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Tesis doctoral

**La expansión de *Brachypodium rupestre* en el Pirineo occidental:
Hongos endófitos y pérdida de servicios ecosistémicos**

***The expansion of *Brachypodium rupestre* in western Pyrenees:
Fungal endophytes and loss of ecosystem services***

María Durán Lázaro

**Memoria presentada para optar al grado de
Doctora en Agrobiología Ambiental con Mención Internacional**

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20 HACEN CONSTAR:
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24 Que el trabajo descrito en la presente memoria, titulado: "La expansión de *Brachypodium*
25 *rupestre* en el Pirineo occidental: Hongos endófitos y pérdida de servicios ecosistémicos" que presenta
26 Dña. **María Durán Lázaro** para optar al título de Doctora con mención de "Doctora Internacional", ha
27 sido desarrollado bajo su dirección en el Área de Producción Vegetal del Departamento de Agronomía,
28 Biotecnología y Alimentación de la Universidad Pública de Navarra y reúne todos los requisitos
29 necesarios para su defensa.
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- 45 Los resultados obtenidos en esta tesis han sido presentados en las siguientes publicaciones y congresos:
46
- 47 **Durán, M.**, San Emeterio, L., Canals, R.M., 2021. Comparison of culturing and metabarcoding methods to describe
48 the fungal endophytic assemblage of *Brachypodium rupestre* growing in a range of anthropized
49 disturbance regimes. *Biology* 10, 1246. doi: 10.3390/biology10121246
- 50 **Durán, M.**, San Emeterio, L., Múgica, L., Zabalgogea, I., Vázquez de Aldana, B.R., Canals, R.M., 2021.
51 Disruption of traditional grazing and fire regimes shape the fungal endophyte assemblages of the tall-
52 grass *Brachypodium rupestre*. *Frontiers in Microbiology* 12:679729. doi:10.3389/fmicb.2021.679729
- 53 **Durán, M.**, Canals, R.M., Sáez, J.L., Ferrer, V., Lera-López, F., 2020. Disruption of traditional land use regimes
54 causes an economic loss of provisioning services in high-mountain grasslands. *Ecosystem services* 46
55 101200. doi:10.1016/j.ecoser.2020.101200
- 56 **Durán, M.**, Canals, R.M., San Emeterio, L., Múgica, L., Ibarrola, A., 2021. Especies en expansión favorecidas por
57 el Cambio Global y sus efectos en los servicios Ecosistémicos de aprovisionamiento. 8º Congreso Forestal
58 Español, Lleida (España) 20-24 Septiembre 2021
- 59 Ibarrola, A., Múgica, L., San Emeterio, L., **Durán, M.**, Canals, R.M., Saez, J.L., Echeverría, L., Lizarza, J., Goñi, M.,
60 Gárriz, I., Sarriés, V., Cittadini, A., Insausti, K., 2021. Open2Preserve: Modelo de gestión sostenible para la
61 preservación de espacios abiertos de montaña. 8º Congreso Forestal Español, Lleida (España) 20-24
62 Septiembre 2021
- 63 **Durán, M.**, Canals, R.M., Múgica, L., Jiménez, J.J., San Emeterio, L., 2021. Invasive behaviour of a native tall-grass
64 in mountain grasslands: Linking plant and soil spatial patterns. Eurosoil Congress 2021, Geneve
65 (Switzerland) 23-27 August 2021
- 66 San Emeterio, L., Múgica, L., **Durán, M.**, Ibarrola, A., Canals, R.M., 2021. Preserving soil function while using pyric
67 herbivory to maintain high-valuable open landscapes: The Open2Preserve Project. Eurosoil Congress
68 2021, Geneve (Switzerland) 23-27 August 2021
- 69 **Durán, M.**, Canals, R.M., 2019. Proyecto Open2preserve: Modelo de gestión sostenible para la preservación de
70 los paisajes abiertos de montaña. 3rd International colloquium on climate change in mountain areas.
71 Pyradapt, Jaca (Spain) 22-23 October 2019
- 72 **Durán, M.**, San Emeterio, L., Múgica, L., Canals, R.M., 2019. Mycobiome diversity of *Brachypodium rupestre* from
73 high and low diverse grasslands. 4th International *Brachypodium* Conference, Huesca (Spain) 25-28 June
74 2019.
- 75 Canals, R. M., **Durán, M.**, Múgica, L., San Emeterio, L., 2019. Formando futuras investigadoras: introduciendo la
76 ciencia ecológica y ambiental al mundo escolar. *Ecosistemas*, 28(2), 116-119. doi:10.7818/ECOS.1794
- 77 **Durán, M.**, Canals, R.M., 2018. Preliminary study on the patterns of *Epichloë* infection in some grasses of high
78 mountain diverse and degraded grasslands. 10th International Symposium on Fungal Endophytes of
79 grasses, Salamanca (Spain) 18-21 June 2018
- 80 Terrádez, J., Arauzo, I., Canals, R.M., **Durán, M.**, Puig, J., 2018. Agropastoralismo de montaña. OPCC-CTP, El
81 cambio climático en los Pirineos: impactos, vulnerabilidades y adaptación. ISBN: 978-84-09-06268-3
- 82 **Durán, M.**, Canals, R.M., San Emeterio, L., Ferrer, V., Múgica, L., 2017. Grassland ecosystems vulnerability to
83 invasions under Global Change. 2nd International colloquium on climate change in mountain areas.
84 Pyradapt, Biarritz (France) 7-8 November 2017

86 El compendio de artículos en los que María Durán Lázaro ha participado como integrante del
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INVESTIGACIONES PARALELAS A LA REALIZACIÓN DE LA TESIS

Plant-herbivory feedbacks and selective allocation of a toxic metal are behind the stability of degraded covers dominated by *Brachypodium pinnatum* in acidic soils

Canals, R.M., San Emeterio, L., **Durán, M.** and Múgica, L.

Soil bacterial functional diversity mirrors the loss of plant diversity by the expansion of a native tall-grass in high mountain grasslands

Canals, R.M., Múgica, L., **Durán, M.** and San Emeterio, L.

**Formando futuras investigadoras:
Introduciendo la ciencia ecológica y ambiental al mundo escolar**

Canals, R.M., **Durán, M.**, Múgica, L. y San Emeterio, L.

Relating the spatial distribution of a tall-grass to fertility islands in a temperate mountain grassland.

San Emeterio, L., **Durán, M.**, Múgica, L. Jiménez, J.J. and Canals, R.M.

INVESTIGACIÓN DOCTORAL

Capítulo 1: Disruption of traditional land use regimes causes an economic loss of provisioning services in high-mountain grasslands

Durán, M., Canals, R.M., Ferrer, V., Sáez, J.L. and Lera-López, F.

Capítulo 2: Disruption of traditional grazing and fire regimes shape the fungal Endophyte Assemblages of the tall-grass *Brachypodium rupestre*

Durán, M., San Emeterio, L., Múgica, L., Zabalgogea, I., Vázquez de Aldana, B.R. and Canals, R.M.

Capítulo 3: Comparison of culturing and metabarcoding methods to describe the fungal endophytic assemblage of *Brachypodium rupestre* growing in a range of anthropized disturbance regimes

Durán, M., San Emeterio, L. and Canals, R.M.

INVESTIGACIONES EN CURSO

Efecto de las quemadas recurrentes en la **biología reproductiva** de *Brachypodium rupestre* en pastos pirenaicos

Diversidad genética de las poblaciones de *Brachypodium rupestre* en el valle de Aezkoa

Colaboración BIOFLORA:
Estudio genómico y taxonómico del grupo:
B. pinnatum* - *B. rupestre* - *B. genuense

92 María Durán Lázaro ha sido beneficiaria de una de las “Ayudas de nueva solicitud para la
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113 - Libera 2017, SEO y Ecoembes - Apadrinamiento de espacios naturales. La degradación de los
114 ecosistemas pascícolas de la Selva de Irati: Comportamiento invasivo de especies endémicas bajo
115 condiciones de cambio global.

116
117
118
119 - Libera 2018, SEO y Ecoembes - Apadrinamiento de espacios naturales. La degradación de los
120 ecosistemas pascícolas: ZEC Roncesvalles-Selva de Irati.

121
122
123
124 - Proyecto de investigación en centros escolares (Gobierno de Navarra, 2018). Formando futuras
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170

171

172 “Que tus pies te lleven donde tu corazón te llame...”

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... y mis pies me llevaron a las montañas”

176

RESUMEN

177

178 Los ecosistemas pascícolas son uno de los biomas terrestres más extensos y diversos del planeta.
179 El hombre los ha gestionado y moldeado con el principal objetivo de abastecerse de alimento, pero el
180 resto de bienes que nos proporcionan (materiales, medicamentos, agua, etc.) y los procesos en los que
181 están implicados (regulación del aire y el agua, biodiversidad animal y vegetal, valor paisajístico, etc.)
182 se engloban en lo que actualmente se conoce como servicios ecosistémicos.

183 La distribución primigenia de los ecosistemas pascícolas ha dependido esencialmente del clima,
184 pero también del régimen de perturbaciones dominante en cada momento de la historia del planeta.
185 Desde tiempos prehistóricos, las grandes manadas de herbívoros salvajes junto a los regímenes
186 naturales de incendios contribuyeron a la creación y el mantenimiento de estas comunidades
187 vegetales. Gradualmente, el hombre fue adquiriendo el control de la gestión del territorio. Los
188 herbívoros domesticados adquirieron el rol de las grandes manadas y los incendios naturales pasaron
189 a ser quemadas controladas por la mano del hombre enfocadas a frenar los procesos de matorralización
190 y forestación.

191 Los ecosistemas pascícolas que quedaron enclavados en las zonas más altas de las montañas
192 han dado lugar a comunidades florísticas de alta diversidad condicionadas por el clima y el estrecho y
193 ancestral vínculo que han mantenido los humanos y la gestión de la ganadería. La población del valle
194 de Aezkoa, situado en el Pirineo navarro, mantiene un tradicional sistema productivo basado en la
195 ganadería extensiva. Los animales son trasladados durante el periodo estival a las zonas altas de pastos
196 dónde obtienen un alimento natural, de excelente calidad y bajo coste. La gestión sostenible de estos
197 pastos mantiene un paisaje en mosaico (conjunto de zonas arboladas, de matorral y herbáceas) de alto
198 valor ambiental y paisajístico. Con el objetivo de protegerlo y conservarlo, en el año 2011, se declaró
199 la zona ZEC Roncesvalles-Selva de Irati. La calidad de sus pastos y su posición fronteriza con el vecino
200 valle francés del Cize ha favorecido un uso conjunto de los mismos a través de acuerdos ancestrales
201 que perduran hasta nuestros días, en lo que se conocen como facerías.

202 Las transformaciones a gran escala promovidas por el cambio global también afectan a la
203 socioeconomía de las áreas remotas de montaña. El despoblamiento de las zonas rurales, el
204 envejecimiento de su población y la reducción o los cambios de gestión del sector primario se han visto
205 reflejados en un drástico descenso del número de animales pastantes. La desaparición de esta
206 perturbación consumidora de biomasa favorece la acumulación de biomasa leñosa y herbácea. A su
207 vez, en algunas áreas, los ganaderos que quedan en activo tienden a incrementar el uso del fuego
208 como herramienta suplementaria para eliminar esta acumulación de biomasa. Esta alteración de los
209 regímenes tradicionales de fuego y pastoreo tiene un efecto directo en la composición florística de las
210 cubiertas vegetales. Concretamente en el valle de Aezkoa se ha desencadenado una importante
211 pérdida de biodiversidad florística ligada a procesos de matorralización dominados por la especie *Ulex*
212 *gallii* y a la expansión de los lastonares, cubiertas herbáceas dominadas por la gramínea perenne
213 *Brachypodium rupestre*.

214 *B. rupestre*, junto a *B. pinnatum* y *B. genuense*, son especies autóctonas de la región euroasiática
215 que forman parte integrante de los pastos calcáreos. La alteración de las condiciones abióticas del
216 medio en el que se desarrollan y, principalmente, el cese de las actividades ganaderas que limitan su
217 desarrollo, ha favorecido su expansión a lo largo de todo el continente europeo. La expansión de este
218 grupo de especies genera densas cubiertas herbáceas de escasa calidad pascícola, baja diversidad
219 florística y alta persistencia temporal, en lo que se conoce como un estado estable alternativo
220 (*alternative stable state*).

221 En los pastos de puerto del valle de Aezkoa coexisten cubiertas de baja diversidad florística

222 dominadas por *B. rupestre* y sometidas a regímenes de quemas recurrentes con presencia residual de
223 ganado, junto con cubiertas de alta diversidad florística óptimamente pastadas y con baja periodicidad
224 de quemas. Estos distintos estados son un escenario perfecto para evaluar la alteración de los sistemas
225 biológicos debido a los cambios que acontecen en el actual contexto de cambio global.

226 En esta tesis se plantean dos líneas de investigación que han quedado recogidas en los tres
227 trabajos científicos que la conforman:

228 Capítulo 1) La primera línea de investigación desarrolla un modo de cuantificar económicamente
229 la pérdida del servicio ecosistémico de aprovisionamiento ligado a la expansión de *B. rupestre*, con el
230 objetivo de sensibilizar a los sectores implicados y fomentar acciones medioambientales dirigidas a
231 promover la conservación de los pastos de montaña, ecosistemas ambiental y económicamente
232 valiosos. Para ello, se realizó una adaptación del método de valoración económica por sustitución y se
233 llevaron a cabo inventarios florísticos en cubiertas de alta y baja diversidad florística. El registro de
234 estos datos nos permitió generar unos valores pastorales transformables en cantidad de forraje
235 disponible para los animales, tras un detallado cálculo de la superficie viable de ser pastada (200,05 ha
236 tras excluir las zonas con grandes pendientes). Con censos de animales y con información detallada y
237 exhaustiva del consumo de energía que tiene cada tipo de animal que pasta las estivas del valle (ovejas,
238 vacas y caballos) se determinaron las raciones de alimento necesarias en una temporada de pastoreo
239 estival (50007 raciones) y su coste monetario (21146€; 107€/ha). De este modo, se estimó el coste que
240 supone la pérdida del valor de aprovisionamiento debido a la expansión de *B. rupestre* y que va ligado
241 en este caso a la pérdida de riqueza y diversidad florística de las comunidades vegetales que lo
242 constituyen.

243 Capítulo 2 y 3) La segunda línea de investigación engloba dos trabajos en los que se caracteriza
244 la desconocida comunidad de hongos endófitos de individuos de *B. rupestre* desarrollándose en
245 comunidades de alta y baja diversidad florística. El estudio de los microorganismos en su ambiente
246 natural es una disciplina relativamente nueva, dado que su interés se ha centrado tradicionalmente en
247 las enfermedades que afectan a los humanos, los animales o las plantas. Sin embargo, los grandes
248 avances tecnológicos y científicos de las últimas décadas nos están permitiendo conocer su altísima
249 diversidad y las complejas redes ecológicas en las que están involucrados. El conocimiento sobre los
250 hongos endófitos, que crecen en el interior de casi todas las plantas sin desarrollar enfermedades, está
251 demostrando numerosas ventajas adaptativas que estos pueden llegar a conferir a su huésped ante
252 numerosas situaciones de estrés (salinidad, herbivorismo, patógenos, etc.).

253 En el primer trabajo se aplicó el método tradicional de cultivo para la identificación de hongos
254 endófitos. Esta metodología consiste en depositar pequeños fragmentos de planta, previo proceso de
255 esterilización de su superficie, sobre un medio de cultivo apropiado donde va creciendo el micelio de
256 los hongos presentes en su interior. Este micelio es cuidadosamente aislado y clasificado en base a sus
257 características morfológicas (color, textura, tasa de crecimiento, etc.). Una vez aislado el micelio de
258 cada especie se procede a realizar la extracción de su ADN y la replicación de su región ITS completa
259 (ITS1-5.8s-ITS2). Este material genético es enviado a una empresa especializada en la secuenciación de
260 ADN. Tras la recepción del código genético, la secuencia se contrasta en bases de datos para su
261 clasificación taxonómica (NCBI y UNITE). Los resultados más relevantes pusieron de manifiesto la
262 enorme importancia de caracterizar las comunidades de los diferentes tejidos de la planta por
263 separado, en el caso de *B. rupestre* se seleccionaron los tejidos de la vaina, el rizoma y la raíz. Cada uno
264 de ellos arrojó comunidades endofíticas muy diferentes, principalmente entre el tejido aéreo (vainas) y
265 los dos tejidos subterráneos (rizoma y raíz). Respecto a la alteración de la composición florística por el
266 efecto del desacoplamiento de los regímenes de fuego y pastoreo, este primer trabajo no indicó
267 diferencias significativas entre la riqueza y diversidad fúngica de las plantas recolectadas en ambas
268 cubiertas. Sin embargo, sí se observó la alteración de la incidencia de algunas especies endofíticas.
269 Concretamente, *Omnidempus graminis* en el tejido de la vaina y *Lachnum* sp. en el tejido de la raíz

270 fueron significativamente más aisladas en las plantas recolectadas en las zonas de baja diversidad
271 florística.

272 La caracterización endofítica de *B. rupestre* fue complementada con un segundo trabajo en el
273 que se aplicó el método de *metabarcoding*. Esta novedosa técnica de secuenciación masiva analiza
274 todo el ADN fúngico de una muestra, permitiendo la identificación de especies no cultivables. A pesar
275 de su interés, es una técnica de alto coste económico, lo que influye en el tamaño muestral de los
276 estudios que se realizan en la actualidad. Como en el primer trabajo, se recolectaron plantas de
277 cubiertas de alta y baja diversidad florística. Además, de los mismos individuos que se enviaron al
278 estudio de *metabarcoding*, se realizó el aislamiento de endófitos mediante el cultivo tradicional, con
279 el objetivo de comparar los resultados de la caracterización con ambos métodos.

280 Ambas técnicas fueron capaces de detectar las tendencias de la riqueza y diversidad endofítica,
281 en los tejidos (raíz > rizoma > vaina) y cubiertas analizadas (baja diversidad > alta diversidad florística)
282 pero tan sólo el poder cuantitativo del *metabarcoding* permitió realizar una caracterización más
283 completa. Este último análisis sí arrojó disimilitudes entre la comunidad endofítica del tejido de las
284 raíces de ambos tipos de cubiertas. A pesar de las aparentes ventajas que parecen tener las técnicas
285 de secuenciación masiva frente al cultivo tradicional, encontramos el gran escollo de una enorme y
286 desconocida diversidad fúngica todavía sin clasificación, o clasificada a niveles taxonómicos altamente
287 inclusivos. En este punto, la especie endofita más aislada del tejido aéreo, *Omnidemptus graminis*, no
288 fue detectada por el *metabarcoding*, evidenciando las carencias aún existentes de este tipo de
289 técnicas.

290 El conjunto de datos obtenidos por ambas metodologías nos permitió saber que la comunidad
291 endofítica de *B. rupestre* en los pastos de Aezkoa está formado por unas pocas especies comunes y
292 abundantes, y un numeroso grupo de especies raras o poco frecuentes. Los principales taxones que
293 componen el micobioma de los tejidos subterráneos de *B. rupestre* pertenecen a las familias
294 Hyaloscyphaceae, Mollisiaceae y Helotiaceae y los géneros más representativos fueron *Lachnum* sp.,
295 *Albotricha* sp., *Mollisia* sp., *Phialocephala* sp. y *Glarea* sp. La acertada caracterización de los diferentes
296 tejidos por separado, nos permitió conocer las grandes diferencias existentes entre la escasa
297 diversidad del tejido vegetal aéreo, la intermedia diversidad del tejido conector del rizoma y la alta
298 diversidad que albergan las raíces. Algunas especies mostraron tendencia a ser más abundantes en
299 plantas de una cubierta concreta. Este tipo de alteración puede estar evidenciando la variación de la
300 diversidad florística ligada al desajuste de los regímenes de fuego y pastoreo, pudiendo existir
301 perturbaciones que favorecen la incidencia de unas especies sobre otras. Los efectos de este
302 incremento y el rol que pueden estar jugando en el proceso expansivo de *B. rupestre* necesitarán ser
303 más profundamente estudiados en futuras investigaciones.

304 **ABSTRACT**

305

306 Grassland ecosystems are one of the most expanded and diverse terrestrial biomes on Earth.
307 Humans have managed and shaped them with the main aim of providing food for domestic herbivores,
308 but grasslands also provide other goods and are involved in many processes (air and water regulation,
309 animal and plant diversity, etc.). Currently, these set of goods are called ecosystem services.

310 The primitive distribution of grassland ecosystems depended on the climate and on the
311 dominant disturbances prevailing at each moment of the planet history. Since prehistory, large herds
312 of wild herbivores and natural fire regimes contributed to the creation and maintenance of grasslands.
313 Gradually, humans took control of landscape management and domesticated herbivores replaced wild
314 herds and natural fires became human-controlled burns.

315 In high-mountain areas, natural grasslands are highly conditioned by the cold climate and by the
316 ancestral management based on the use of pastures by domestic herbivores during the summer
317 season. In the Aezkoa valley, located in the south-western Pyrenees, a traditional production system
318 based on an extensive livestock farming is still occurring. Animals are moved to uplands during the
319 summer period where they obtain natural, high-quality and low-cost food. Due to the location of the
320 grassland surfaces, close to the French border, a shared grazing regime occurs with the neighbouring
321 Cize valley based on an ancestral agreement called *faceria*. This historical sustainable management
322 maintains a mosaic landscape composed by forest, shrublands and natural grasslands with high
323 environmental value. In order to preserve it, the zone was declared Special Area of Conservation (SAC
324 Roncesvalles-Selva de Irati) in 2011.

