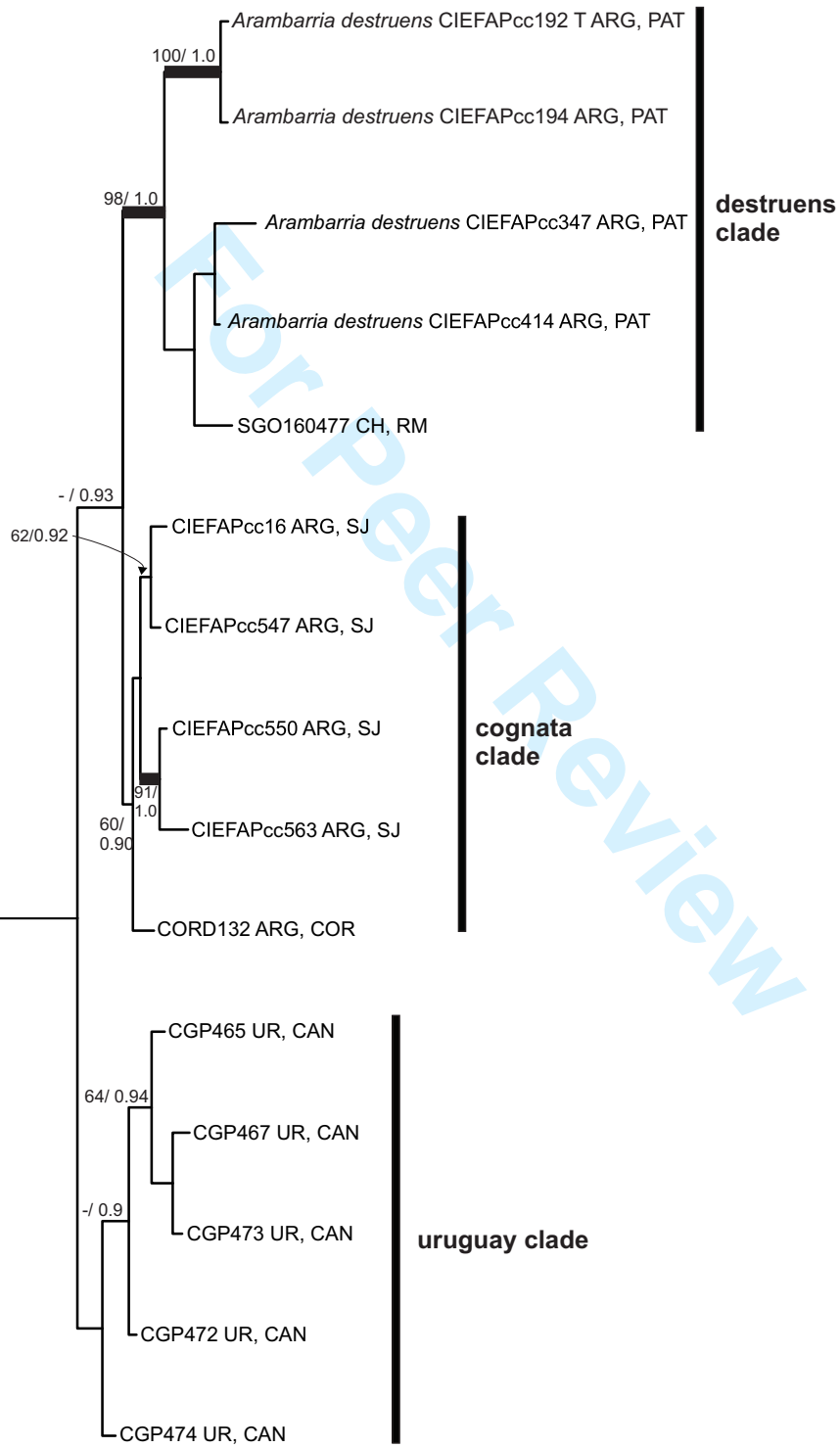


Fig. 1. Phylogenetic relationships of Arambarria inferred from ITS and LSU sequences via maximum likelihood (ML) and Bayesian (BA). Thick vertical black bars shows the root branch for the specific lineage indicated by the adjacent label. Thick branches in bold are supported by bootstrap value greater than 60% (ML) and 0.9 (BPP). PAT, Patagonia; SJ, San Juan; ARG, Argentina; CH, Chile; SA, South Africa; UR, Uruguay; USA United States of America; TAC, Tacuarembó; CAN, Canelones; STE, Stellenbosch. Sequences in bold were generated in this study. T, sequences obtained from the genus type species.

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*Fomitiporia punctata* MUCL34101  
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Table 2. Concise basidiospores size variation in specimens from different clades.