325 The transformations related to the global change also affect the socioeconomy of the remote
326 mountain areas. The depopulation and ageing of the rural zones and the changes occurring in the
327 primary sector have led to a drastic decrease of the number of grazing animals. The decline of grazing
328 favours the accumulation of woody and herbaceous biomass. In some situations, fuels build-ups
329 encourage farmers and stakeholders to use controlled burnings at a high recurrence (every 1-2 years)
330 to reduce fuel loads. The decoupling of traditional fires (bush-to-bush, high time lapses) and grazing
331 regimes has a direct effect on the floristic composition of grassland communities. Specifically, in the
332 Aezkoa valley, a significant loss of floristic diversity has been detected in relation to the shrub
333 encroachment by *Ulex gallii* and the expansion of herbaceous covers dominated by the perennial tall-
334 grass *Brachypodium rupestre*.

335 *B. rupestre*, *B. pinnatum* and *B. genuense* are native grasses in chalk grasslands of the Eurasian
336 region. The decline of livestock grazing, among other factors cited in the literature, has favoured their
337 spreading. This expansion generates grassland covers with low floristic diversity and low grazing
338 quality, that are very stable in time, which is known as an alternative stable state. This type of
339 degradative processes are found in some areas of the Aezkoa uplands, together with areas that
340 maintain high floristic diversity under an optimal grazing management and a low frequency of burns.
341 As a consequence, the area represents a perfect scenario for the study of the disruption of biological
342 systems related to global change.

343 This thesis encompasses two research lines comprised in three scientific papers:

344 Chapter 1) First chapter quantifies economically the loss of the provisioning service related to
345 the *B. rupestre* expansion, with the aim of raising awareness among stakeholders and promote
346 environmental actions for grassland restoration. For this purpose, we adapted the substitution
347 economic approach, that we based on field floristic surveys done in high-diversity and low-diversity
348 grasslands. The data collected allowed the estimation of the pastoral values, that were related to
349 energy values and eventually to animal feed rations (50007 rations). We estimated the available

350 surface for grazing (200.05 ha excluding steep slopes) and we compiled summer livestock censuses for
351 determining the energy needs of each type of animal (sheep, cows and horses). Eventually, we
352 estimated the economic cost of the loss of the provisioning service related to the *B. rupestre* expansion
353 (21146€; 107€/ha).

354 Chapter 2 and 3) The second line of research encompasses two papers that characterize the
355 fungal endophytic community of *B. rupestre* from plants developing in communities of high and low-
356 floristic diversity. The study of microorganisms in their natural environment is a new discipline,
357 considering that the research has usually focused on human, animal or plant diseases. The
358 technological and scientific advances in the last decades have broadened our knowledge on the high
359 diversity and the complex ecological networks in which they are involved. In particular, the study of
360 fungal endophytes, which grow inside plants without developing diseases, is demonstrating the
361 numerous adaptive advantages they confer to their host in different stressing situations (salinity,
362 herbivory, pathogens, etc.).

363 In the first chapter, the traditional culturing method was applied for the identification of fungal
364 endophytes. This methodology consists of plating small plant fragments, after surface sterilisation, on
365 an appropriate culture medium where the mycelium grows from the inside. The mycelium is carefully
366 isolated and classified according to its morphological characteristics (colour, texture, growth rate, etc.).
367 From the isolated mycelium, its DNA is extracted and the complete ITS (IT1-5.8S-ITS2) region is
368 replicated. The genetic material is sent to specialised enterprise for the DNA sequencing process. Then,
369 sequences are contrasted in databases for their taxonomic classification (NCBI and UNITE). Data
370 showed the importance of characterising the communities from the separately plant tissues (shoots,
371 rhizomes and roots). Each of them harboured different endophytic communities, particularly between
372 the aerial (shoot) and the underground tissues (rhizome and root). Regarding the disruption of the
373 floristic composition due to the effect of the decoupling of fire and grazing regimes, this first work did
374 not indicate significant differences between the richness and fungal diversity of the plants collected in
375 both type of covers. However, alterations in the incidence of some endophyte species were observed.
376 In particular, *Omnidemptus graminis* from the shoots and *Lachnum* sp. from the roots were
377 significantly more isolated in plants collected in low-diversity grasslands, and was related to the
378 disruption of the regime of disturbances and particularly, to the high burn recurrence occurring in
379 these grasslands.

380 The endophytic characterisation of *B. rupestre* was complemented with a second study that
381 aimed to compare the traditional culturing method with the novel metabarcoding techniques. The
382 massive sequencing technique analyses all fungal DNA of a sample, including the identification of non-
383 culturable species, however, the technique has a high economic cost, which influences the sample size.
384 As in the first study, plants were collected from high and low-diversity grasslands. Both methods were
385 able to detect trends in endophytic richness and diversity in the tissues (root > rhizome > shoot) and
386 type of cover (low-diversity > high-diversity grasslands) but the metabarcoding technique allowed a
387 higher identification of fungal species and detected significant differences in the endophytic
388 community of the roots in both type of covers. Despite the advantages that massive sequencing
389 techniques have on culturing methods, we find a great obstacle in the level of unknown and
390 unclassified sequences, or classified at highly inclusive taxonomic levels. In addition, the most isolated
391 endophyte from aerial tissues using the culturing method, *Omnidemptus graminis*, was not detected
392 by metabarcoding, demonstrating the current shortcomings of the novel technique.

393 Data obtained by both methods allowed us to know that the endophytic community of *B.*
394 *rupestre* in Aezkoa grasslands is composed by a few common and abundant species, and a large group
395 of rare species. The main taxa harbouring the mycobiome of the underground tissues of *B. rupestre*
396 belonged to the families Hyaloscyphaceae, Mollisiaceae and Helotiaceae and the most representative
397 genera were *Lachnum* sp., *Albotricha* sp., *Mollisia* sp., *Phialocephala* sp. and *Glarea* sp. The accurate

398 characterisation of the different tissues separately indicated the low diversity of the mycobiome of the
399 aerial tissue, the intermediate diversity of the rhizome and the high diversity of the roots mycobiome.

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INTRODUCCIÓN GENERAL

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557 1. Los ecosistemas pascícolas de montaña

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559 El conjunto de ecosistemas pascícolas distribuidos por todo el mundo representa uno de los
560 mayores biomas de la Tierra. Se estima que ocupan entre 41 y 56 millones de km², representan casi el
561 40% de la superficie terrestre (White y col., 2000; Sala y col., 2013) y son uno de los ecosistemas más
562 diversos y productivos del mundo (Wilson y col., 2012). En Europa, concretamente los pastos
563 permanentes (naturales o agrícolas, no sembrados durante diez o más años) ocupan alrededor de 60
564 millones de hectáreas (van den Pol-van Dasselaar y col., 2019; Eurostat, 2020), y una gran parte de
565 ellos se encuentran en zonas de montaña. Entre los pastos de montaña, los pastos de puerto son
566 cubiertas herbáceas naturales que pueden ubicarse entre los pisos alpino y montano y que se
567 caracterizan por una producción estacional, que se concentra en verano y es aprovechada de forma
568 extensiva por ganado trashumante o trasterminante (Ferrer, 2016).

569 La distribución de los pastos en Europa en los últimos 2,5 millones de años ha venido marcada
570 por la alternancia de periodos glaciales e interglaciales, por la influencia de la latitud y altitud en las
571 diferentes regiones y por la actividad de los herbívoros. Durante las glaciaciones, la tundra esteparia
572 dominaba Europa central y septentrional, mientras que los pastos xerotérmicos dominaban la cuenca
573 mediterránea (Van Andel y Tzedakis, 1996; Pärtel y col., 2005). Tras la última gran glaciación, hace
574 aproximadamente 12000-10000 años, las zonas boscosas fueron ampliándose a medida que las
575 condiciones climáticas se volvían más favorables para el crecimiento vegetal (Galop y Catto, 2014). Sin
576 embargo, numerosos enclaves permanecieron abiertos moldeados principalmente por el herbivorismo
577 y por los regímenes naturales de incendios (Svenning, 2002; Canals, 2019). El conjunto de comunidades
578 vegetales, muy diferentes entre sí, formó paisajes en mosaico (Remmert, 1991), compuestos por
579 pastos, matorrales y masas arboladas que evolucionaban en función de la recurrencia e intensidad de
580 las perturbaciones dominantes (Vera, 2000).

581 A medida que avanzaba el Holoceno, el hombre pasó a tener un papel más relevante en la
582 creación del paisaje, y especialmente a partir del Neolítico, por la presión que comenzó a ejercer en el
583 territorio. Las primeras sociedades de cazadores-recolectores evolucionaron hacia sociedades
584 agrícolas-ganaderas ligadas a la domesticación de los herbívoros y al desarrollo de la agricultura
585 (Hofmann, 1989; Canals, 2019). La distribución de los asentamientos humanos estuvo fuertemente
586 influenciada por el clima de cada región y los recursos que cada zona era capaz de proporcionar (Kelly
587 y col., 2013; Fernández-López de Pablo y col., 2019). Pese al frío clima, la población que quedó
588 asentada en las zonas altas de montaña supo aprovechar los recursos de los que disponía. Los
589 herbívoros domésticos fueron adquirieron las funciones de las grandes manadas de herbívoros salvajes
590 y los incendios naturales pasaron a ser quemadas controladas por la mano del hombre (Jones y Cushman,
591 2004; Savage, 2004). El fuego junto a la ganadería continúan siendo las principales perturbaciones que
592 promueven el mantenimiento de los espacios abiertos en todo el mundo (Anderson y Hoffman, 2007;
593 Leys y col., 2018).

594 La cordillera de los Pirineos, situada al norte de la península Ibérica, hace de frontera natural
595 entre España y Francia. A pesar de la compleja orografía de los valles que la conforman y de su clima
596 extremo, existen evidencias de actividad humana que se remontan a las primeras sociedades de
597 cazadores-recolectores al inicio del Holoceno (8800-6500 a.C.), y a las sociedades agrícolas-ganaderas
598 del Holoceno medio (5500-4500 a.C.) (Rius y col., 2012; Galop y Catto, 2014; Gassiot y col., 2014). En
599 la actualidad, el modo de vida de sus habitantes es una representación del ancestral vínculo que han
600 tenido los humanos, los herbívoros domesticados y las zonas de pasto como fuente natural de alimento
601 para estos (García-Ruiz y Lasanta, 2018).

602 Además del importante suministro de alimento que proporcionan, los ecosistemas pascícolas
603 contribuyen a la regulación de la calidad del aire y el agua, ofrecen espacios con una alta diversidad

604 genética de plantas y animales, proporcionan beneficios inmateriales por su alto valor paisajístico y
 605 son seña de identidad cultural de la población humana que allí se asienta, además de otros
 606 innumerables recursos y bienes (productos farmacéuticos, regulación de suelos y nutrientes,
 607 almacenamiento de carbono, etc.) (Bengtsson y col., 2019). Este conjunto de bienes y procesos que los
 608 ecosistemas proporcionan a los seres humanos quedó acuñado con el término de servicios
 609 ecosistémicos, los cuáles se clasificaron en cuatro grandes tipos: servicios de abastecimiento,
 610 regulación, apoyo y culturales (www.millenniumassessment.org). El aislamiento de algunos de estos
 611 espacios junto al legado que el uso humano ha ejercido en ellos ha contribuido a convertirlos en uno
 612 de los principales puntos calientes (*hotspots*) de biodiversidad del planeta (Wilson y col., 2012). Sin
 613 embargo, pese a la importancia económica y ambiental que supone su conservación, numerosos
 614 problemas los amenazan.

615

616 2. Problemáticas de los ecosistemas pascícolas en un mundo en cambio

617

618 El concepto de cambio global hace referencia al conjunto de transformaciones a gran escala
 619 producto de las actividades de origen antropogénico que afectan a nuestro planeta
 620 (<https://cambioglobal.uc.cl>). Además de los impactos sobre los sistemas biofísicos (atmósfera,
 621 recursos hídricos, suelos, biodiversidad, etc.) también se alteran los sistemas socioeconómicos, y la
 622 socioeconomía de las zonas montañosas no es ajena a estos cambios globales (García-Ruiz y col., 2015).
 623 La estrecha relación entre la población rural y los recursos naturales de los que disponen se está viendo
 624 alterada por el despoblamiento, el envejecimiento de la población, la reducción de trabajadores
 625 dedicados al sector primario y la modernización de la ganadería, encaminada a una mayor
 626 intensificación de las explotaciones que deciden continuar su actividad empresarial. Estos cambios
 627 socioeconómicos se han visto fuertemente reflejados en un descenso del número de animales
 628 pastantes en áreas de montaña. La desaparición de la acción que implicaba el consumo de biomasa
 629 por parte de estos herbívoros ha alterado la composición florística de los pastos favoreciendo la
 630 expansión de algunas especies y la acumulación de su biomasa (Lasanta y Vicente-Serrano, 2006;
 631 Bracchetti y col., 2012; Komac y col., 2013).

632 En algunas zonas del Pirineo, este descenso de animales ha motivado un aumento de la solicitud
 633 de quemas controladas con el objetivo de frenar la acumulación de biomasa no pastada. Su aplicación
 634 resulta un método rápido y eficaz para reducir esta acumulación de combustible (Montane y col., 2009;
 635 Fernández-Giménez y Fillat, 2012). Sin embargo, quemas tradicionalmente de pequeñas dimensiones,
 636 enfocadas a quemar arbustos pie a pie han dado lugar a numerosas quemas recurrentes de amplias
 637 extensiones de pastos con elevada acumulación de biomasa (San Emeterio y col., 2016; Múgica y col.,
 638 2021). Este desacople de los regímenes tradicionales de fuego y pastoreo promueve diferentes
 639 situaciones en la dinámica de los pastizales.

640 En primer lugar, el cese de las perturbaciones consumidoras de biomasa debería conducir la
 641 comunidad vegetal hacia sistemas matorralizados a corto plazo y arbolados a largo plazo (Clements,
 642 1936), sin embargo, esta dinámica evolutiva no parece ser la única opción del ecosistema (Chang y
 643 Turner, 2019). En algunas áreas se produce el establecimiento de densas cubiertas de matorral con
 644 baja capacidad de evolución hacia sistemas más desarrollados, como por ejemplo los dominados por
 645 la especie leñosa *Ulex gallii* (Múgica y col., 2018) o *Echinopartum horridum* (Komac y col., 2013). Por
 646 otro lado, encontramos cubiertas herbáceas en las que se han sustituido especies tolerantes al
 647 pastoreo por otras especies herbáceas con fuertes estrategias competitivas (Pardo y col., 2015), como
 648 *Agrostis curtisii* (Amezaga y col., 2004) o *Brachypodium rupestre* (Niedrist y col., 2009; Canals y col.,
 649 2017). En las peores situaciones, estas dos últimas opciones pueden llegar a establecer un estado
 650 estable alternativo no reversible o de compleja recuperación (Briske y col., 2005). La teoría de los

651 estados estables alternativos (*Alternative stable states*) trata de explicar como en un ecosistema
 652 sometido a las mismas condiciones bióticas y abióticas pueden establecerse comunidades vegetales
 653 que albergan conjuntos de especies diferentes, capaces de persistir en el tiempo. En ellas,
 654 perturbaciones, cambios graduales y la existencia de procesos de retroalimentación, pueden impulsar
 655 la estabilidad de uno de estos estados, limitando el desarrollo de otros más evolucionados (Scheffer y
 656 col., 2001; Pausas y Bond, 2020).

657

658 **2.1. El problema mundial de la expansión de gramíneas perennes altas**

659

660 En la zona centro de Norteamérica, se acuñó el término de “*tallgrass prairies*” a aquellas
 661 superficies de pasto dominadas por gramíneas de elevada altura como *Sorghastrum nutans*,
 662 *Andropogon gerardii*, *Schizachyrium scoparium* o *Panicum virgatum*, entre otras (Samson y Knopf,
 663 1994; Jones y Cushman, 2004). En la actualidad, el término “*tallgrass*” aglutina al grupo de gramíneas
 664 que tienden a dominar las cubiertas vegetales por la altura que son capaces de alcanzar, su expansión
 665 clonal, la acumulación de su propia biomasa y la capacidad de monopolizar los recursos del suelo (agua
 666 y nutrientes) y la luz (Wedin y Tilman, 1990; Burke y col., 1998; Grime, 2001). Sin embargo, podemos
 667 encontrarnos que, bajo determinadas circunstancias, especies autóctonas que forman parte natural
 668 del ecosistema sufren explosiones demográficas que les permite expandirse hacia nuevas áreas o
 669 dominar aquellas en las que ya estaban establecidas, ocasionando el desplazamiento de otras especies
 670 y generando una importante pérdida de diversidad florística, de manera similar al que siguen las
 671 especies invasoras exóticas (Valéry y col., 2009a). En la actualidad, los cambios del ambiente están
 672 principalmente relacionados con las actividades humanas, por ejemplo, la eutrofización, los cambios
 673 de usos del suelo, el calentamiento global, etc.

674 Este tipo de proceso degradativo se está observando en numerosas especies que ante
 675 situaciones de cambio en las condiciones del medio en el que se desarrollan, consiguen dominar la
 676 comunidad vegetal y desplazar al resto de especies (Veer y Kooijman, 1997; Valéry y col., 2009b; Pottier
 677 y Evette, 2010). En Europa por ejemplo, *Elymus athericus* y *Ammophila arenaria* en zonas costeras
 678 (Ketner-Oostra y Sýkora, 2004; Valéry y col., 2017) o *Arrhenatherum elatius* y *Calamagrostis epigejos*
 679 en pastos de la República Checa (Holub y col., 2012) y Hungría (Házi y col., 2011). Las fuertes estrategias
 680 competitivas que siguen estas especies para adaptarse al medio y sus rasgos funcionales determinan
 681 su potencial para establecerse y persistir bajo determinadas condiciones (Diaz y col., 1998; McIntyre y
 682 col., 1999; Grime, 2001).

683

684 **2.2. La expansión de especies del género *Brachypodium* sp. en Europa**

685

686 El género *Brachypodium* sp. está ampliamente distribuido por todo el mundo, y en Europa, es
 687 uno de los géneros con más representación de gramíneas altas. Contiene especies capaces de
 688 adaptarse a ambientes mediterráneos secos (*B. retusum*) y a zonas húmedas de sotobosque (*B.*
 689 *sylvaticum*). En los pastos calcáreos de Europa podemos encontrar las especies perennes *B. pinnatum*,
 690 *B. rupestre* y *B. genuense*. Gracias a los novedosos estudios de genética poblacional conocemos con
 691 más detalle la distribución de cada una de ellas, ya que sus diferencias morfológicas son mínimas y
 692 hasta hace poco su clasificación taxonómica variaba según el autor al que se consultase (Catalán y col.,
 693 2015). Mientras que *B. genuense* se clasificaba dentro de *B. pinnatum* (Valdés y Scholz, 2009), *B.*
 694 *rupestre* era considerada una subespecie de esta última (Aizpuru y col., 1999). Pese a la variabilidad
 695 genética que las separa, en todas ellas se observan patrones de expansión similares ligados al cese de
 696 las actividades ganaderas que limitaban su desarrollo (Poschlod y WallisDeVries, 2002). Tanto las

697 circunstancias abióticas que favorecen la expansión, así como sus características fisiológicas y
698 morfológicas han sido ampliamente estudiadas, y el compendio de resultados parece englobar
699 múltiples factores desencadenantes del proceso de su expansión (figura 1).

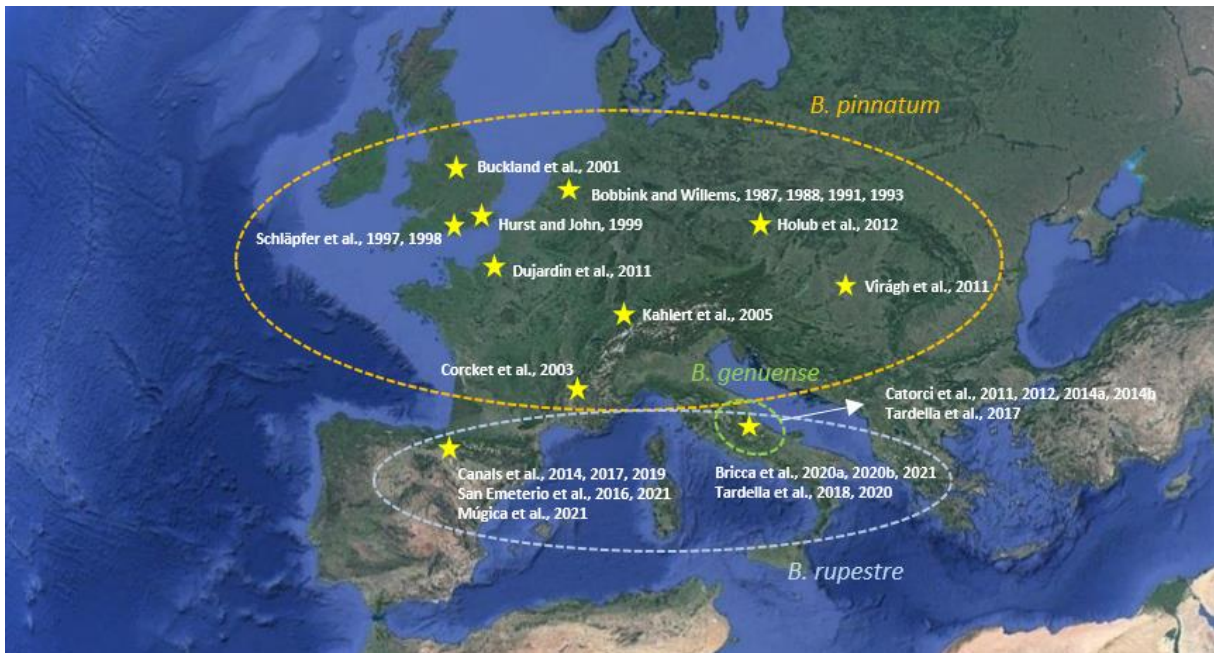
700 Las cubiertas que forman *B. pinnatum*, *B. rupestre* y *B. genuense* se caracterizan por una elevada
701 altura y densidad de sus macollas que llega a alcanzar un recubrimiento total del suelo. Tienen un
702 precoz y rápido rebrote primaveral, pudiendo registrar un nuevo rebrote otoñal condicionado por el
703 clima. Este rápido desarrollo hace que pierdan muy pronto su digestibilidad y el ganado evite
704 consumirlas (Peralta, 2010; Catorci y col., 2014a). Su fisiología les aporta una gran plasticidad que les
705 permite adaptarse a numerosas situaciones ambientales, como por ejemplo a variadas condiciones
706 lumínicas tanto de sombreado como de zonas altamente expuestas (Mojzes y col., 2003; Bąba y col.,
707 2016). La abundante biomasa de sus macollas les permite captar un alto porcentaje de luz, privando
708 de este recurso a las plantas que les rodean y favoreciendo que la acumulación de su propia biomasa
709 seca dificulte la colonización de otras especies (During y Willems, 1984). Otra importante característica
710 morfológica es la que le aporta la existencia de un potente rizoma que les permite almacenar
711 nutrientes (Bobbink y col., 1989; Pottier y Evette, 2010) y reproducirse vegetativamente, permitiendo
712 una estrategia reproductiva tanto sexual como asexual (de Kroon y Bobbink, 1997; Bąba y col., 2012).
713 En lo que respecta a la reproducción sexual, tienen una producción regular de semillas ligada a una
714 estrategia de colonización de territorios más distantes, mientras que la reproducción clonal va ligada
715 a una estrategia de expansión más limitada, a cambio de una disminución de la variabilidad genética
716 (Schläpfer, 1997).

717 Respecto a los cambios abióticos que podrían estar favoreciendo la expansión de estas especies,
718 Bobbink y Willems (1987) fueron pioneros en su estudio tras observar una fuerte expansión de *B.*
719 *pinnatum* en pastos de los Países Bajos, e intentaron comprender el mecanismo responsable de su
720 exitoso avance. Estos autores argumentaron que la expansión era debida al aumento de las
721 deposiciones atmosféricas de nitrógeno, ya que la planta es capaz de utilizar más eficazmente este
722 recurso que otras especies (Bobbink y col., 1988; Hurst y John, 1999). También se empezó a relacionar
723 su expansión con el abandono de los usos tradicionales del suelo (Bobbink y Willems, 1991, 1993;
724 Buckland y col., 2001) o la limitación de fósforo en estos (Davis y col., 2000). Schläpfer y Fischer (1998)
725 estudiaron como el frío clima del Reino Unido limitaba la expansión sexual de la especie, que podría
726 verse incrementada con el cambio climático al aumentar sus latitudes de expansión.

727 Los estudios más recientes que encontramos relacionados con la expansión de este grupo de
728 especies se han centrado en el Pirineo occidental (*B. rupestre*) y en los Apeninos centrales (figura 2).
729 La cordillera italiana tampoco es ajena a los actuales cambios socioeconómicos, y el abandono de la
730 gestión tradicional de esta zona rural promueve el avance de *B. rupestre* (Tardella y col., 2018, 2020;
731 Bricca y col., 2020a, 2020b, 2021), y de *B. genuense*, distribuida en zonas de mayor altitud (Catorci y
732 col., 2011, 2012, 2014b; Tardella y col., 2017).

733 Respecto a los trabajos realizados en el Pirineo navarro, estos han desvelado la capacidad de la
734 gramínea para aprovechar mejor determinadas fuentes de nitrógeno (NH_4^+) que se liberan tras las
735 quemas (Canals y col., 2014) o la eficiente redistribución de nutrientes entre sus tejidos vegetales a lo
736 largo de su desarrollo, junto a la eficaz barrera que la acumulación de su propia biomasa aérea y
737 subterránea puede suponer para el establecimiento de otras especies (Canals y col., 2017). También
738 se ha observado la alteración de ciertos parámetros del suelo en comparación con cubiertas de mayor
739 diversidad florística (riqueza y diversidad bacteriana, actividad ureasa, pH y nitratos) (Canals y col.,
740 2019), la ventaja competitiva que es capaz de alcanzar en detrimento del arbusto *Ulex gallii* cuando su
741 cobertura supera el 60% (Múgica y col., 2021) o como el continuado aporte de su propia biomasa al
742 suelo puede generar 'islas de fertilidad' en las que favorecer su propia estabilidad y expansión (San
743 Emeterio y col., 2021).

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Figura 1. Estudios europeos ligados con el proceso de expansión de especies perennes del género *Brachypodium* sp.

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A pesar de los concluyentes resultados que arrojan los estudios relacionados con la expansión de estas especies de *Brachypodium* sp. y el relevante papel de la ganadería para frenarla (Vitasović y col., 2011, 2014), resulta complejo transmitir estos conocimientos a los gestores del territorio que en la mayoría de los casos no son conscientes de la degradación ambiental que supone la expansión de esta gramínea.



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Figura 2. Aspecto de las zonas invadidas por *B. rupestre* en abril en el Pirineo occidental (izquierda y centro) y de *B. genuense* en julio en los Apeninos centrales (derecha).

757 3. La biodiversidad que no vemos

758

759 La pérdida de biodiversidad, relativamente fácil de apreciar en su composición florística, resulta
760 imperceptible a simple vista a otros niveles de organización biológica. En comparación con disciplinas
761 como la zoología o la botánica, el estudio de los microorganismos es una disciplina más reciente que
762 ha tenido un enfoque casi exclusivo hacia los microorganismos causantes de enfermedades. Sin
763 embargo, este enfoque ha sido considerablemente ampliado a otras muchas materias como la
764 agronomía o la biotecnología (Bud, 1991; Head y Prosser, 2007).

765 Respecto al estudio de los microorganismos en su ambiente natural, la ecología microbiana
766 parece ir desentramando las complejas redes e interacciones en las que los microorganismos están
767 implicados. Actualmente sabemos que la diversidad microbiana es la base de la dinámica de todos los
768 ecosistemas de la Tierra (Tikhonovich y Provorov, 2011). La alteración de los ciclos vitales en los que
769 están implicados (suelos, agua, atmósfera, etc.) puede tener imprevisibles consecuencias en los
770 ecosistemas. Para ello, es necesario ampliar los conocimientos científicos acerca de las especies
771 presentes en cada tipo de ecosistema, la interacción que tienen con el resto de organismos, el rol que
772 pueden estar desempeñando y su respuesta al cambio global.

773 El novedoso concepto de holobionte hace referencia al conjunto de microorganismos que hay
774 en el interior de un organismo huésped (Guerrero y col., 2013; Vandenkoornhuysen y col., 2015; Carthey
775 y col., 2019; Simon y col., 2019). Para una planta, este microbioma puede incluir hongos, bacterias,
776 virus y protistas, y desde hace décadas numerosos estudios reconocen la aportación que los
777 microorganismos generan en numerosas funciones ecológicas, ampliando la capacidad de la planta a
778 adaptarse a diferentes tipos de condiciones y situaciones de cambio ambiental. Concretamente, los
779 microorganismos fúngicos que albergan las plantas en su interior están cobrando una gran relevancia
780 en los últimos años (Rodríguez y col., 2009).

781

782 3.1. Los hongos endófitos

783

784 Casi todas las plantas albergan hongos en su interior. Se estima que la diversidad fúngica puede
785 alcanzar los 3,8 millones de especies, sin embargo, tan sólo unas 120.000 han sido descritas
786 (Hawksworth, 2001; Hawksworth y Lücking, 2017; Baldrian y col., 2021). Aunque el conocimiento de
787 los hongos ha estado muy enfocado en los hongos fitopatógenos por sus efectos dañinos en los
788 cultivos, muchos de ellos se desarrollan en el interior de las plantas sin producir síntomas de
789 enfermedad. Estos hongos endófitos llegan a forjar en algunos casos interacciones biológicas positivas
790 para ambos organismos (mutualismo) en la que principalmente la planta aporta alimento, hospedaje
791 y protección, mientras que las ventajas que el hongo aporta a la planta están siendo objeto de
792 interesantes estudios (Saikkonen y col., 1998, 2004; Arnold y col., 2003; Schardl y col., 2004; Schulz y
793 Boyle, 2005).

794 Esta interacción planta-hongo, aparentemente mutualista en el momento de su identificación,
795 puede pasar por diferentes etapas y no ser estática en el tiempo según el estado fisiológico, la
796 estrategia de supervivencia o la etapa de desarrollo en el que se encuentren ambos organismos.
797 Caracterizar la especie fúngica y averiguar su patrón de colonización, el nicho que tiende a ocupar en
798 la planta, el tipo de crecimiento inter o intracelular, o la especificidad de la infección en órganos
799 concretos (aéreos o subterráneos), nos puede permitir profundizar en el tipo de interacción ecológica
800 y la etapa en la que se encuentra: inicio de la infección, estado latente, colonización local, virulencia,
801 saprofitismo, colonización sistémica, etc. Conocer los detalles puede desvelar el momento evolutivo
802 en el que se encuentran, saber qué limita la colonización del hongo para no desarrollarse como una

803 enfermedad o la plasticidad del holobionte frente a la influencia de los factores externos (clima,
804 herbivorismo, fuego, etc.) (*endophytic continuum concept*, Schulz y Boyle, 2005).

805 La mayoría de los trabajos se centran en los hongos endófitos de la familia Clavicipitaceae que
806 crecen de forma sistémica en numerosas gramíneas y se dispersan por transmisión vertical
807 colonizando las semillas (Bacon y col., 1977). El increíble desarrollo que ha tenido el estudio de esta
808 familia (Schardl y col., 2014; Soto-Barajas y col., 2018), principalmente el del género *Epichloë* (o
809 *Neotyphodium* en su estadio anamorfo) han permitido dar a conocer las ventajosas adaptaciones que
810 pueden llegar a conferir a su huésped frente a numerosos estreses bióticos y abióticos como pueden
811 ser la tolerancia a la sequía (Malinowski y col., 1997; Malinowski y Belesky, 2000; Zabalgoeazcoa y
812 col., 2003), a la salinidad (Pereira y col., 2019), al herbivorismo (Brem y Leuchtman, 2001; Clay y
813 Schardl, 2002), etc. El desarrollo de estos y otros numerosos estudios está teniendo una importante
814 repercusión en las ciencias agronómicas relacionadas con la mejora de los cultivos (Williams y col.,
815 2007; Hume y Sewell, 2014).

816 El estudio de los hongos endófitos no sistémicos no ha desarrollado un recorrido tan largo, y sus
817 funciones y roles son desconocidos en la mayoría de los casos (Saikkonen y col., 1998). Sin embargo,
818 su estudio se está ampliando y en la actualidad también son objeto de interesantes trabajos (Rodríguez
819 y Redman, 2008; Zabalgoeazcoa, 2008). Desde un punto de vista evolutivo, su alta diversidad en el
820 interior de un mismo hospedador, unido al hecho de tener una transmisión horizontal, puede estar
821 más relacionado con interacciones antagónicas, en lugar de simbióticas, teniendo la planta que
822 defenderse para mantener la infección fúngica por debajo de un determinado umbral (Schulz y Boyle,
823 2005). En contraste con esta posible teoría, otros autores creen que las interacciones evolutivas y la
824 ubicuidad del endofitismo podrían compensar los costes de la heterotrofía desempeñando funciones
825 positivas en la planta (Yuan y col., 2010). A pesar de la escasez de estudios de hongos no sistémicos,
826 poco a poco van saliendo a la luz interacciones positivas y ventajas adaptativas similares a las
827 conferidas por los endófitos sistémicos en relación a la tolerancia a estreses bióticos y abióticos
828 (Redman y col., 2002; Arnold y Lewis, 2005; Saikkonen y col., 2010; Sánchez-Márquez y col., 2012).

829

830 **3.2. Técnicas de identificación de hongos endófitos**

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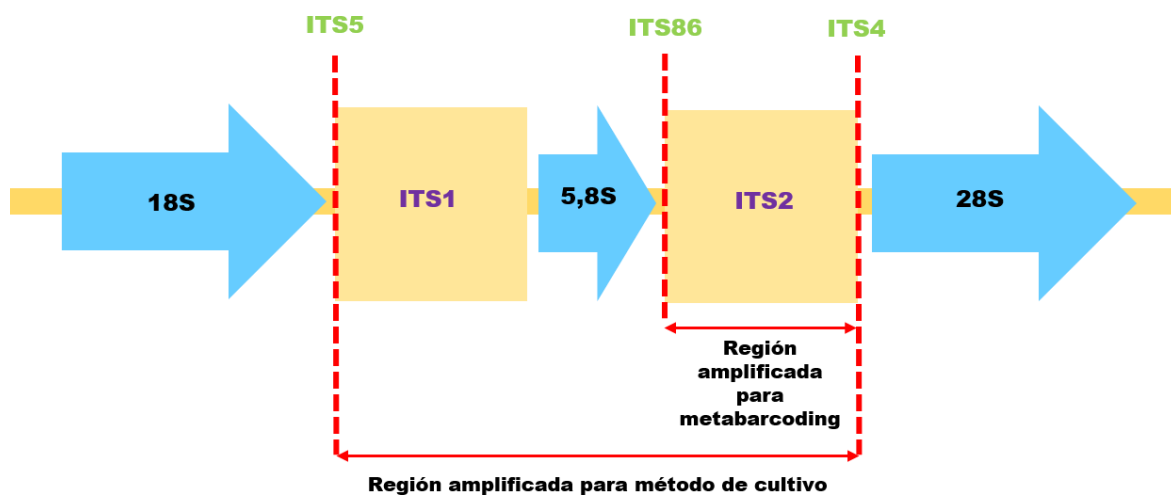
832 Hoy en día, diversas técnicas permiten el estudio de los hongos endófitos. Desde que se
833 empezaron a estudiar estos microorganismos hasta la actualidad, extraordinarios avances
834 biotecnológicos permiten mejorar su clasificación taxonómica, y poco a poco conocer su funcionalidad
835 en los ecosistemas. Con anterioridad al siglo XXI, la diversidad fúngica se evaluó en función de la
836 morfología de algunas de sus macro o micro estructuras (color, tasa de crecimiento, aspecto del
837 micelio, etc.), lo que suponía numerosas limitaciones (complejidad del medio en el que cultivar el
838 hongo, desconocimiento de las etapas completas de desarrollo, rasgos morfológicos limitados o muy
839 variables, cepas estériles, etc.). Sin embargo, en las últimas décadas, novedosas técnicas moleculares,
840 basadas en la secuenciación de ADN, se han ido desarrollando y empleando para profundizar en la
841 diversidad de los hongos (Mueller y col., 2004).

842 El estudio de las secuencias de ADN ribosómico está generando una gran cantidad de
843 información sobre numerosas especies fúngicas y sus relaciones evolutivas. Concretamente, la región
844 ITS (*Internal Transcribed Spacer*) es el marcador universal de hongos y la más utilizada para analizar
845 relaciones filogenéticas (Jorgensen y Cluster, 1988; Badotti y col., 2017). La región ITS consta de las
846 secciones ITS1 e ITS2 que flanquean la región conservada 5.8S (Figura 3). Además de la región ITS,
847 existen otras regiones que pueden ser secuenciadas (IGS: *intergenic spacer*), sin embargo, la
848 abundancia y accesibilidad de las secuencias de la región ITS depositadas en grandes bases de datos

científicos de acceso abierto (Benson y col., 2013; Nilsson y col., 2019), hacen que sea la región más indicada para la identificación de especies en estudios de diversidad fúngica (Lutzoni y col., 2004; Schoch y col., 2012).

Secuenciar la región ITS a partir de la extracción de ADN directamente de micelio fúngico es la metodología más común y tradicionalmente utilizada (White y col., 1990). Sin embargo, este método es dependiente del cultivo del hongo y las principales limitaciones que presenta se relacionan con la dificultad de obtener micelio de taxones que, por diversas razones, no tienen capacidad de desarrollarse en un medio de cultivo artificial. Por otra parte, hongos con diferentes tasas de crecimiento también pueden llegar a encriptarse o interferirse en el proceso de desarrollo miceliar (Vandenkoornhuysen y col., 2002; Vázquez-de-Aldana y col., 2019). Finalmente, también nos encontramos ante la complejidad de controlar la proliferación de contaminaciones bacterianas o de hongos del exterior de los tejidos, lo que indica que debe aplicarse una exhaustiva metodología de esterilización de las muestras (Schulz y col., 1993; Creer y col., 2016).

Algunos de los inconvenientes anteriormente citados parecen haberse resuelto con la aparición de las técnicas de caracterización genéticas (*metabarcoding*). Este conjunto de metodologías altamente tecnificadas permiten la identificación simultánea de todo el ADN existente dentro de una muestra (Baird y Hajibabaei, 2012; Creer y col., 2016). Además, el poder cuantitativo de los datos de *metabarcoding* permite profundizar en la abundancia de cada una de las especies, aportando un valor añadido a este tipo de datos (Thomas y col., 2016).



869

870 Figura 3. Ilustración de la disposición de la región ITS en el ADN fúngico, las regiones amplificadas para cada metodología y
871 los primers utilizados (en verde).

872

A pesar de las ventajas que el *metabarcoding* parece tener sobre el método de cultivo tradicional, otros inconvenientes surgen con su aplicación. Más allá del actual elevado coste que implica su uso y que normalmente va ligado a una reducción del tamaño muestral del estudio (Stein y col., 2014), la clasificación taxonómica de todas las secuencias genéticas que van surgiendo, a veces trae consigo incongruencias que dificultan la clasificación de las especies. Por ejemplo, secuencias desconocidas que aún no tienen un taxón asignado, clasificaciones a niveles taxonómicos altamente inclusivos o modificaciones constantes de las asignaciones taxonómicas (Ebach y col., 2011). Conociendo las ventajas e inconvenientes de cada método, numerosos investigadores promueven la aplicación de ambas técnicas con el objetivo de comparar los resultados y combinarlos para mejorar los estudios (Hyde y Soyong, 2008; Chi y col., 2019).

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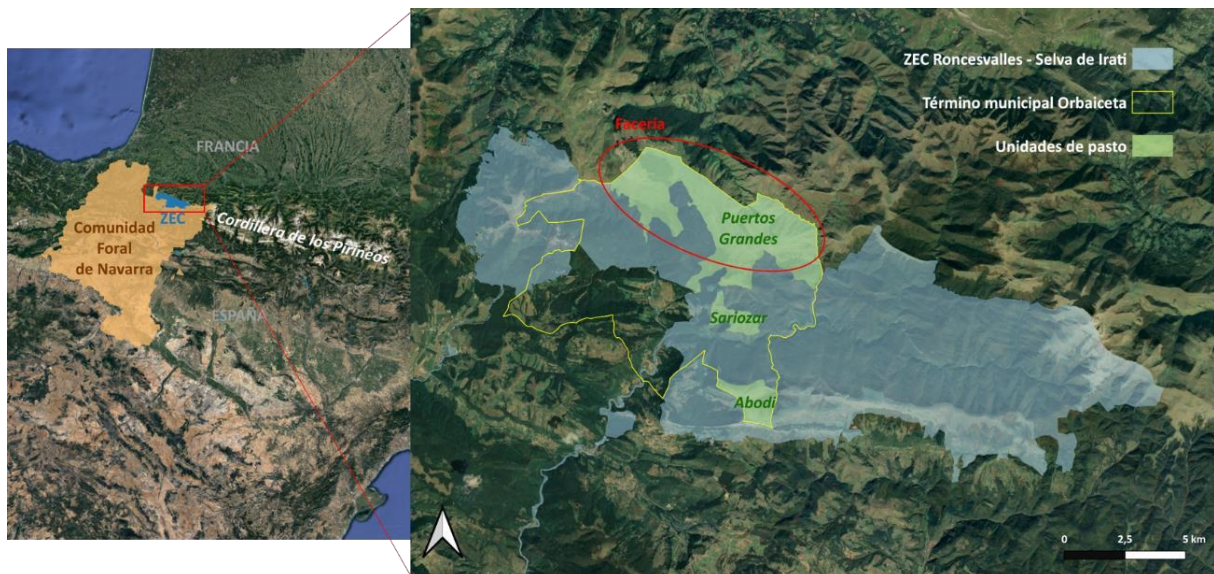
883 4. El área de estudio: Los pastos de puerto del valle de Aezkoa

884

885 Al norte de la provincia de Navarra se localizan los valles más occidentales de la cordillera de los
 886 Pirineos. Su localización en la región eurosiberiana, la altitud de sus montañas y la influencia del mar
 887 Cantábrico (55 Km en línea recta) contribuyen a su clima frío y continental que junto a la gestión de su
 888 territorio ha propiciado un paisaje en mosaico compuesto por densas zonas boscosas, arbustivas y
 889 herbáceas que albergan una alta biodiversidad.