<i>Arambarria cognata</i> clades	Spore size range ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	Q variation
destruens	5.69-6.71 $\times$ 3.92-4.96	1.36-1.40
cognata	5.75-6.74 $\times$ 3.83-4.90	1.40-1.47
uruguay	5.88-7.12 $\times$ 3.94-4.48	1.52-1.63

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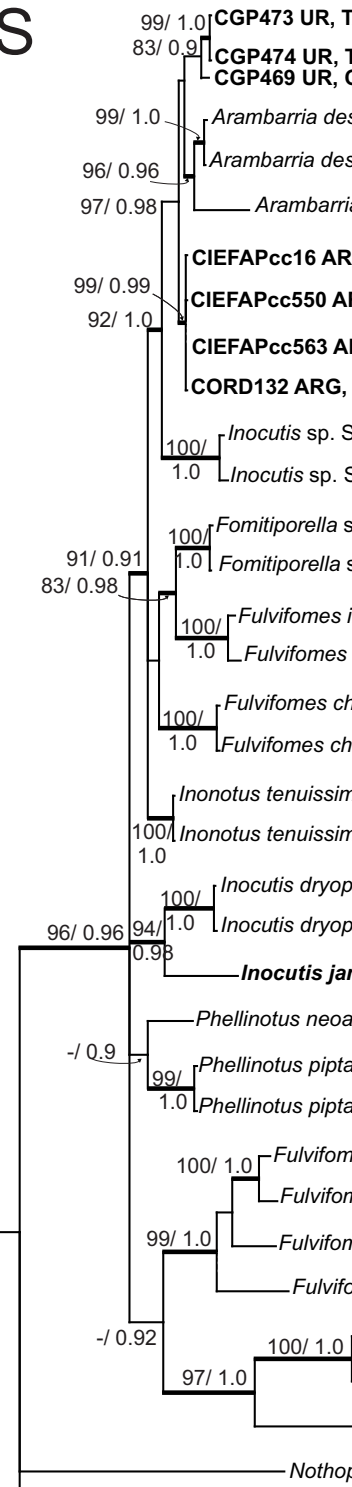
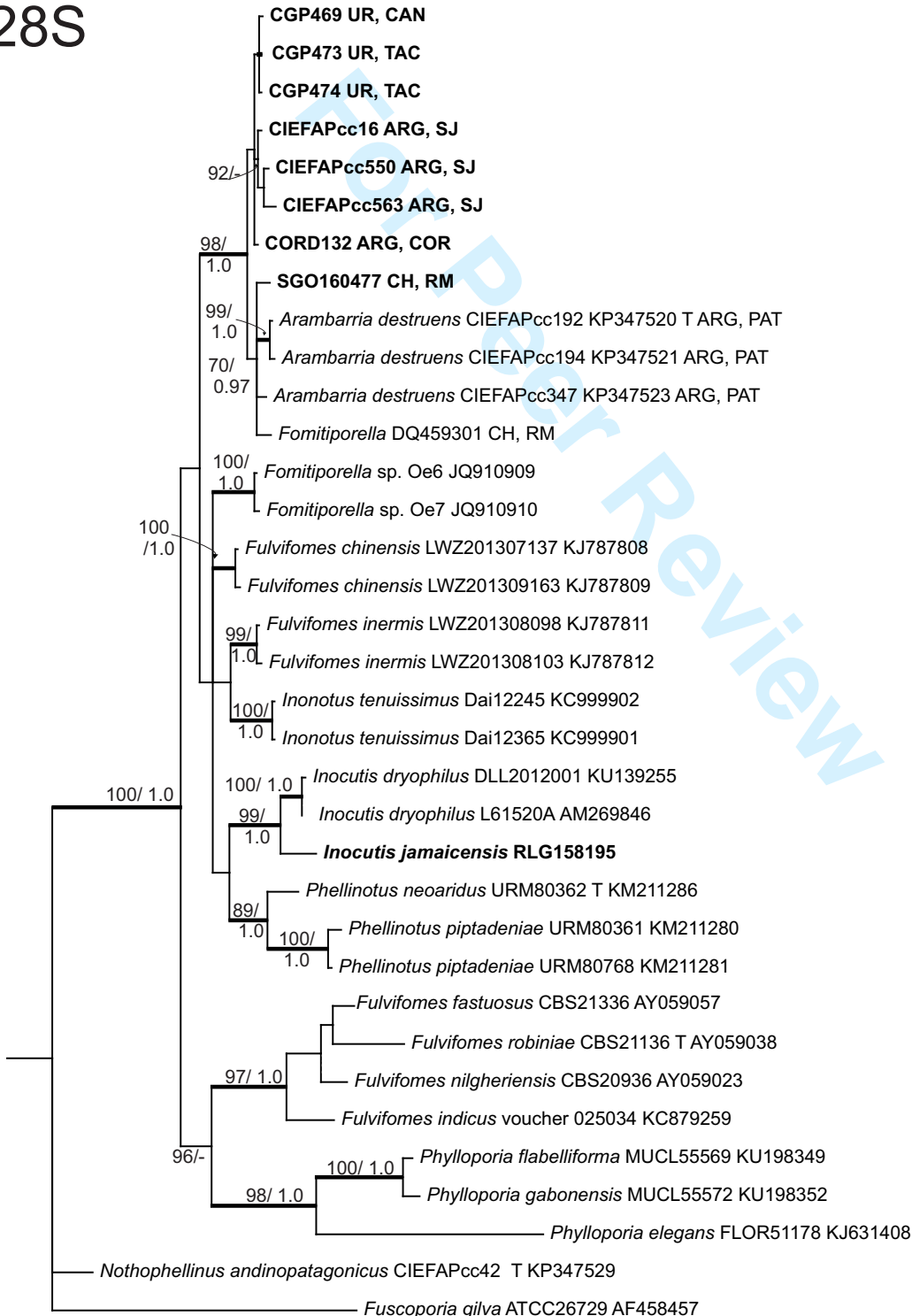
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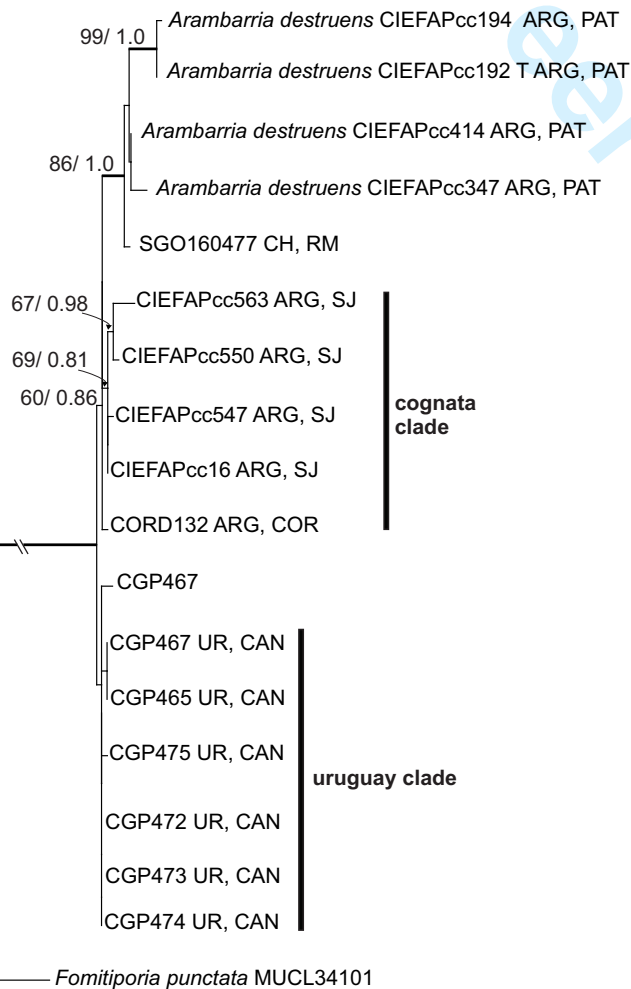