890 En las últimas décadas, la creciente concienciación ambiental ha propiciado el desarrollo de
 891 políticas medioambientales enfocadas a la conservación y protección de la naturaleza. A nivel Europeo,
 892 la Red Natura 2000, ha impulsado la creación de figuras de protección con el objetivo de conservar
 893 hábitats naturales y fauna y flora silvestres. La red está formada por las Zonas de Especial Conservación
 894 (ZEC) y por las Zonas de Especial Protección para las Aves (ZEPA). Por las características ambientales
 895 que conserva esta parte del Pirineo navarro, desde el año 2011 y a través del Decreto Foral 9/2011,
 896 del 7 de febrero, el Lugar de Importancia Comunitario (LIC) denominado “Roncesvalles-Selva de Irati”
 897 pasó a designarse como Zona de Especial Conservación (Código: ES0000126), quedando también
 898 aprobado su plan de gestión (figura 4). Esta zona ZEC cubre una superficie total de 18078,12 ha y el
 899 objetivo final planteado en el texto, en relación a los pastizales, es la de asegurar el estado de
 900 conservación de los mismos garantizando, al menos, su superficie actual, a través de un modelo de
 901 gestión y manejo que permita su conservación y mantenimiento, aplicando las medidas necesarias
 902 para garantizar la permanencia de una actividad ganadera sostenible que asegure la conservación de
 903 estas áreas de interés.

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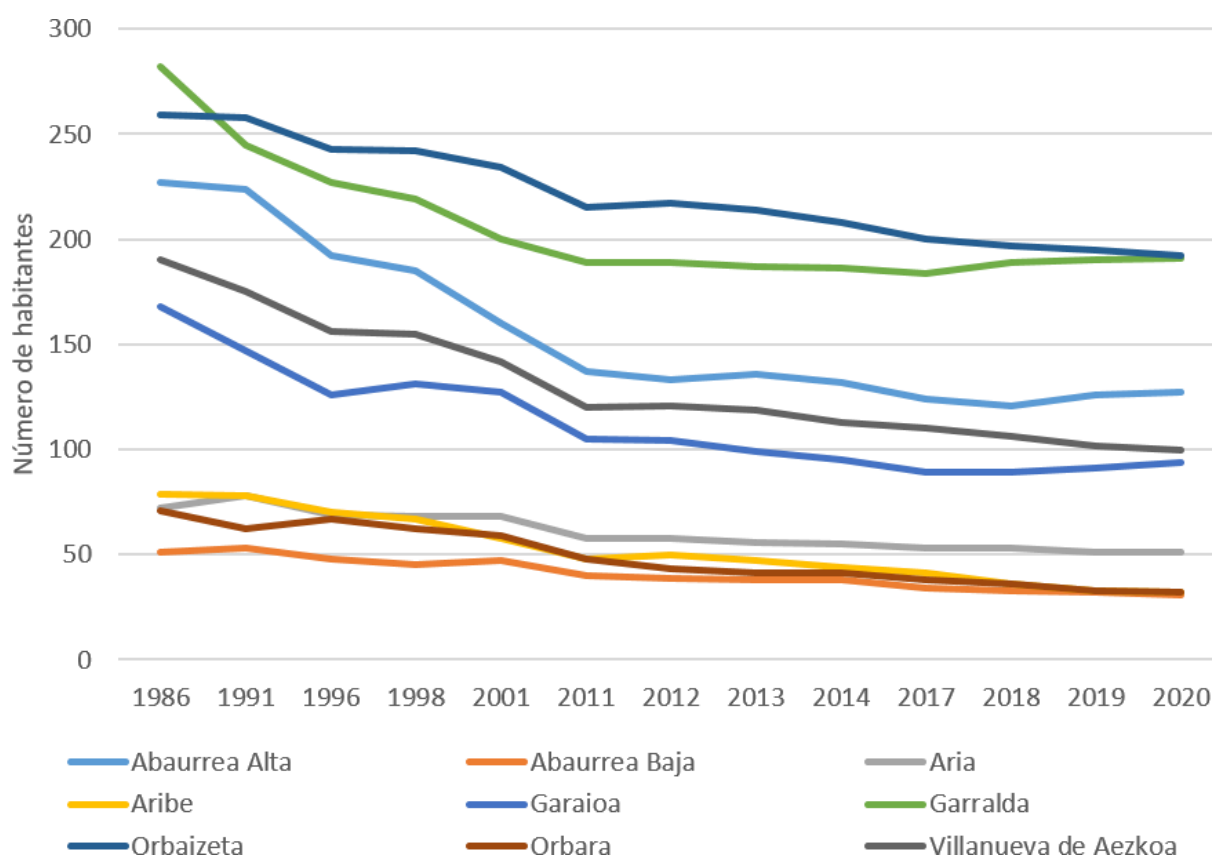
906 Figura 4. Localización geográfica de la zona ZEC Roncesvalles-Selva de Irati en la cordillera pirenaica y dentro de la
 907 Comunidad Foral de Navarra (izquierda). Localización de las unidades de pasto dentro del término municipal de Orbaizeta,
 908 que pertenece al Valle de Aezkoa (derecha).

909

910 Integrado casi en su totalidad dentro de los límites de la zona ZEC Roncesvalles-Selva de Irati
 911 encontramos el valle de Aezkoa. Este valle pirenaico está formado por 9 términos municipales y su
 912 actual población de 850 habitantes muestra un continuo descenso (Figura 5). Desde hace siglos, la
 913 gestión de la ganadería extensiva ha sido el pilar de su economía. Un aprovechamiento sostenible de

914 sus tres principales unidades de pasto (Puertos grandes, Sariozar y Abodi, 2147 ha) han propiciado el
 915 equilibrio y mantenimiento de comunidades vegetales de alta diversidad florística.

916



917

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Figura 5. Evolución demográfica de los 9 términos municipales que integran el valle de Aezkoa.

919

920 El tipo de ganado que pasta este valle del Pirineo lo conforman ovejas, vacas y caballos. El
 921 ganado más representativo de la zona es el ovino. Tradicionalmente, la cría de ovejas de raza *Latxa* ha
 922 supuesto el medio de vida de numerosas familias. Su carácter montaraz, su agilidad y elevada
 923 rusticidad le permiten adaptarse a terrenos abruptos y climas fríos. Su principal producción está
 924 destinada a leche para la elaboración de quesos (Granado-Tajada y col., 2020). El ganado vacuno
 925 pertenece principalmente a las razas Pirenaica y Blonda de Aquitania, ambas especies muy rústicas,
 926 bien adaptadas a zonas con compleja orografía y clima y destinadas a la producción cárnica. Por último,
 927 encontramos al ganado caballar donde las especies Jaca Navarra y Burguete son las más
 928 representativas, esta última considerada en peligro de extinción. Su sistema de cría se basa en un
 929 estado de semilibertad, resguardándose únicamente en época de nevadas. Es un animal muy
 930 resistente a condiciones climáticas adversas y sus potros se destinan a la producción de carne (Ferrer
 931 y Canals, 2008; Ministerio de medio ambiente y medio rural y marino, 2019; Insausti y col., 2021). En
 932 las últimas décadas, numerosos factores socioeconómicos están alterando estos tradicionales sistemas
 933 productivos lo que está generando un continuo descenso de los censos de animales (Figura 6).

934

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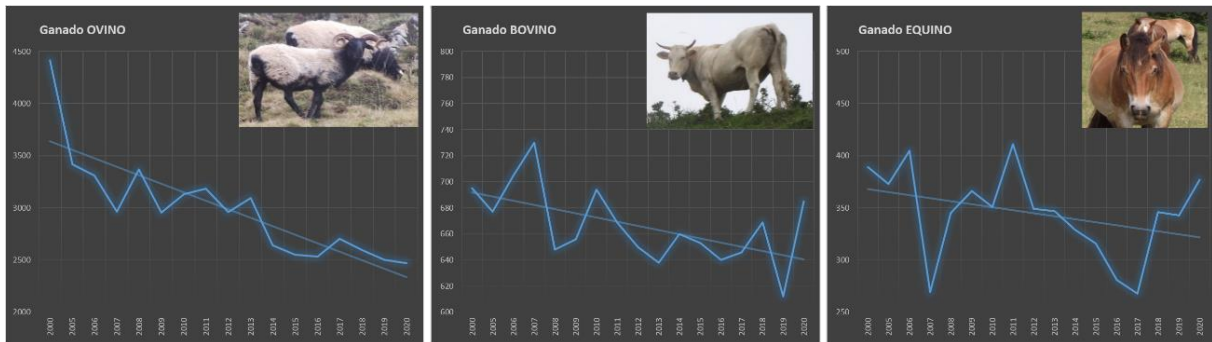
936

937

La alta calidad y cantidad de pasto disponible en el valle de Aezkoa también ha sabido ser aprovechada por ganaderos del limítrofe valle francés del Cize. El uso conjunto de superficies de pasto forjó las facerías. Esta figura, basada en antiguos acuerdos muy comunes a lo largo de todo el Pirineo, y anteriores al establecimiento de las modernas fronteras, establecían las bases para un uso

938 compartido de los pastos por parte de ganaderos de ambas partes de la vertiente pirenaica a cambio
 939 del pago de un canon económico. En el caso que nos ocupa, se tienen registros de acuerdos entre el
 940 valle de Aezkoa y de Cize desde 1556 hasta la actualidad, siendo una de las pocas facerías que aún
 941 permanece vigente y actualizada (Razquin y col., 2012). Esta zona facera se localiza al norte del término
 942 municipal de Orbaizeta (Figura 4) y engloba territorios de la unidad de pasto de Puertos Grandes.
 943 Aunque es una facería recíproca, son mayoritariamente rebaños franceses los que aprovechan la
 944 superficie del lado español. En la campaña de pastos del año 2021 el canon pagado por el valle de Cize
 945 al valle de Aezkoa por el aprovechamiento de estas superficies alcanzó los 76.011,09€.

946



947

948 Figura 6. Evolución de los censos de ganado que pastan en el Monte Aezkoa desde el año 2000 hasta el 2020 (Fuente: Junta
 949 Central del Valle de Aezkoa).

950

951 En esta zona del Pirineo, la gestión de los pastos ha ido acompañada del uso del fuego como
 952 herramienta de control de la biomasa. Su aplicación tiene por objetivo frenar la matorralización y
 953 mejorar la productividad del siguiente rebrote vegetal. En la Comunidad Foral de Navarra, la realización
 954 de quemas prescritas está regulado por la Orden Foral 237/2017, del 4 de julio (posterior a la Orden
 955 Foral 222/2016, de 16 de junio). Sin embargo, resulta importante diferenciar las quemas que pueden
 956 llevar a cabo directamente los ganaderos en zonas con bajo riesgo de escape (quemas pastorales) y
 957 aquellas en las que la densidad de la vegetación entraña un riesgo potencial de expansión del fuego, y
 958 que por tanto requieren ser aplicadas por bomberos especializados (quemas prescritas) (Figura 7)
 959 (Canals y col., 2014; San Emeterio y col., 2016).

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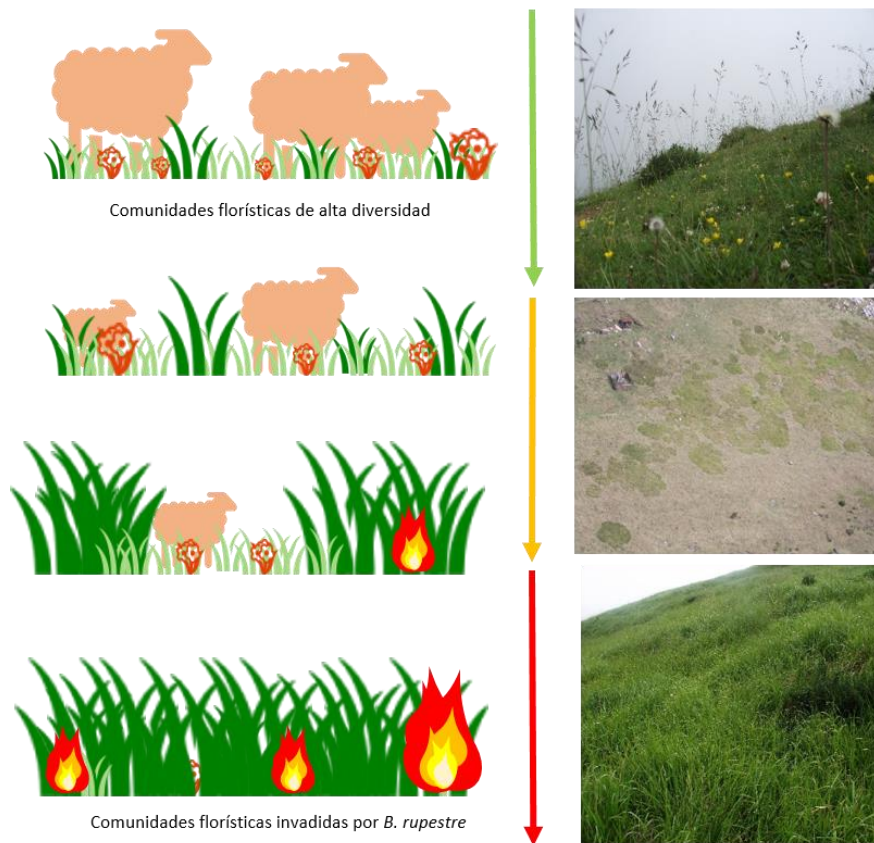
962 Figura 7. Quema pastoral (izquierda) y quema prescrita (derecha) realizadas en diferentes áreas de la zona ZEC
 963 Roncesvalles-Selva de Irati.

964 En el valle de Aezkoa, el descenso del número de animales en las últimas décadas ha ocasionado
965 un incremento del uso del fuego para reducir la biomasa leñosa y herbácea no pastada. Pero, en
966 algunos casos, se ha pasado de quemas tradicionales de pequeñas superficies (< 2 ha), dirigidas a
967 quemar arbustos pie a pie y con baja recurrencia (cada 5-10 años), a quemas frecuentes (cada 1-2
968 años) de grandes extensiones (> 5 ha) en áreas con densas acumulaciones de combustible (San
969 Emeterio y col., 2016; Múgica y col., 2021). Este desacople de los regímenes tradicionales de fuego y
970 pastoreo ha conducido al establecimiento de diferentes tipos de pasto.

971 En el año 2008, la realización del proyecto de ordenación de los recursos pascícolas y forestales
972 del monte Aezkoa (Ferrer y Canals, 2008), permitió identificar el problema de la expansión de los
973 lastonares, cubiertas herbáceas de baja diversidad florística, dominadas por la gramínea *Brachypodium*
974 *rupestre*. Estas cubiertas degradadas se asocian a lugares con un intenso desajuste de los regímenes
975 tradicionales de fuego y pastoreo, caracterizadas por una escasa o inexistente presencia de herbívoros
976 y una alta recurrencia de quemas pastorales (figura 8). En estas zonas los porcentajes de cobertura de
977 *B. rupestre* superan el 75%, en comparación con las cubiertas de pasto más diversas, en las que la
978 cobertura es inferior al 25%. En el gradual proceso de expansión, entre una cubierta diversa y
979 degradada, encontramos zonas en fases intermedias caracterizadas por la paulatina aparición de
980 rodales o parches de *B. rupestre* donde su cobertura oscila entre el 25 y el 75% (figura 9).

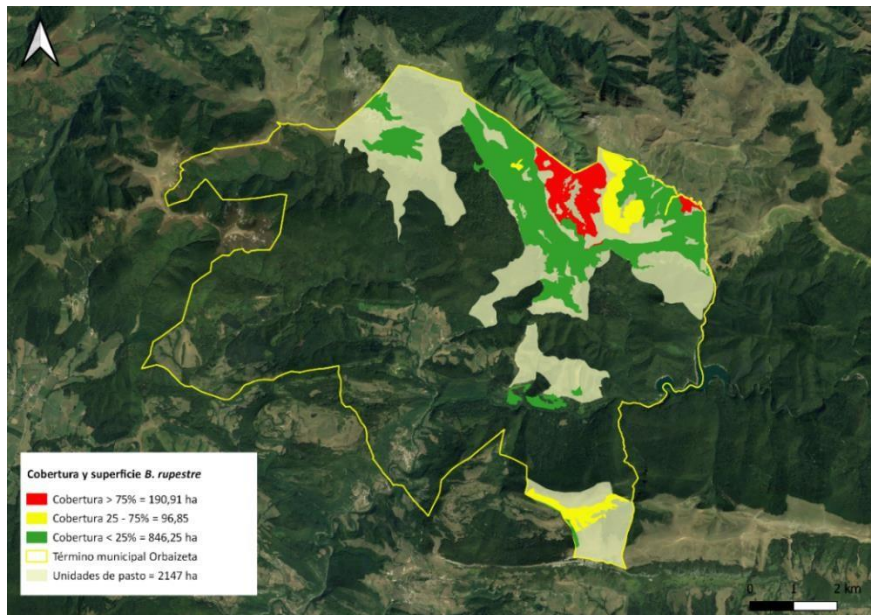
981 Los pastos de puerto del valle de Aezkoa son el escenario ideal para evaluar el efecto que el
982 cambio global puede tener en este tipo de ecosistemas. Explorar la alteración de los sistemas
983 biológicos ligada a cambios en las condiciones ambientales y de gestión humana nos puede ayudar a
984 conocer su resiliencia. La presencia de determinados tipos de cubiertas florísticas, altamente
985 dependientes del tipo de gestión a las que están sometidas, nos permite la posibilidad de estudiar un
986 amplio espectro de alteraciones del medio (suelos, vegetación, microorganismos, etc.). En esta tesis
987 se incluye un doble enfoque a la problemática de la expansión de *B. rupestre* en esta parte del Pirineo,
988 concretamente a la alteración del servicio ecosistémico de abastecimiento (capítulo 1) y de la
989 comunidad endofítica de la gramínea (capítulos 2 y 3).

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Figura 8. Relación entre la gestión de la ganadería y el fuego, y la diversidad de las comunidades florísticas.



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Figura 9. Zonas de pasto del valle de Aezkoa con presencia de *B. rupestre* clasificados por sus diferentes porcentajes de cobertura y la extensión que ocupan.

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OBJETIVOS

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1459 **OBJETIVOS**

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1461 A pesar de los resultados que arrojan los estudios relacionados con la expansión de gramíneas
1462 altas perennes del género *Brachypodium* sp., y el relevante papel que la ganadería extensiva tiene para
1463 frenar el proceso degradativo que ocasionan, la concienciación y transmisión del conocimiento
1464 científico a los gestores del territorio resulta difícil y compleja. Dado que en la sociedad actual el valor
1465 ambiental que generan los ecosistemas carece aún de precio de mercado, encontrar una metodología
1466 que permita cuantificar la degradación ambiental, aunque sea relacionada con un único servicio
1467 ecosistémico, permite despertar conciencia y justificar acciones de mejora y de restauración. El
1468 proceso de degradación de los pastos de montaña debido a la expansión de *B. rupestre* y la pérdida
1469 del servicio ecosistémico de aprovisionamiento, ligado a la pérdida de diversidad florística, se describe
1470 con detalle en el capítulo 1 de esta memoria.

OBJETIVO 1: Cuantificar económicamente la pérdida del servicio ecosistémico de abastecimiento de alimento de calidad para el ganado en los pastos de puerto del valle de Aezkoa.

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1472 El estudio del microbioma de *B. rupestre* resulta ser una novedosa e inexplorada línea de
1473 investigación. Caracterizar la comunidad endofítica de esta gramínea en su ambiente natural, sometida
1474 a condiciones climáticas extremas y bajo fuertes y variables regímenes de perturbación de fuego y
1475 pastoreo, permitirá conocer las especies fúngicas presentes e iniciar una investigación para discernir
1476 si alguna de ellas pudiera estar aportando alguna adaptación ventajosa en su proceso expansivo,
1477 además de contribuir a entender y predecir la resiliencia de los ecosistemas de alta montaña al cambio
1478 global.

1479 Para una adecuada caracterización es necesario tener en cuenta los diferentes tejidos de las
1480 plantas. La divergencia de microambientes en los que se desarrolla la parte vegetal aérea en
1481 comparación con sus tejidos subterráneos, puede conducir al establecimiento de comunidades
1482 endofíticas distintas. Nos encontramos por tanto con una gramínea desarrollándose en un clima
1483 extremo de montaña y formada por tejidos que crecen en microhábitats afectados de forma diferente
1484 por los regímenes de pastoreo y fuego. Para caracterizar el microbioma de *B. rupestre* se utilizaron los
1485 métodos de cultivo tradicional y de *metabarcoding*. Ambos procedimientos se describen
1486 detalladamente en el capítulo 2 y 3 de esta memoria. Adicionalmente, en el tercer capítulo, se realizó
1487 una comparativa de metodologías para determinar la capacidad de caracterización de ambas técnicas.

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OBJETIVO 2: Caracterizar la comunidad endofítica de *Brachypodium rupestre* bajo las condiciones naturales en las que se desarrolla en los pastos de puerto del valle de Aezkoa mediante el método de cultivo tradicional y de *metabarcoding*.

OBJETIVO 3: Analizar la respuesta de la comunidad endofítica de *Brachypodium rupestre* a los cambios en la composición florística promovidos por la alteración de los regímenes tradicionales de pastoreo y fuego en los pastos de puerto del valle de Aezkoa.

OBJETIVO 4: Comparar la capacidad de caracterización de la comunidad endofítica de *Brachypodium rupestre* mediante el método de cultivo tradicional y de *metabarcoding*.

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CHAPTER 1

1516 **Disruption of traditional land use regimes causes an economic**
1517 **loss of provisioning services in high-mountain grasslands**

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1519 **ABSTRACT**
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1522 Mountain ecosystems face many challenges related to global change. Most high-altitude
1523 grasslands in the Pyrenees, despite representing valuable assets recognised in the European
1524 conservation heritage, are at risk due to the decline of traditional extensive ranging. This research
1525 intends to quantify economically the loss of the provisioning service of high-quality food for livestock
1526 of an upland area on the western side of the range. The area is experiencing degradation due to the
1527 expansion of the native tall-grass *Brachypodium rupestre*, favoured by disruption of traditional grazing
1528 and anthropogenic fire regimes. We implement the substitution economic approach and use floristic
1529 and husbandry data to determine that the loss of food rations for livestock results in an unitary cost of
1530 107€/ha, per year, amounting to 21146€ for the whole degraded area, according to the most
1531 conservative estimate. The study also finds evidence that the decline in grassland value is closely
1532 associated with the digestibility to herbivores of *B. rupestre* during the growing season. This approach
1533 may be an effective tool to raise awareness of the problem among local and regional stakeholders and
1534 encourage further environmental actions to prevent the degradation.



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1537 **1. INTRODUCTION**

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1539 Natural grasslands in high-mountain areas are one of the main biodiversity hotspots on Earth
 1540 and provide an invaluable array of ecosystem services (ES), which include provisioning (food, water,
 1541 raw materials and medicinal resources), regulating (air and water quality, carbon sequestration and
 1542 storage, erosion prevention and soil fertility, pollination, biological control and water regulation),
 1543 supporting (habitats for species and maintenance of genetic diversity) and cultural (recreation,
 1544 tourism, walking) services (MEA, 2005; Pan et al., 2014; Sollenberger et al., 2019). With respect to the
 1545 cultural heritage, high mountain grasslands represent the preservation of a legacy of the ancestral
 1546 interaction between humans and herbivores (Wilson et al., 2012). For millennia, shepherds emulated
 1547 the annual movements of nomadic wild herbivores, and high-altitude grasslands turned into a crucial
 1548 component of the transhumance system as providers of food for domestic herbivores during the mild
 1549 season (Galop and Catto, 2014; González-Sampérez et al., 2017).

1550 Despite the fact that traditional pastoralism has contributed to the multifunctionality and quality
 1551 of the ES provided by mountain grasslands (Sebastià et al., 2008; Gómez-García et al., 2009; Bernués
 1552 et al., 2014), in recent decades the system in most high-altitude European ranges has been collapsing,
 1553 affecting in different ways the provision of ES (Gehrig-Fasel et al., 2007; Schirpke et al., 2017). The
 1554 Pyrenean mountain range is experiencing this situation (Vicente-Serrano et al., 2004; Lasanta et al.,
 1555 2015; Canals, 2019). Rural depopulation, low people dedicated to the primary sector and, in the last
 1556 fifty years, farm modernisation via intensification, replicating lowland breeding schemes, has led to
 1557 the abandonment of many mountain grasslands. Extensive ranging has been partially replaced by
 1558 intensified productive systems, which entail larger periods of livestock housing and feeding with fodder
 1559 and concentrates (Petz et al., 2014; García-Ruiz et al., 2015; Lasanta et al., 2015; Guadilla-Sáez et al.,
 1560 2019). The decline of grazing in grasslands has resulted in rapid vegetation succession, revealed by
 1561 pine afforestation (*Pinus uncinata*, *Pinus sylvestris*) and shrub encroachment (*Buxus sempervirens*,
 1562 *Genista scorpius*, *Ulex europaeus* and *Juniperus communis*, among others) (Komac et al., 2013; Gartzia
 1563 et al., 2014).

1564 In the particular case of the western Pyrenees, the amount of non-grazed summer biomass of
 1565 shrubs and grasses has encouraged a more intense use of controlled burning to reduce necromass
 1566 accumulation. As a consequence, the long-established practice of pastoral fires has been replaced by
 1567 larger and more frequent burns (Múgica et al., 2018). The unbalanced regime of anthropic
 1568 disturbances (traditional high grazing - low burning practices vs. current low grazing - high burning
 1569 practices) has resulted in a dramatic change in species composition and in the spread of the native tall-
 1570 grass *Brachypodium rupestre* (Host) Roem. & Schult. The species represents a guild of tussocky
 1571 perennial grasses of tall stature, with high leaf dry-matter content and extensive lateral spread via
 1572 rhizomes (Kahlert et al., 2005), well-adapted to intense regimes of disturbance and with the capacity
 1573 to displace other native species, leading to a loss of grassland diversity (Niedrist et al., 2009; Tardella
 1574 et al., 2017). In the case of *B. rupestre*, its poor palatability and digestibility to livestock results in a
 1575 limited grazing and a build-up of much necromass by the end of the season, which perpetuates the
 1576 vicious circle of fire use (Canals et al., 2014).

1577 The consequences of the spread of *B. rupestre* are comparable to that of exotic invaders-
 1578 successful development and species replacement, diversity loss and functional degradation (Valéry et
 1579 al., 2009a), however, since the species is a native component of grasslands, there is a confusing
 1580 perception of the problem at the local level (Canals, 2019). How stakeholders perceive the changes
 1581 and their effects on ES is a crucial question, since they are the genuine drivers of change in the rural
 1582 areas (Lamarque et al., 2011, 2014; Meyfroidt et al., 2013). Through the quantification of the costs
 1583 associated to the loss of the ES we may be able to raise local stakeholders' and policy makers'

1584 awareness of the issue (Burkhard et al., 2012) and, to that end, we have planned this research. We
 1585 assess how the expansion and dominance of *B. rupestre* caused by the disruption of the historical
 1586 disturbance regime affects the provisioning value (food for herbivores) of high-altitude grassland
 1587 areas. The opportunity cost of grasslands has been determined by applying value equivalency analysis,
 1588 following the resource equivalency approach. Data for the study were obtained from field floristic
 1589 surveys, detailed determinations of animal energy requirements and current costs of the feed rations
 1590 through a practical farm-approach. To our knowledge, this is the first study addressing the loss of
 1591 economic value of high-mountain grasslands due to the decline of traditional grazing practices.

1592

1593 **2. MATERIAL AND METHODS**

1594

1595 **2.1. The study area**

1596

1597 The Aezkoa valley (Navarra county, Spain) is the most western valley on the southern side of the
 1598 Pyrenean range (42.53' - 43.3' N, 1.8' - 1.17' W), and encompasses an area of 198 km² populated by
 1599 873 inhabitants in nine municipalities (Figure 1). The climate is snowy and cold in winter, and mild and
 1600 foggy in summer. The annual temperature averages 9.3°C and the accumulated precipitation reaches
 1601 1856 mm per year (Irabia climatic station; <http://meteo.navarra.es>). Natural grasslands develop at the
 1602 highest altitudes of the valley (800 - 1400 m.a.s.l.) and comprise diverse communities of perennial
 1603 grasses (*Festuca gr. rubra*, *Agrostis capillaris*, *Brachypodium rupestre*, *Danthonia decumbens*), forbs
 1604 (*Achillea millefolium*, *Potentilla erecta*, *Gallium saxatile*) and legumes (*Trifolium repens*, *Lotus*
 1605 *corniculatus*), and, also, in some territories, large, degraded communities dominated by the tall-grass
 1606 *B. rupestre*. All these grasslands, diverse and degraded, are included in the Site of Common Interest
 1607 (SCI) Roncesvalles-Selva de Irati (code ES0000126), and represent 11.9% of the total area protected
 1608 (2147 ha over a total of 18078 ha), which encompasses valuable forests (e.g. *Fagus sylvatica*, *Abies*
 1609 *alba*) and shrubland communities (e.g. *Erica* spp., *Ulex gallii*). The regional law 9/2011, 7th February,
 1610 declared the area a Special Area of Conservation (SAC) and approved the management plan that
 1611 regulates the uses of the territory. Regarding high-altitude grasslands, the general objective of the plan
 1612 is to guarantee grazing activity that maintains the natural value of grassland communities. Neither
 1613 ploughing nor sowing are permitted in the most valuable communities but mechanical clearing and
 1614 prescribed burns are authorised to preserve the mosaic of shrublands and grasslands.

1615

1616 **2.2. High-altitude grassland and its management**

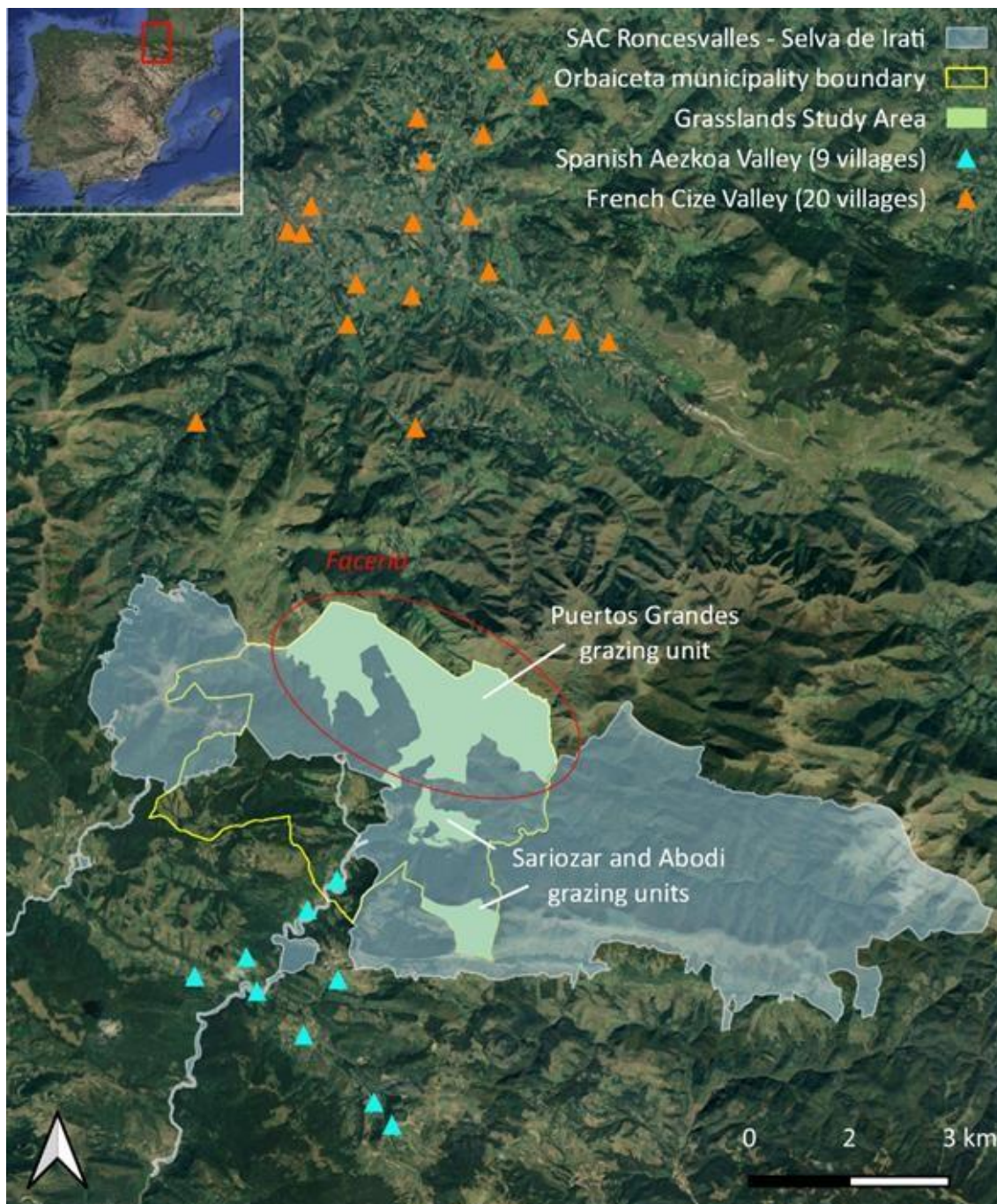
1617

1618 High altitude grasslands included in the SAC are distributed in three major grazing units, known
 1619 as *Puertos Grandes* (1692 ha), *Abodi* (237 ha) and *Sariozar* (218 ha) (Figure 1). The areas belong to the
 1620 commons of the valley and are managed by a representative organisation, the *Junta General del Valle*
 1621 *de Aezkoa*, which oversees the use of the common resources (i.e. water, timber, fodder) through
 1622 specific regulations (for grasslands, regional law 121/2001, 5th October). Since ancient times,
 1623 extensive ranging of livestock has been a pillar of the economy of the valley. In the highlands, the
 1624 abundance of megalithic remains attests to the ancient importance of summer pastoralism and the
 1625 transhumance movements. During winter, sheep flocks were kept on lowland grasslands close to the
 1626 Atlantic coast and moved to the high mountains in summer. Over the last century, livestock breeding
 1627 in the Aezkoa valley has progressively declined, the sharpest fall occurring in the recent decades, from
 1628 130 breeders established in 2003 with 11500 sheep, 3928 cows and 540 horses (Ferrer and Canals,

1629 2008) to 98 breeders with 5570 sheep, 2110 cows and 760 horses fifteen years later (2017). In addition,
 1630 the long transhumance movements have almost disappeared and herds of the native breeds of sheep
 1631 (*Latxa*), cattle (*Pirenaica*) and horses (*Burguete*), remain in the valley bottom from October to April,
 1632 grazing in lowland areas and/or feeding on stored fodder and concentrate, and move to high-altitude
 1633 grasslands from May/June to September/October for extensive free grazing.

1634

1635



1636

1637 Figure 1. Grassland study area and grazing units of *Puertos Grandes*, *Sariozar* and *Abodi*. Geographic locations of the villages
 1638 included in the *facería* agreement and delimitation of the Site of Common Interest Roncevalles-Selva de Irati (ES0000126).

1639 The largest grassland area, *Puertos Grandes*, located in the northernmost part of the valley, close
 1640 to the French border, has inherited a historical use regime that deserves particular mention. The
 1641 grazing of most of the area is shared with livestock from the French valley of Cize. The joint use of
 1642 highland areas by different valleys, known as *facería* (Figure 1), relies on old agreements which were
 1643 very common through the Pyrenees before the boundaries between the modern countries were
 1644 established in the mid XIX century (Bayonne International Boundary Treaty signed in 1856). The first
 1645 records of the existence of treaties date back to 1280 CE (1556 CE for the Aezkoa-Cize agreement) and,
 1646 although many of them are outdated or no longer in force, a few remain and have been modernised,
 1647 as is the case for the Aezkoa-Cize treaty (Razquin et al., 2012). Cross-border grazing in *Puertos Grandes*
 1648 is regulated through annual agreements between the two local representative organisations, *Junta*
 1649 *General del Valle de Aezkoa* and *Comision Syndicale du Pays de Cize*. Modern regulations include
 1650 livestock records, health controls and the payment of a tax per animal for the use of foreign pastures
 1651 (Table 1). Compared to Aezkoa, the valley of Cize is larger (341 km²) and has a bigger population, with
 1652 6880 inhabitants in 20 villages. It has developed a successful farming economy based on the production
 1653 of high-quality sheep cheeses supported by nearly 400 breeders (owners of 60000 sheep, 3500 cows
 1654 and 750 horses). As a consequence, for more than fifty French farmers, *Puertos Grandes* is a valuable
 1655 summer pasture and they are willing to pay for its use. For the Aezkoa stakeholders, it delivers useful
 1656 yearly revenue and a valorisation of their own grasslands.

1657

1658 Table 1. French livestock numbers and taxes paid by the syndicate of Cize for the use of high altitude grasslands included in
 1659 the old agreement (*facería*) with the Aezkoa valley over the years 2008 to 2018. Sheep numbers include ewes and lambs
 1660 (except in 2013 only ewes) since taxes are due on both, unlike cattle and horses. €: taxes per animal, n: number of animals.

1661

Year	€.animal ⁻¹	Sheep	Cattle	Horses	Total income
2008	€	5.48	44.54	57.9	61328.6
	n	8050	328	45	
2009	€	5.53	44.92	58.4	61878.3
	n	8050	328	45	
2010	€	5.58	45.3	58.89	62714.1
	n	7870	350	50	
2011	€	5.76	46.07	59.89	64450.2
	n	7870	350	50	
2012	€	5.9	47.18	61.34	66484.8
	n	7870	360	50	
2013	€	6.02	48.17	62.63	57478.1
	n	5855	390	55	
2014	€	6.05	48.49	62.91	69984.7
	n	7870	390	55	
2015	€	6.02	48.13	62.63	69591.6
	n	7870	390	55	
2016	€	6.02	48.27	62.75	70387.7
	n	7870	400	59	
2017	€	6.09	48.8	63.44	71191.3
	n	7870	400	59	
2018	€	6.16	49.37	64.18	73203.6
	n	7870	415	66	

1662 The use of controlled burns to rejuvenate pasturelands and decrease shrub encroachment is a
 1663 deeply-rooted practice in the western Pyrenees. Traditionally, pastoral fires consisted of very localised
 1664 shrub-to-shrub burnings that reduced any shoots that remained ungrazed at the end of the season
 1665 (San Emeterio et al., 2016). However, the decline in grazing activity in the last century, associated not
 1666 only with a drop in livestock numbers, but also significant changes in herbivore species (fewer sheep
 1667 compared to cows and horses), and pastoral practices (less continuous presence of shepherds and less
 1668 shepherding of animals to different altitudes), has encouraged the use of large-scale burns applied
 1669 every 2-3 winters in the most extreme cases (Múgica et al., 2018). Burns are recurrent on the French
 1670 side, where the use of fire by shepherds is less restricted, and these fires frequently affect grasslands
 1671 that span the border. Since they are conducted in winter time in remote, high-altitude areas, and affect
 1672 *facería* lands, which are grazed predominantly by French livestock, there is little intervention by the
 1673 local Spanish authorities. In fact, some Spanish shepherds support the practice too since fires reduce
 1674 shrub encroachment and appear to boost the establishment of a dense herbaceous cover instead. The
 1675 immediate purpose of the burning is accomplished, and there is little concern about the degradation
 1676 caused by the loss of plant species and the expansion of *B. rupestre* in the repeatedly-burned areas.

1677

1678 **2.3. Methodological approach the value equivalence analysis**

1679

1680 Diverse and degraded grasslands can be distinguished on the basis of their botanical
 1681 composition. The aggressive expansion of *B. rupestre* is associated with a gradual loss of grassland
 1682 species diversity as well as a decrease in forage quality and energy supply capacity. We first quantified
 1683 the decline of forage quality in degraded grasslands compared to diverse ones, and then determined
 1684 the number of livestock food rations affected by this decrease. Thereafter, we converted this loss to
 1685 monetary units by considering the expenses associated with hypothetical indoor feeding during the
 1686 same period. This approach is based on the substitution methodology, described in detail by Champ et
 1687 al. (2017). The method provides an economic value based on the replacement or opportunity cost
 1688 associated with the environmental resource lost, considering the least costly alternative, and requires
 1689 a deep knowledge of the environmental resource being evaluated.

1690 The substitution methodology includes two different types of analysis, the replacement cost and
 1691 the resource equivalency. For this study, we started by considering the replacement cost analysis,
 1692 which relies on quantifying the cost of providing an identical alternative resource or service, and
 1693 assuming this replacement cost to be an appropriate measure of the environmental value of the loss
 1694 of the resource. This analysis, which has been previously applied in high-mountain areas (i.e. forest
 1695 providing protection from natural hazards, Notaro and Paletto, 2012), has two relevant limitations: a)
 1696 the difficulty in finding a perfect substitute and b) the risk of underestimating the monetary value when
 1697 artificial technologies do not produce all the services provided by the ecosystem. Because of these
 1698 constraints, we abandoned this methodology, since feeding livestock indoors is based on different
 1699 fodder than outdoors (cereal straw, meadow hay and silage, concentrates), and more importantly,
 1700 because plant diversity and forage quality in the highlands decrease in the absence of grazing, that is,
 1701 indoor livestock feeding generates a negative externality in ES.

1702 Eventually, we adopted the resource equivalency approach, which considers economic
 1703 estimates to compensate the victim (i.e. farmers) for the loss of the environmental resource (Chapman
 1704 et al., 2018; Lipton et al., 2018). Losses related to the damaged environmental resource include the
 1705 quantity of the resource itself (i.e. biomass of fodder) and an evaluation of the services provided by
 1706 the resource (provisioning value, biodiversity value, cultural value, etc.), although in our case we
 1707 focused our attention on the provisioning value for livestock. This methodology has been applied in
 1708 the US and in Europe (according to the EU Directives requiring compensation) to evaluate the damage

1709 to specific ES caused, for example, by oil spills (Roach and Wade, 2006) and severe wildfires (Hanson
 1710 et al., 2013). To our knowledge, this is the first time that the analysis has been applied to the valuation
 1711 of grassland degradation in high-altitude areas, although it has been utilised in other valuable
 1712 ecosystems such as marine environments (Bas et al., 2016; Bradford, 2017) and semiarid and tropical
 1713 forests (Majdalawi et al., 2016; Pavanelli and Voulvoulis, 2019).

1714 Estimates of the environmental loss can be expressed in a range of different units such as the
 1715 discounted service acre-year (habitat equivalency analysis, HEA), the loss of species-year (resource
 1716 equivalency analysis, REA) and the loss of economic value (value equivalency analysis, VEA). We used
 1717 VEA analysis because it is appropriate in situations when the damaged and the restored resource are
 1718 not perfect substitutes, and when compensation may have distributional consequences (Cole, 2013).
 1719 The VEA analysis is less data- and time-consuming than other techniques (Roach and Wade, 2006), and
 1720 requires injury parameters that quantify the loss of the environmental resource (the amount of
 1721 adversely affected habitat and the degree of damage). In a second step, the analysis estimates the
 1722 economic value per hectare of the service adversely affected. Some relevant VEA limitations are that
 1723 the analysis considers the value of the ES to be constant over time and space (Flores and Thacher,
 1724 2002; Chapman et al., 2018), and that it is quite sensitive to a variety of factors, such as price-change
 1725 scenarios (Shaw and Wlodarz, 2013). To cope with these constraints, we developed a sensitivity
 1726 analysis focused on the seasonal variation in the energy supplied by grasslands and the variability of
 1727 the economic cost of the replacement ration.