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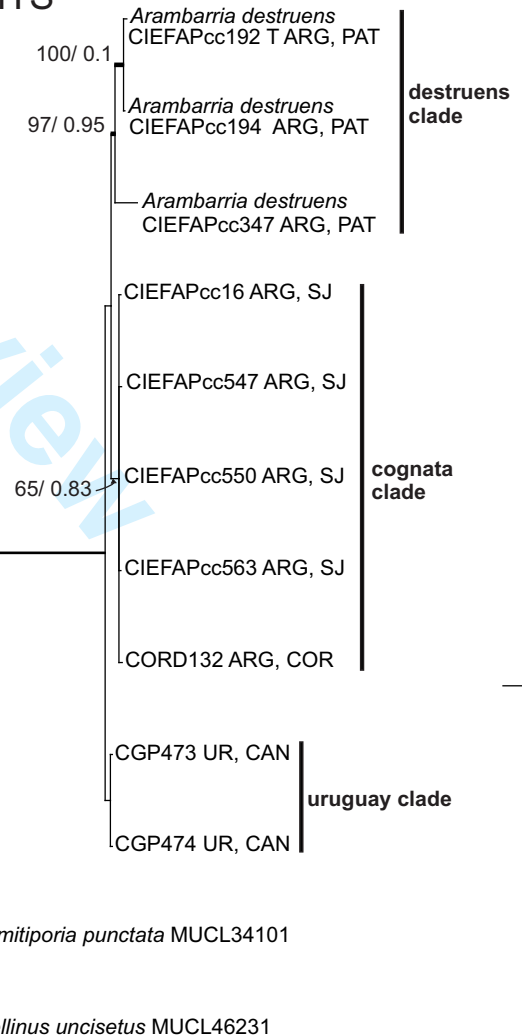
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