1728

1729 **2.4. Pastoral forage value and estimates of the energy supplied by grasslands**

1730

1731 Around 53% of the grasslands in the area of study have the perennial tall-grass *B. rupestris* as a
 1732 native component of the plant community (1134 ha over 2147 ha), but its cover is very variable
 1733 between sites. Based on the thematic vegetation mapping of the Aezkoa commons (Ferrer and Canals,
 1734 2008), eight grassland areas with different amounts of *B. rupestris* cover were chosen for the study
 1735 (Figure 2). In summer 2014, the sites were visited, described in terms of the main environmental
 1736 variables (altitude, slope, aspect, grazing level), and inventoried by means of detailed floristic surveys
 1737 using the point quadrat method. To that end, 50 equidistant points were located across two 20 m-
 1738 transect lines per site, and the species that came into contact with a metallic rod placed vertically at
 1739 each point were identified. In total, 16 transect lines and 800 points were inventoried. Floristic data
 1740 were subjected to Principal Component Analysis (PCA), and the most representative diversity indexes
 1741 (species richness and Shannon-Wiener index) were determined using the Species and Diversity
 1742 Richness Program (Seaby and Henderson, 2006). One-way ANOVA was used to determine significant
 1743 differences in cover. All statistical analyses were implemented in the R software (R Core Team, 2015).

1744 The Pastoral Forage Value (PFV) of the grasslands was also estimated from the floristic data. The
 1745 PFV index was originally developed to estimate the forage value of multi-species mountain grasslands
 1746 in the Massif Central (Daget and Poissonet, 1971). Since then, it has been successfully applied in other
 1747 mountain areas to classify and evaluate regional pastoral resources -in the Pyrenees (Barrantes et al.,
 1748 2013) and in the Alps (Argenti and Lombardi, 2012; Pittarello et al., 2016)- with different purposes,
 1749 such as ecological evaluation and sustainable management planning. The PFV ranges from 0 to 100
 1750 and is based on the assignment of an Index of Specific Quality (ISQ) to each species present in an
 1751 inventory. The ISQ values vary between 0 (zero quality) and 5 (high quality) and have been established
 1752 empirically considering the palatability, digestibility, morphology and productivity of each species
 1753 (Jouglet, 1999). PFV is calculated for each transect according to the following equation, where SC_i is
 1754 the specific contribution of species i in a transect line:

1755
$$PFV = 0.2 \sum_{i=1}^n (SCi * ISQi)$$

1756

1757 The PFV is linked to the Forage Units (FU) by applying a conversion coefficient (k) adjusted on
 1758 the basis of regional specificities of altitude and climate for each area (k ranging from 30 to 66). FU
 1759 represents the net energy supplied by 1 kg of barley, and is a reference parameter commonly used for
 1760 comparing feedstuffs:

1761

1762
$$\text{Forage Units (FU.ha}^{-1} \text{ 1)} = PFV * k$$

1763

1764 Comparing the energy supplied by diverse and degrading grasslands permits us to estimate the
 1765 energy loss, in FU.ha⁻¹, caused by the expansion of *B. rupestre* (see Figure b in the annex for a
 1766 methodological outline).

1767

1768 **2.5. Estimation of animal rations**

1769

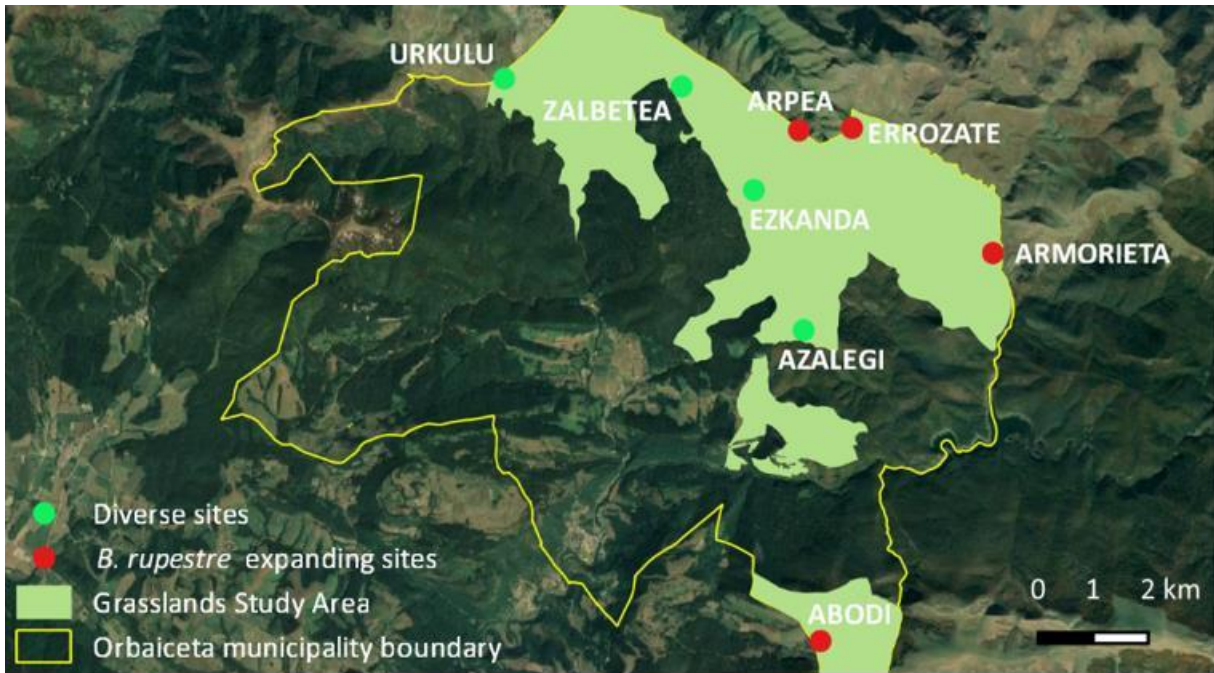
1770 A ration is the amount of balanced feed that an animal receives each day, and it depends on the
 1771 animal's intake capacity and energy and nutrient requirements. We specified indoor feeding rations
 1772 and calculated the number of rations necessary to feed animals and compensate for the loss of good-
 1773 quality upland grassland. Based on animal species, breed and the reproductive stage (maintenance,
 1774 pregnancy, lactation), we estimated the level of food intake (in kg dry matter/day) and the daily energy
 1775 supply (Forage Units/day) required to fulfil each animal's production and maintenance demands. We
 1776 used the software INRAtion-PrévAlim (INRA, 2017-2019) to design and optimise the rations,
 1777 considering the most common feedstuffs used by local farmers and their market prices. Two different
 1778 situations were considered: rations based on farm-produced products and rations with a higher
 1779 proportion of purchased products. Both situations occur in the valley, depending on the farmer's
 1780 access to agricultural land. The public county farmer consultancy INTIASA provided the feedstuff
 1781 prices. According to the premise of the resource equivalency analysis, we selected the cheapest ration
 1782 within each category (type of animal and level of energy required).

1783

1784 **2.6. Sensitivity analysis**

1785

1786 We completed the economic evaluation by performing a sensitivity analysis, which focused on
 1787 two different assumptions: a) the variation in the predicted energy supplied by high-altitude grasslands
 1788 over the growing season, and b) the variation in the financial cost of the replacement ration for housed
 1789 animals. The first assumption takes into account the variation in digestibility of *B. rupestre* during the
 1790 spring and summer, which results in a loss of the energy supplied to herbivores. The references
 1791 consulted consider a peak ISQ of 1 for *B. rupestre*, but this value drops gradually during the grazing
 1792 season as the species loses digestibility and starts to be rejected by grazers (ISQ = 0). The second
 1793 assumption considers the rising cost of the replacement ration when increasing the proportion of
 1794 external foodstuff, a situation that occurs in years when the weather is unfavourable for fodder
 1795 production or on farms with limited access to agricultural lands.



1796

1797

1798

1799

1800

Figure 2. Top: Areas chosen for the floristic survey. Red points represent grasslands suffering degradation and green points represent diverse grasslands. Bottom left: *B. rupestre* dominated grassland. Bottom right: Diverse grassland.

1801 **3. RESULTS**

1802

1803 **3.1. Grassland classification. Diversity and forage evaluation**

1804

1805 The principal component analysis (PCA) allowed sites to be separated according to their floristic
 1806 composition (see Table a in the annex for complete floristic data). The proportion of variance explained
 1807 by the first axis of the PCA was 67.8% (9.2% for the second axis, Figure 3) and reflected the progressive
 1808 decrease of cover of *B. rupestre* in the inventories. Grasslands on the left side of the ordination, with
 1809 estimated covers of *B. rupestre* from 25% to >75%, represented areas where the species was expanding
 1810 in large clumps, causing a sharp decline in plant species richness and diversity in the most extreme
 1811 cases. Grasslands on the right side had covers of *B. rupestre* <25% and were significantly much more
 1812 diverse. Figure 4 details the significant variation in species richness ($F = 25.8$, $p < 0.001$) and Shannon-
 1813 Wiener diversity index ($F = 18.46$, $p < 0.001$) between diverse and degrading grasslands. On average,
 1814 inventories made in degrading areas listed half the number of species present in diverse areas (22 vs.
 1815 11 species) and the diversity values dropped from 2.51 to 1.55. As the frequency of *B. rupestre*
 1816 increased, codominant grasses such as *Festuca* gr. *rubra* and *Agrostis capillaris* disappeared from
 1817 grasslands and legumes (*Lotus corniculatus*, *Trifolium repens*) declined, as did a significant cohort of
 1818 small-size and rosette forbs (e.g. *Cruciata glabra*, *Hieracium pilosella*, *Hypochoeris radicata*, *Plantago*
 1819 *lanceolata*).

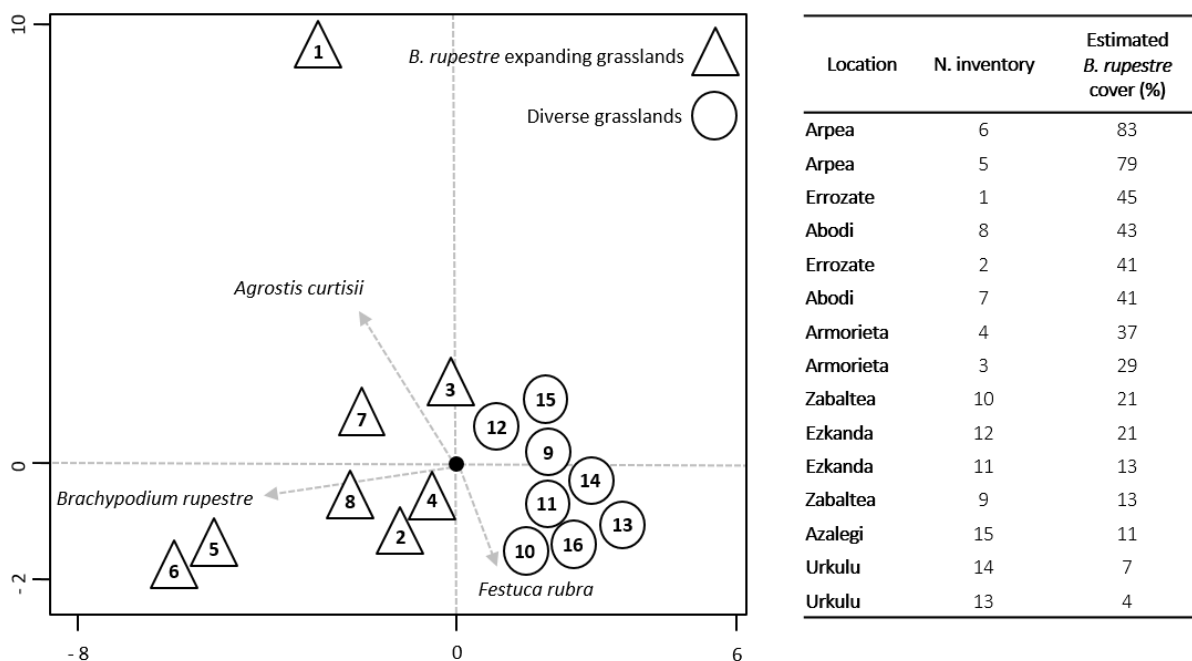
1820 Of the total area where *B. rupestre* was present, 75% were diverse grasslands and 25%
 1821 grasslands experiencing *B. rupestre* expansion (Table 2). Both types of grasslands developed at a similar
 1822 range of altitudes (800-1300 m.a.s.l.) and on similar parent substrates, but on a variety of slopes. To
 1823 obtain an estimate of the effective grazing areas, topographic and grassland maps were overlaid to
 1824 generate a new map that grouped diverse and degrading grasslands within the following categories:
 1825 areas with slopes greater than 50% (15°C) unsuitable for grazers, areas with slopes between 30 and
 1826 50% (7°C-15°C) only suitable for sheep, and flatter areas (<30%), appropriate for all herbivores (see
 1827 Figure a in the annex). Diverse grasslands were more frequent on gentle slopes (<30% slope), where
 1828 grazing was more intense. Around 36% of the area of diverse grasslands, and 14% of degrading
 1829 grasslands, were on gentle slopes, while steep slopes (>50%), inappropriate for the grazing of domestic
 1830 herbivores, occupied 22% of diverse grasslands and 31% of degrading grasslands (Table 2).

1831 To determine the energy supplied by grasslands, an averaged Index of Specific Quality (ISQ) of
 1832 0.5 was applied to *B. rupestre*. In the highlands, *B. rupestre* develops early in the season and tussocks
 1833 of the species exhibit a more rapid loss of digestibility than other common grasses. In addition, the
 1834 areas where *B. rupestre* expands are less visited by grazers, and there is little chance that new, more
 1835 digestible shoots will resprout, thus increasing plant quality. Table 3 summarises the pastoral values
 1836 and the available energy of grasslands determined from the floristic inventories. The diverse grasslands
 1837 had a mean forage energy of 1243.53 FU/ha, so the estimated energy losses in degrading areas were
 1838 587.96 FU/ha and 355.45 FU/ha depending on the level of grassland degradation. As a percentage,
 1839 47% and 29% of the energy available in diverse grasslands was lost due to the *B. rupestre* expansion in
 1840 highly invaded (>75% cover) and less invaded (25-75%) areas, respectively. Taking into consideration
 1841 the area suitable for sheep flocks (30-50% slopes) and for mixed flocks (<30% slopes), Table 3 presents
 1842 the total amount of FU lost due to the degradation occurring in grasslands.

1843

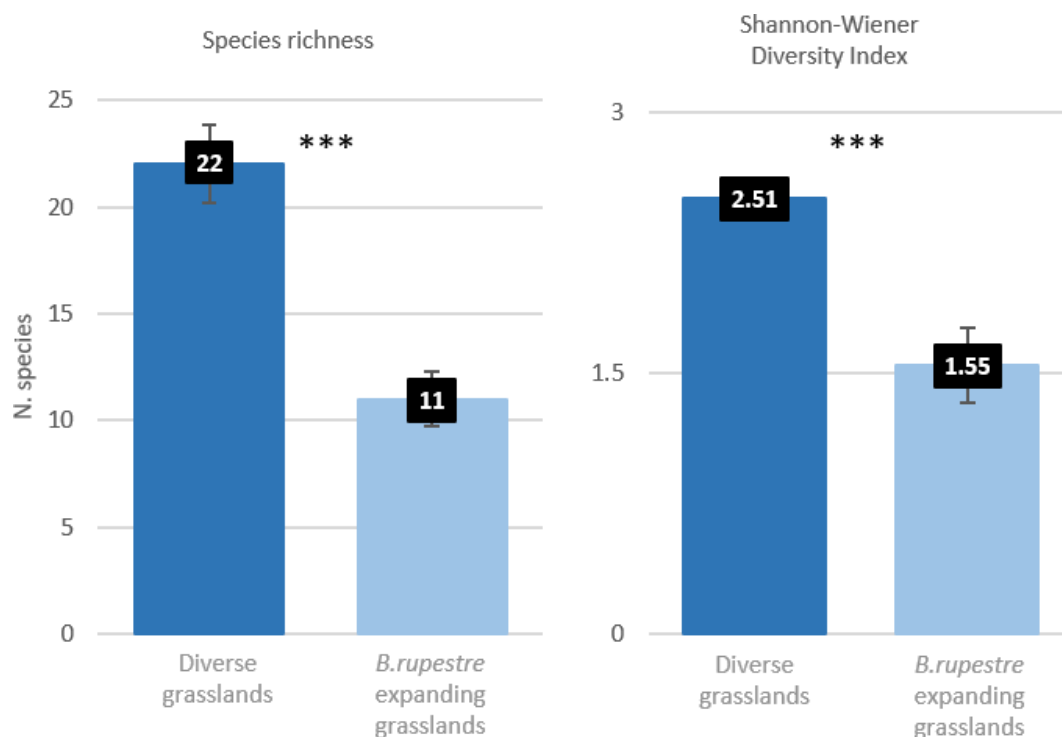
1844

1845



1846
 1847 Figure 3. PCA ordination based on the floristic inventories. The proportion of variance explained by the first axis of the PCA
 1848 is 67.8%. On the right, estimated cover of *B. rupestre* based on the floristic inventories.

1849
 1850



1851
 1852
 1853 Figure 4. Species richness ($p < 0.001$) and Shannon-Wiener index ($p < 0.001$) in diverse and increasingly *B. rupestre*-
 1854 dominated grasslands based on floristic inventories.

1855

1856

Table 2. *B. rupestris* estimated cover, areas and slopes in the Aezkoa high altitude grasslands.

1857

Type of surface	<i>B. rupestris</i> cover	Surface (ha)	Surface (%)	Slope	Surface (ha)	Surface (%)	Type of grazing
Degraded areas	>75%	190.91	16.83	<30	33.76	2.97	Mixed
				30-50	97.76	8.62	Sheep
				>50	59.39	5.23	No grazing
Expansive processes present	25-75%	96.85	8.54	<30	6.66	0.58	Mixed
				30-50	61.87	5.45	Sheep
				>50	28.32	2.49	No grazing
Diverse grasslands	<25%	846.25	74.60	<30	308.01	27.16	Mixed
				30-50	352.54	31.08	Sheep
				>50	185.70	16.37	No grazing

1858

Table 3. Pastoral values, grassland available energy estimates (in forage units, FU/ha), energetic losses of grasslands being degraded (compared to the energy available in diverse grasslands) and energetic losses for sheep and mixed flocks (depending on the affected hectares and the frequency of the livestock species on the different slopes).

1860

1861

1862

<i>B. rupestris</i> cover	Inventory	Location	PFV	Altitude	k	FU/ha	FU/ha average	FU/ha lost	FU for sheep	FU for mixed flocks
>75%	6	Arpea	14.33	935	60	860.00	655.56	587.96	57479.95	19849.87
	5	Arpea	7.52	943	60	451.13				
25-75%	1	Errozate	25.31	1062	50	1265.31	888.08	355.45	21991.69	2367.30
	8	Abodi	13.28	1307	50	663.79				
	2	Errozate	19.50	1109	50	975.21				
	7	Abodi	8.47	1331	50	423.73				
	4	Armorieta	19.23	869	60	1153.85				
	3	Armorieta	14.11	796	60	846.58				
< 25%	10	Zalbetaea	21.88	1069	50	1094.21	1243.53			
	12	Ezkanda	18.23	1017	50	911.35				
	11	Ezkanda	23.08	1022	50	1154.11				
	9	Zalbetaea	20.79	1038	50	1039.50				
	15	Azalegi	20.83	1086	50	1041.40				
	16	Azalegi	36.06	1064	50	1802.82				
	14	Urkulu	31.56	1264	50	1577.78				
13	Urkulu	26.54	1338	50	1327.07					

1863 3.2. Animal energy requirement and cost feedstuff replacements

1864

1865 Table 4 summarises the energy requirements and the cost of rations calculated for horses, cattle
 1866 and sheep at different reproductive stages. The feedstuff costs, expressed in fresh matter and based
 1867 on February 2019 prices, are based on the most common fodders used by local farmers and include
 1868 the costs of transportation for the products sourced externally (i.e. cereal straw, where production
 1869 areas are 70 km away from the valley). For cattle and sheep, we evaluated different rations that
 1870 delivered the energy requirements but differed in price depending on the proportion of farm-produced
 1871 (meadow hay and silage) and external forage (cereal straw, ground corn, concentrate feed and lucerne
 1872 hay). For horses, a unique ration was determined since it is customary to feed them only on farm
 1873 products. The total daily cost per ration (€) was calculated as the product of the number of kilograms
 1874 and the cost per kilogram of each foodstuff category.

1875

1876 3.3. Economic loss of provisioning value per unit area

1877

1878 The monetary cost per hectare lost to grazing (Table 5) was determined through a careful
 1879 overview of the energy needs of the different flocks/herds during their stay in the high altitude
 1880 grasslands. Based on the information collected during previous local farmer surveys (Ferrer and Canals,
 1881 2008), we compiled information regarding the proportion of livestock species and their energetic
 1882 requirements according to their reproductive stage during the summer period. Most sheep farmers
 1883 concentrated births in the autumn (November) to supply market lamb demands during Christmas and
 1884 maintained a lactation period for cheese production until late spring. The annual ewe replacement
 1885 rate averaged 20% and the sexual maturity required for mating occurred during the 16th month of life.
 1886 Therefore, a standard sheep flock comprised 80% pregnant ewes (five-months pregnancy period) and
 1887 20% replacement ewes. For cattle, the most common practice concentrated births in the autumn and
 1888 fattened growing calves in feedlots, which meant that most cows were pregnant (nine-months
 1889 pregnancy) and without calf during the summer. Cow replacement rates on farms averaged 13% and
 1890 heifers were first mated at 2.5 years. According to this, a standard herd comprised 74% adult pregnant
 1891 cows and 26% heifers (one- and two-year-old). With respect to mares, most remained in the highlands
 1892 after giving birth with their feeding foals, and became pregnant again (eleven-months pregnancy
 1893 period). Since the annual horse replacement rate was 10% and the first servicing occurred at 3 years,
 1894 a standard herd comprised 70% pregnant mares with feeding foals, 30% one- to three- year-old mares
 1895 and a small proportion (1-2%) of stallions. For the energetic requirements of mares, we took into
 1896 account a sole energy value because the higher needs of pregnant and lactating mares balanced out
 1897 the lower needs of young mares.

1898 Table 5 presents the standard flock/herd composition for each slope category, the number of
 1899 rations lost according to the animals' energy requirements and the unitary costs per ha, based on the
 1900 cheapest rations calculated in Table 4 for each type of animal and level of energy required. We
 1901 approached the animal species distribution in the territory by assuming that 30% of the area suffering
 1902 degradation was unsuitable for grazing (>50% slope) and that, in the remaining area, 80% was suitable
 1903 for sheep flocks and 20% for mixed grazers (flock composition in Table 5, second and third columns).
 1904 Since the total degraded area with a potential for grazing was 200.05 ha (Table 2), the resulting loss of
 1905 provisioning value was 21146€ (16731€ and 4415€ for the intermediate and gentle slopes,
 1906 respectively) and the averaged unitary cost was 107€/ha per year.

1907
1908
1909
1910

Table 4. Daily dry matter intake, energy per ration and total cost of different rations designed to feed horses, cattle and sheep with different energy requirements. Rations are based on the most common feedstuffs used by the Aezkoa farmers and are mostly based on farm-produced fodders. In grey, the cheapest rations for each physiological state. Source: INTIA based on February 2019 local feedstuff prices.

Animal	Horse	Cattle				Sheep				
Energy requirements	Low	Low		Medium to high		Low	Low to medium	Low to medium	Medium	Medium
Main forage source	Farm produced	Farm produced	Farm produced	Farm produced	Farm produced	Farm produced	Farm produced	High proportion purchased forage	Farm produced	High proportion purchased forage
Fodder 1	Meadow hay 85% dm	Meadow silage 30% dm	Meadow hay 85% dm	Meadow silage 50% dm	Meadow hay 85% dm	Meadow hay 85% dm	Meadow silage 60% dm	Meadow hay 85% dm	Meadow silage 60% dm	Meadow hay 85% dm
Fodder 2		Cereal straw 88% dm		Cereal straw 88% dm	Concentrate feed medium quality 88% dm		Cereal straw 88% dm	Luzerne hay 85% dm	Meadow hay 85% dm	Luzerne hay 85% dm
Fodder 3				Concentrate feed medium quality 88% dm			Concentrate feed medium quality 91% dm	Concentrate feed medium quality 91% dm	Ground corn 95% dm	Concentrate feed medium quality 91% dm
Fodder 4										Cereal straw 88% dm
kg fodder 1	15.0	30.0	14.0	14.0	12.0	1.2	2.4	1.4	2.6	0.7
kg fodder 2		2.0		3.5	2.0		0.2	1.0	0.6	1.3
kg fodder 3				1.0			0.7	0.4	0.8	1.0
kg fodder 4										0.35
Daily dry mater intake (kg)	12.8	10.8	11.9	11.0	12.0	1.0	2.3	2.4	2.8	2.9
FU fodder 1	0.65	0.75	0.65	0.82	0.65	0.80	0.90	0.80	0.90	0.80
FU fodder 2		0.50		0.50	0.95		0.50	0.70	0.80	0.70
FU fodder 3				0.95			1.00	1.00	1.27	1.00
FU fodder 4										0.50
Energy (FU) per ration	8.29	7.63	7.74	8.12	8.30	0.82	1.93	1.91	2.78	2.32
Cost (€/kg) fodder 1	0.12	0.04	0.12	0.08	0.12	0.12	0.09	0.12	0.09	0.12
Cost (€/kg) fodder 2		0.06		0.06	0.23		0.06	0.15	0.12	0.15
Cost (€/kg) fodder 3				0.23			0.27	0.27	0.25	0.27
Cost (€/kg) fodder 4										0.06
Total cost (€) per ration	1.80	1.42	1.68	1.56	1.90	0.14	0.42	0.43	0.51	0.57

1911

1912 Table 5. Standard flock/herd composition based on slope and flock energy needs, ration costs, number of lost rations and
 1913 monetary costs. Bold numbers indicate average values per species.

1914

Slope	Herbivore	Flock composition	Energy (FU) per ration	Cost (€) per ration	Flock FU/ration	Flock €/ration	N. of lost rations	Monetary cost (€)	Cost (€) per ha
		80% pregnant ewes	1.93	0.42					
30-50%	100% sheep	20% young ewes	0.82	0.14	1.71	0.36	46475	16731	104.81
		Sheep flock	1.71	0.36					
	28% sheep	Sheep flock	1.71	0.36					
	53% cow	74% pregnant cows	8.12	1.56					
		26% heifers	7.63	1.42					
<30%		Cattle herd	7.99	1.52	6.29	1.25	3532	4415	109.23
	19% horse	70% pregnant-lactating mares	8.29	1.80					
		30% young mares							
		Horse herd	8.29	1.80					

1915

1916

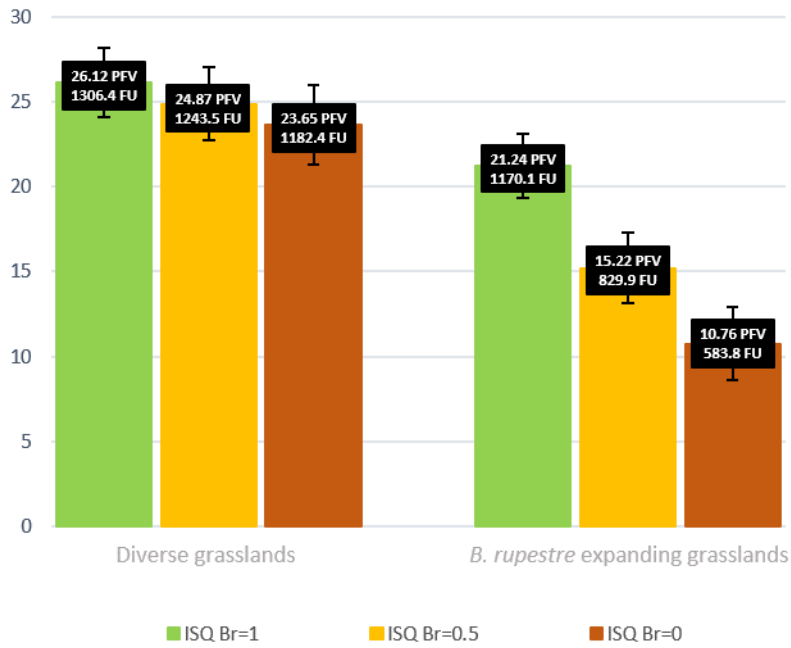
1917

3.4. Sensitivity analysis

1918

1919 The sensitivity analysis showed that the unitary costs per hectare degraded varied between 55€
 1920 - before the loss of digestibility of the species and considering the cheapest replacement ration - and
 1921 173 € - after the loss of digestibility of the species and the more expensive replacement ration (Figure
 1922 6). The major effect was caused by the drop in digestibility of *B. rupestre* over the season, which largely
 1923 decreased the pastoral value and the forage units of degrading grasslands because of the high cover
 1924 attained by the species in these areas (p-value < 0.01; Figure 5). In contrast, the energy losses were
 1925 not significant in diverse grasslands (p-value > 0.05), where *B. rupestre* was present at lower
 1926 percentages. The drop in digestibility resulted in high economic value losses in the degrading areas,
 1927 106€/ha and 114€/ha respectively, considering the cheapest and the more expensive replacement
 1928 rations. Comparatively, the economic losses due to changes in the cost of the ration varied within much
 1929 smaller ranges, namely 4-12€/ha (Figure 6).

1930



1931

1932

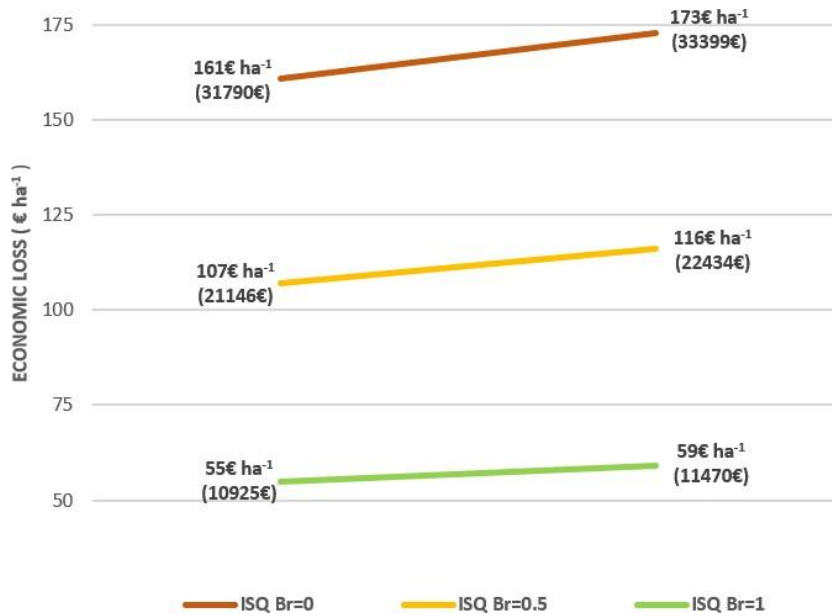
Figure 5. Loss of Pastoral Forage Value (PFV) and Energy Forage Value (FU) of the different grasslands due to the change in the digestibility of *B. rupestre* over the growing season and the resulting change in ISQ index from 1 to 0.

1933

1934

1935

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1937

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1940

Figure 6. Results of the sensitivity analysis, which considers the increase in the cost of the animal feed rations and the loss of digestibility of *B. rupestre* over the growing season. Numbers in parentheses indicate the total predicted annual economic losses.

1941 **4. DISCUSSION**

1942

1943 **4.1. Loss of provisioning value of high-altitude grasslands**

1944

1945 In the study area, each hectare of grassland facing the expansion of *B. rupestre* due to the decline
 1946 in grazing and the recurrent burning regime, undergoes a loss of provisioning value of 107 €/ha per
 1947 year on average, based on the cheapest replacement feed for the animals, i.e. using forage produced
 1948 on-farm. The loss of provisioning value of high-altitude grasslands has severe consequences for
 1949 neighbouring lowland regions and may also have an influence on processes occurring at larger spatial
 1950 scales (Schirpke et al., 2019). As highlands are abandoned, there can be expected to be greater demand
 1951 and competition for agricultural areas in the valley, which may result in scarcity of supply for farmers
 1952 with small farms or low productive land, and a consequent increase in fodder prices. In extensive
 1953 livestock production systems, where economic revenues are generally limited, the level of dependence
 1954 of external food supplies is critical to farm profitability. Market prices for raw materials providing
 1955 energy (based on cereal crops) and protein (based on legume crops) in animal rations are very volatile
 1956 and experience significant year-to-year fluctuations, since they depend on global and futures markets
 1957 more than on real production costs (Dronne, 2018). This situation of external dependence means an
 1958 increase in the vulnerability of extensive livestock production systems (de Roest et al., 2018).

1959 Moreover, the decline in the grazing of high-altitude grasslands is associated with changes in the
 1960 traditional production systems that may have a significant influence on animal welfare and on the type
 1961 and quality of the livestock products. The access of animals to an array of summer grazing areas allows
 1962 them to move freely and practice optimal dietary selection, which improves their overall condition
 1963 (Villalba et al., 2011; Gregorini et al., 2017). In addition, the current conditions of climate change and
 1964 the frequent occurrence of heat waves in valleys make summer grazing in the highlands particularly
 1965 valuable (Lees et al., 2019; Joy et al., 2020). With regard to livestock products, breeding systems based
 1966 on grazing have proved to be comparatively healthier and ensure better quality products than indoor
 1967 feeding systems (Elgersma, 2015; Cabiddu et al., 2019). In the area of study, most farms with
 1968 autochthonous sheep breeds produce milk which is transformed into cheese marketed under different
 1969 prestigious names such as *Idiazabal* and *Ossau-Iraty* (from the Spanish and French sites respectively).
 1970 In particular, there is a specific label to distinguish the high-quality cheese produced at altitude during
 1971 the summer grazing of lactating sheep (*Fromage des estives*, in the French central and western
 1972 Pyrenees). The decline of high mountain grazing areas would severely compromise this traditional,
 1973 healthy and highly valuable production system.

1974

1975 **4.2. Restoration efforts in mountain areas**

1976

1977 The decline of traditional grazing in high-altitude grasslands makes plant communities more
 1978 vulnerable to processes related to global change such as shrub encroachment, afforestation and the
 1979 spread of perennial competitive tall-grasses (Dullinger et al., 2003; Niedrist et al., 2009). Most of these
 1980 processes involve damage to the biodiversity, both at the landscape level - due to the loss of mosaics
 1981 - and the community level - because of the loss of specific species of grasslands and ecotones (Canals
 1982 and Sebastià, 2000; Sharma et al., 2014). The replacement of each particular plant species in a
 1983 community is associated with a loss of land-use legacy, that is, the adaptive history of the species which
 1984 evolved under an extreme environment (cold temperatures, long snow cover, intense solar radiation)
 1985 and an ancestral regime of summer herbivory (by wild and domestic herbivores). In the case of the
 1986 expansion of *B. rupestre*, the degradation of the original grassland community has been documented

1987 in this study in terms of the loss of species richness in the floristic inventories, from 22 to 11 species,
1988 on average.

1989 The recovery of degraded areas in highlands is associated with specific problems, mostly related
1990 to the slope, the altitude and the accessibility. In this study, 25% of the grassland area is experiencing
1991 the expansion of *B. rupestre*, but the chances of undertaking effective restoration measures are
1992 limited. Nearly 8% of this area is located on steep slopes, where grazing is not feasible, and 14% on
1993 intermediate slopes (30-50%), suitable only for small ruminants, where shepherding is difficult and
1994 requires a great deal of effort. Repeated prescribed burning of the steepest areas (unable to support
1995 grazing), intended to restore the grassland, is useless and has negative environmental effects. These
1996 regimes should be avoided, unless other environmental benefits (i.e. firebreaks, access areas) can be
1997 demonstrated. Conversely, efforts should focus on the areas of grassland more likely to recover, by
1998 supporting regular and managed grazing on them. Our results highlight the need to develop restoration
1999 efforts at a very local scale, based on the suitability and appropriateness of each particular location.

2000 The sensitivity analysis reveals how crucial it is to focus herbivory during the period in which *B.*
2001 *rupestre* remains digestible, in order to exert some control on the species and to provide a relatively
2002 good energy supply to herbivores. In grasslands where *B. rupestre* is expanding, its decline in
2003 digestibility over the growing season results in a high economic loss, varying between 106€/ha and
2004 114€/ha per year. *B. rupestre* develops a large biomass early in the season and its digestibility falls very
2005 rapidly. As the species becomes indigestible, the chance of grazers defoliating the species is lower in
2006 degraded grasslands than in high-diversity communities. In the latter, the species has a significant
2007 chance of defoliation because of the vicinity of palatable species, and consequently, high plant tissue
2008 renewal is expected (Underwood et al., 2014). In contrast, degraded areas are visited less by grazers
2009 and a thick layer of necromass accumulates, which reduces the chance of grazing (Canals et al., 2017).
2010 Despite the fact that these results highlight the value of early-season grazing, its implementation is
2011 complex in the practice. The occurrence of late snowfall events in mid-spring, very frequent in the
2012 highlands, and the length of the milking period in the valleys have a key influence on shepherds'
2013 decisions about moving animals to higher pastures.

2014

2015 5. CONCLUSIONS

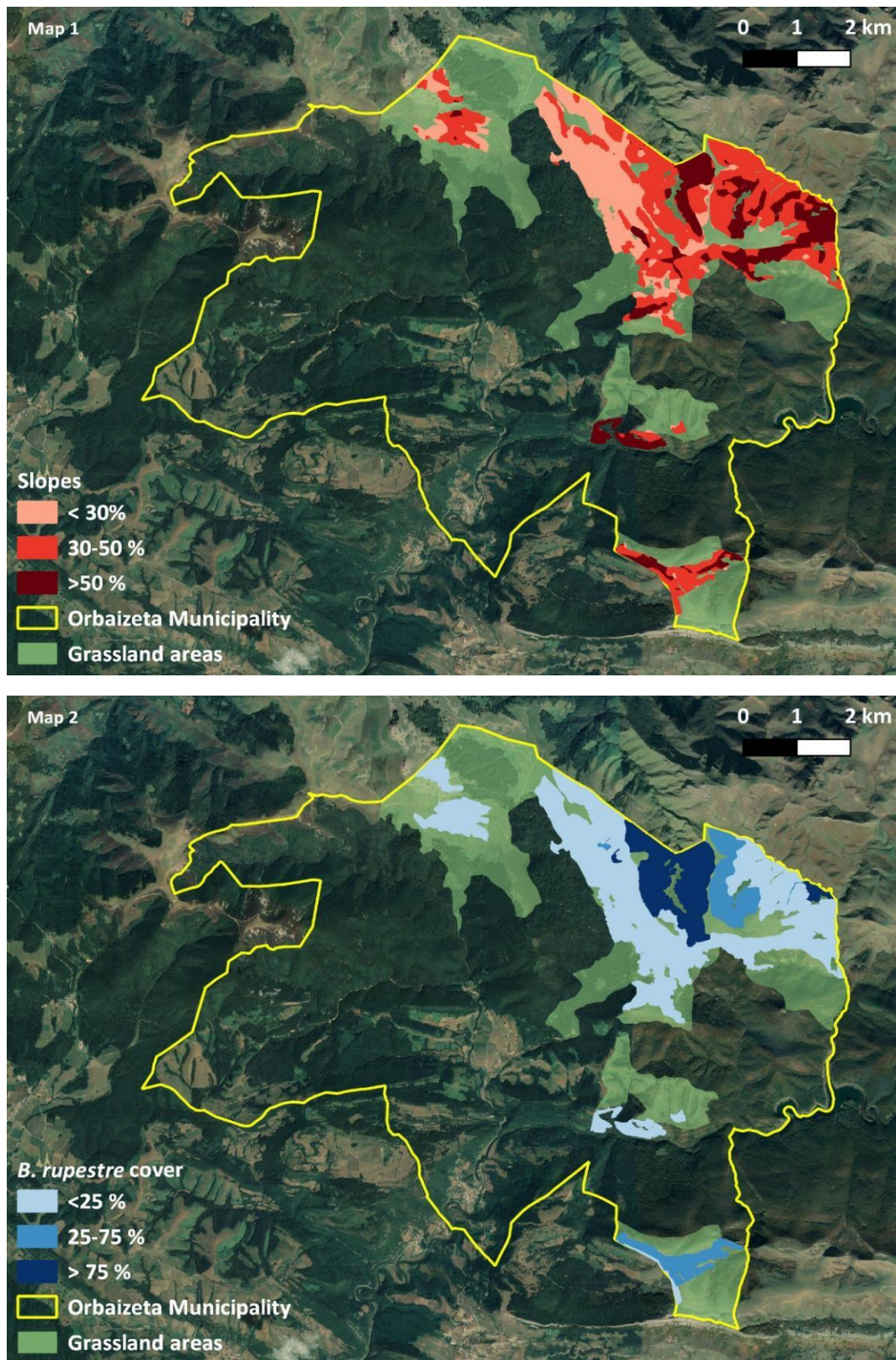
2016

2017 Monetary valuation of nature and of ES is a useful tool to provide a basis for discussion among
2018 stakeholders, land managers and policymakers, but needs to be implemented with caution (de Groot
2019 et al., 2012; Divinsky et al., 2017; Victor, 2020). In this research, the loss of the economic value of the
2020 provisioning service of high-altitude grasslands by means of the VEA method was conducted on the
2021 basis of careful field work to estimate the energy supply of grasslands and on the consideration of real
2022 market-based substitutes. Among ES, the evaluation of the provisioning value of grasslands is probably
2023 the most effective approach to raise awareness among rural communities, and particularly among
2024 those dedicated to the primary sector, of the consequences of the decline in the use of highland grazing
2025 resources. In mountain valleys, the chances of developing other economic alternatives to agriculture
2026 and livestock farming are limited, and any decrease in these activities may boost rural depopulation,
2027 which is currently a significant problem in Europe (Gretter et al., 2018; Canals, 2019). In this particular
2028 study, the loss of provisioning value may also affect the economic conditions of the modern
2029 international agreement between the Aezkoa and the Cize valleys, and local organisations representing
2030 farmers' interests on both sides of the border should definitely tackle this environmental challenge.

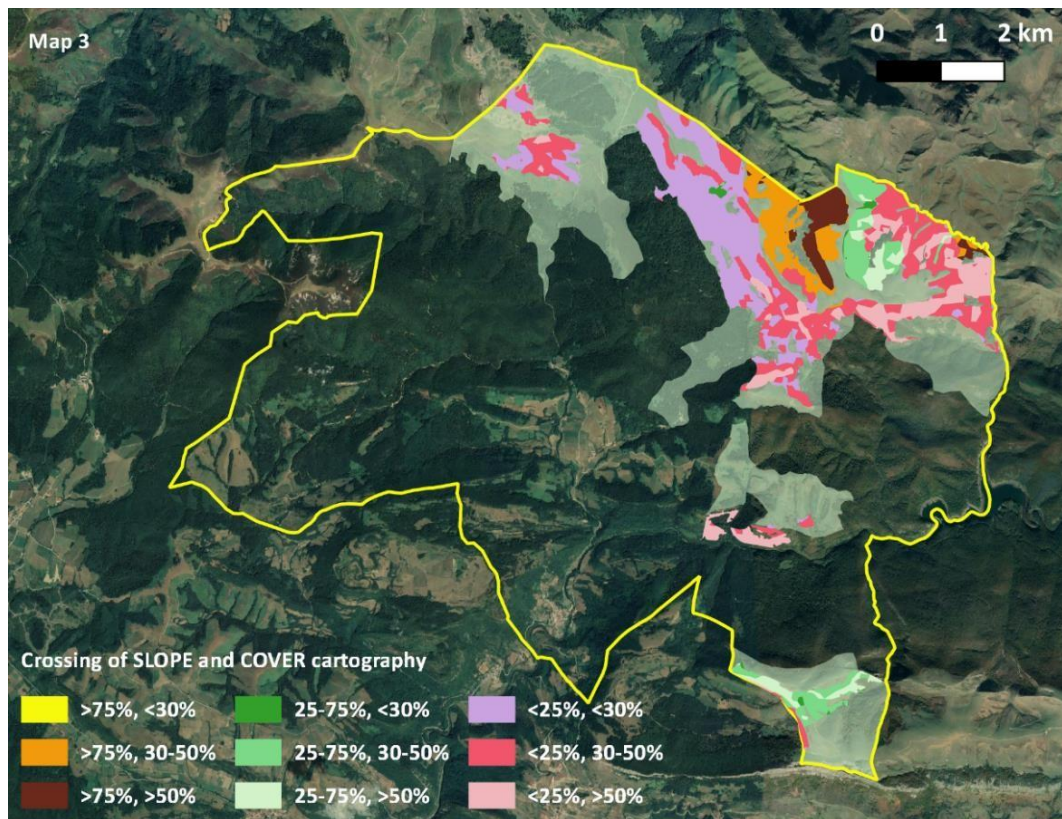
2031 Mountain grasslands have many assets of interest for human societies and one limitation of the
2032 resource equivalence methodology is that it fails to estimate the costs imposed on society of the
2033 environmental damage caused (Cole, 2013). Our study reveals the parallels between the loss of plant
2034 diversity and the loss of provisioning value in high-altitude grasslands. Biodiversity has been positively
2035 related to many ecosystem services, including atmospheric regulation, carbon sequestration, pest
2036 regulation and pollination (Harrison et al., 2014; Chen et al., 2018), although there are other ES not
2037 directly associated with biodiversity that are also crucial for human societies (i.e., climate regulation,
2038 hydrological cycle, erosion control) and deserve consideration. To obtain a complete picture of the
2039 positive externalities provided by high-altitude grasslands, the resource equivalence methodology
2040 used in this research should be complemented by other techniques (revealed and stated preference
2041 approaches) that can help to highlight and explain the consequences of the decline in traditional
2042 disturbance regimes in high-altitude grasslands.

2043 **ANNEX**2044 Figure a. Range of slopes (map 1), range of *B. rupestre* covers (map 2), and crossed cartography of slopes and *B. rupestre*
2045 covers (map 3) of the grasslands in the study area.

2046



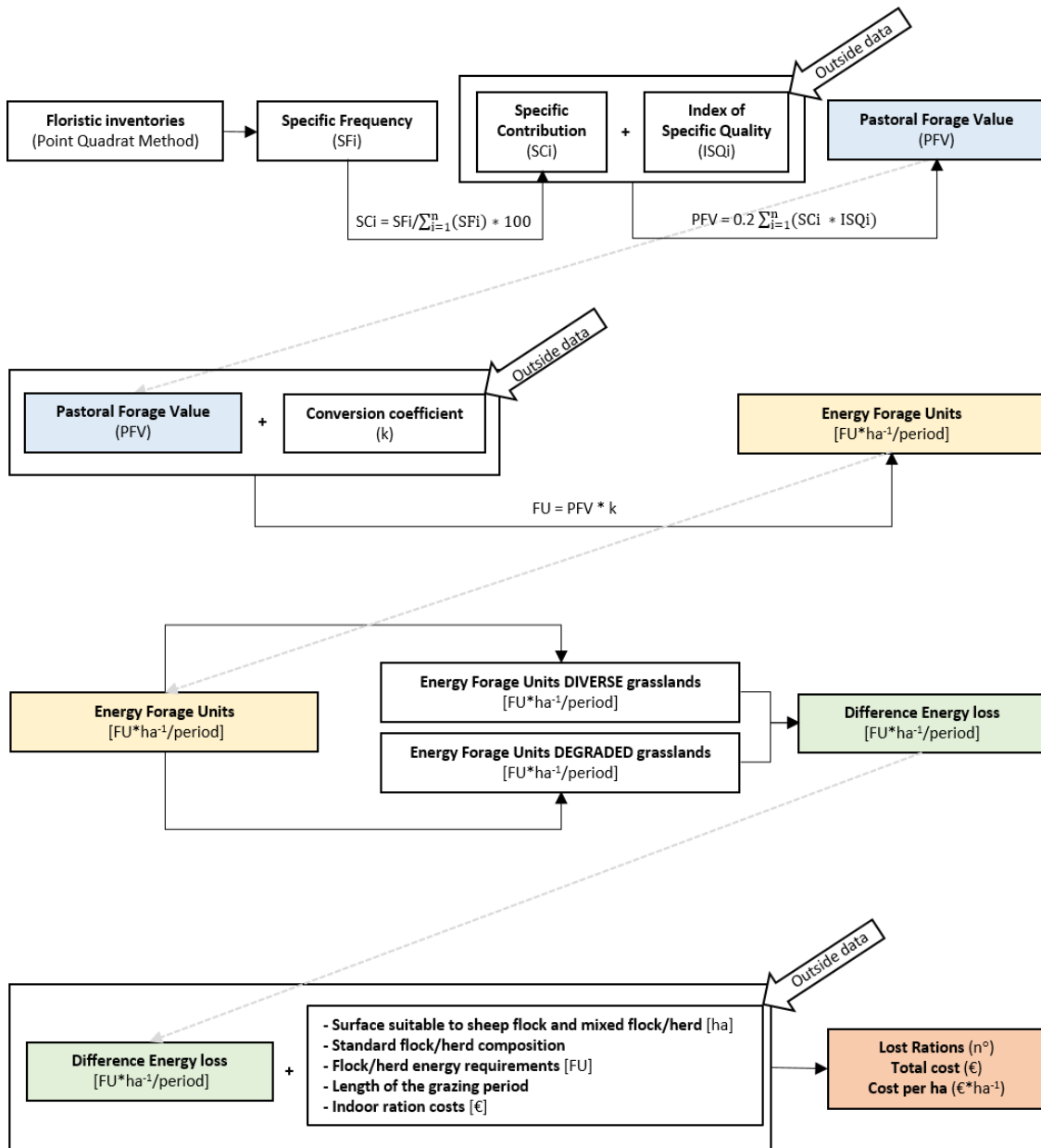
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Figure b. Outline of the methodological approach followed to estimate the loss of animal food rations and the monetary costs per unit of degraded surface.



2052 Table a. Specific Frequencies of the species (SFi) at each floristic inventory (n.16) in the different sites (n.8). Species specific
 2053 contributions (SCi) are calculated from SFi as explained in the annexed Figure b.

2054

	Errozate		Armorieta		Arpea		Abodi		Zalbetea		Ezkanda		Urkulu		Azalegi	
N.inventory	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
<i>Achillea millefolium</i>	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	12
<i>Agrostis capillaris</i>	0	9	10	1	3	0	1	3	2	7	11	6	18	36	3	27
<i>Agrostis curtisii</i>	29	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
<i>Avenula sulcata</i>	10	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
<i>Bellis perennis</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	1	0	0	4	1
<i>Brachypodium rupestre</i>	44	50	42	48	50	50	48	50	17	32	19	29	5	10	17	12
<i>Briza media</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	2	0
<i>Campanula sp.</i>	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	2	4	0
<i>Carex caryophylla</i>	6	4	1	9	1	0	0	0	9	3	7	4	5	3	13	2
<i>Carex flacca</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	11	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
<i>Cerastium fontanum</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
<i>Cirsium eriophorum</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0
<i>Cirsium filipendulum</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0
<i>Cirsium palustre</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	3
<i>Cruciata glabra</i>	0	0	1	3	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	2	1	1	0
<i>Cynosurus cristatus</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	3
<i>Danthonia decumbens</i>	8	0	1	2	0	0	0	0	3	6	10	10	0	0	3	1
<i>Deschampsia flexuosa</i>	0	17	3	0	0	0	7	5	0	0	1	3	9	2	0	0
<i>Eryngium bourgatii</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
<i>Erica vagans</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	13	7	1	0	0	4	0	0	1	0
<i>Euphrasia minima</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
<i>Festuca rubra</i>	0	17	18	30	7	9	8	17	35	41	38	22	37	25	34	34
<i>Galium saxatile</i>	0	17	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	16	17	7	10	11	0	4
<i>Globularia nudicaulis</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
<i>Hieracium pilosella</i>	0	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	5	3	5	3	2	0	7	5

<i>Hypericum pulchrum</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
<i>Hypochaeris radicata</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	1	5	2	6	12	0	0
<i>Lathyrus linifolius</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	3	1	2	0	0	0	0	2	1
<i>Leontodon hispidus</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
<i>Linum catharticum</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
<i>Lotus corniculatus</i>	0	0	0	5	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	4	3	5	4	0
<i>Luzula campestris</i>	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	0	3	2	0	0
<i>Nardus stricta</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
<i>Plantago lanceolata</i>	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	0	7	0	0	1	1	3	6	2
<i>Plantago media</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0
<i>Polygala serpyllifolia</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
<i>Polygala vulgaris</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	3	0	1
<i>Potentilla erecta</i>	0	4	11	5	1	0	11	9	6	15	11	15	10	5	1	1
<i>Potentilla montana</i>	0	0	7	7	0	0	4	6	3	2	0	6	1	0	8	7
<i>Pteridium aquilinum</i>	0	0	36	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
<i>Ranunculus bulbosus</i>	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	1	0	1	0	2	1
<i>Rhododendron ferrugineum</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
<i>Rubus sp.</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
<i>Stachys officinalis</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	1	0	0	0	2	0
<i>Taraxacum sp.</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0
<i>Thymus polytrichus</i>	0	0	1	0	0	1	13	8	8	0	1	4	1	0	15	1
<i>Trifolium repens</i>	0	2	0	2	0	0	0	1	2	9	8	5	4	6	5	16
<i>Ulex gallii</i>	1	0	4	1	0	0	7	4	1	4	7	10	9	4	5	0
<i>Veronica officinalis</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	3	3	1	0	0	0	7
Bare soil	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

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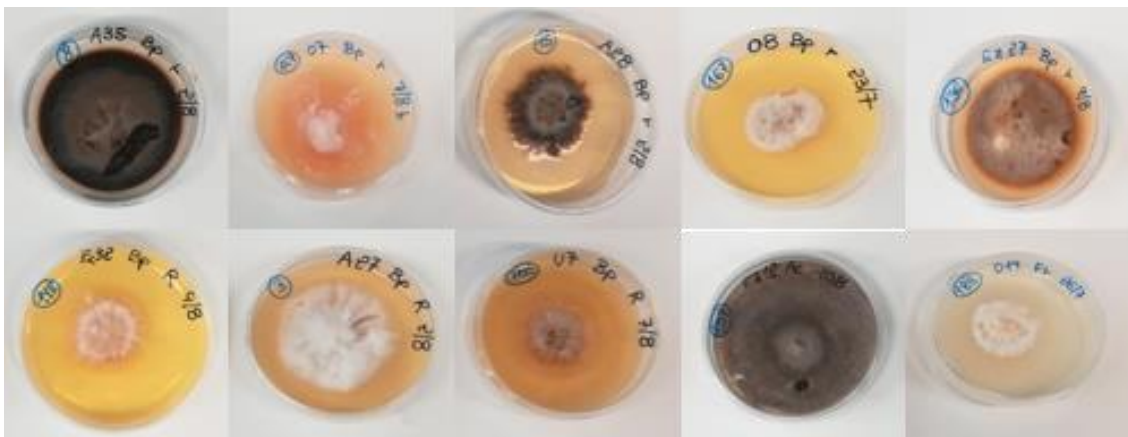
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CHAPTER 2

2326 **Disruption of traditional grazing and fire regimes shape**
2327 **the fungal endophyte assemblages of the tall-grass**
2328 ***Brachypodium rupestre***

2330 **ABSTRACT**

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2332
2333 The plant microbiome is likely to play a key role in the resilience of communities to the global
2334 climate change. This research analyses the culturable fungal mycobiota of *Brachypodium rupestre*
2335 across a sharp gradient of disturbance caused by an intense, anthropogenic fire regime. This factor has
2336 dramatic consequences for the community composition and diversity of high-altitude grasslands in the
2337 Pyrenees. Plants were sampled at six sites, and the fungal assemblages of shoots, rhizomes and roots
2338 were characterized by culture-dependent techniques. Compared to other co-occurring grasses, *B.*
2339 *rupestre* hosted a poorer mycobiome which consisted of many rare species and a few core species that
2340 differed between aerial and belowground tissues. Recurrent burnings did not affect the diversity of
2341 the endophyte assemblages, but the percentages of infection of two core species - *Omnidemptus*
2342 *graminis* and *Lachnum* sp. - increased significantly. The patterns observed might be explained by (1)
2343 the capacity to survive in belowground tissues during winter and rapidly spread to the shoots when
2344 the grass starts its spring growth (*O. graminis*), and (2) the location in belowground tissues and its
2345 resistance to stress (*Lachnum* sp.). Future work should address whether the enhanced taxa have a role
2346 in the expansive success of *B. rupestre* in these anthropized environments.



2351 **1. INTRODUCTION**

2352

2353 The study of the plant microbiome is a powerful tool that contributes to the understanding and
 2354 prediction of the resilience of plant communities to global change (Vandenkoornhuysen et al., 2015). In
 2355 extreme environments, where ecosystems are fragile and very sensitive to changes, the plant
 2356 microbiota is crucial to understand the adaptive capacity of plant communities. Low temperatures, soil
 2357 acidity, low rates of mineralization, and low nutrient availability are some of the common traits of arctic
 2358 and alpine ecosystems, where the study of the composition and function of the plant-microbial
 2359 consortium has been addressed in the last decades (Li et al., 2012; Poosakkannu et al., 2014; Rudgers
 2360 et al., 2014; Bråthen et al., 2015; Kotlínek et al., 2017).

2361 Current research reports that for a particular ecosystem, the composition and diversity of the
 2362 fungal microbiome of a plant host depends on its potential for carbon provision (plant abundance and
 2363 biomass), on the fungal propagule availability, and on environmental factors, mainly climate, rather
 2364 than on the taxonomy of the plant host (Higgins et al., 2014; Ranelli et al., 2015; Glynou et al., 2016;
 2365 Kivlin et al., 2019). The first factor, potential for carbon provision, gives support to the resource-
 2366 diversity hypothesis, the highest plant carbon determines the highest guest diversity (Wang et al.,
 2367 2020), and this effect is modulated by the richness and diversity of the neighboring host plants and
 2368 their own fungal populations (Hiiesalu et al., 2017; Vannier et al., 2020). Regarding the climate, the
 2369 historical and current precipitation regime is known to play a key role in fungal endophyte composition
 2370 (Lau et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2017), and its consequences in a scenario of climate change are a growing
 2371 subject of study in recent years (Giauque and Hawkes, 2016; Koide et al., 2017; Slaughter et al., 2018).

2372 In addition to the climate change, plant communities in some cold environments are being
 2373 affected by other significant mechanisms of change (Pauchard et al., 2009). Many high altitude
 2374 grasslands undergo profound changes due to the disruption of the historical regime of disturbances
 2375 that created and preserved them (Lasanta-Martínez et al., 2005; Komac et al., 2013). Fire and herbivory
 2376 are two crucial disturbances shaping the landscape of natural grasslands worldwide (Archibald et al.,
 2377 2005; Anderson and Hoffman, 2007). Extensive grazing by livestock in highlands has sharply declined
 2378 in Europe in the last decades. Grazing is considered the major driver of plant guild composition and
 2379 diversity in grassland communities (Milchunas et al., 1988; Canals and Sebastià, 2000; Frank, 2005;
 2380 Eldridge and Delgado-Baquerizo, 2018). Grazing has profound effects on soils, promoting root
 2381 exudation and carbon flow exchange to the rhizosphere (Dawson et al., 2000; Hamilton and Frank,
 2382 2001), enhancing soil microbial biomass and activating the soil biogeochemical cycles (Bardgett and Wardle,
 2383 2003; Shaw et al., 2016), increasing and redistributing nutrients availability (Augustine et al., 2003; Liu
 2384 et al., 2017) and affecting soil aeration by compaction (Jing et al., 2014). Through these effects on
 2385 plants and soils, grazing may affect the structure of the fungal microbiome of plants (Schulz and Boyle,
 2386 2005; Wang et al., 2020).

2387 Regarding fire, some high-altitude areas are currently experiencing an intensified regime of
 2388 anthropic fires to reduce shrub encroachment and biomass build-ups caused by the relaxation of
 2389 grazing activities (Köhler et al., 2005; Múgica et al., 2018). The effects of prescribed fires on soil
 2390 properties have been documented in a range of contrasted habitats (Alcañiz et al., 2018), including
 2391 high-altitude grasslands (in the Pyrenees, Armas-Herrera et al., 2016; San Emeterio et al., 2016).
 2392 Although prescribed burnings do not reach the high temperatures of wildfires, their short and mid-
 2393 term effects (thermal shocking, aboveground plant combustion, ash deposition, nutrient
 2394 mineralization...) may drive profound changes in the plant community composition if the fire regime
 2395 increases in recurrence (Uys et al., 2004). Regarding microbial soil communities, even low-intensity
 2396 fires may depress soil microbial biomass (Múgica et al., 2018), with complex consequences on the C
 2397 and N cycles (Soong and Cotrufo, 2015; Shaw et al., 2016; Pellegrini et al., 2020). The composition of

2398 soil fungal communities has been documented to be disrupted by fires as well (Artz et al., 2009; Egidi
 2399 et al., 2016; Semenova-Nelsen et al., 2019). Few studies have addressed the effects of fire on plant
 2400 fungal assemblages (Bellgard et al., 1994; Eom et al., 1999; Mataix-Solera et al., 2002), although
 2401 changes in species richness have been detected in foliar endophytes of burned trees (Huang et al.,
 2402 2016), and specific plant-fungal mutualisms and pyrophilous fungal species have been described
 2403 (Baynes et al., 2012; Raudabaugh et al., 2020).

2404 The western Pyrenees encompass large areas affected by the decoupling of traditional fire and
 2405 grazing practices. As a result of decreasing herbivore pressure and increasing burnings, a native
 2406 perennial grass is expanding. *Brachypodium rupestre* (Host) Roem. & Schult (Schippmann, 1991;
 2407 Schippmann and Jarvis, 1988) (= *B. pinnatum* subsp. *rupestre* (Host) Schübl. & Martens according to
 2408 some authors; Aizpuru et al., 1999), dominates grasslands and causes a severe loss of sympatric species
 2409 (Canals et al., 2014; Canals, 2019), a phenomenon also observed in other European mountain ranges
 2410 (Buckland et al., 2001; Holub et al., 2012; Tardella et al., 2018). In this natural setting, many questions
 2411 arise concerning the response of the plant holobiont to the changed disturbance regime. To what
 2412 extent the composition of the *B. rupestre* mycobiome responds to the altered disturbance regime?
 2413 Does the species harbor a specific fire-adapted mycobiome in frequently burnt areas? Or on the
 2414 contrary, is there sufficient inertia to maintain a similar mycobiome in a common climatic environment
 2415 (cold temperatures, high rainfall and humidity), independently of the current disturbance regime?
 2416 Since taxon-specific endophytes (such as *Epichloë* sp.) may confer a higher adaptive advantage in
 2417 stressful situations than broadly distributed non-systemic endophytes (Hill et al., 1989; Malinowski and
 2418 Belesky, 2000; Pereira et al., 2019; Harrison and Griffin, 2020), is the mycobiome of the plant
 2419 responding to these expectations?

2420 The main objective of this research was to characterize the culturable fungal endophyte
 2421 community of *B. rupestre* across a well-defined gradient of disturbance. The gradient encompassed
 2422 sites with different burning recurrences and levels of herbivory, which have led to different patterns
 2423 of grassland structure and diversity. We also studied the fungal endophyte community of the aerial
 2424 tissues of the most frequent companion species of *B. rupestre* in grasslands, *Festuca rubra* and *Agrostis*
 2425 *capillaris*. The purpose was to estimate whether the major diversity of coexisting plant species (and
 2426 potential fungal propagules) in diverse grasslands had a positive influence in the fungal assemblage of
 2427 *B. rupestre*.

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2429 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

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2431 2.1. Study site and sampling design

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2433 The study area was located in the Aezkoa Valley in the western Pyrenees (43°3r N1°13r W; 800-
 2434 1900 m.a.s.l.), and occupies an area of 198 Km². Because of the influence of the Atlantic ocean (55 km
 2435 away in a straight line) the weather is cold and snowy during winter, and mild and foggy during
 2436 summer. The mean annual temperature is 9.3°C and mean annual precipitation is 1856 mm, according
 2437 to data collected during 1989-2019 at the nearest climatic station, Irabia at 822 m.a.s.l. Soils are mainly
 2438 derived from sandstones and calcareous clays, acidic with high organic matter and loamy or clay-loamy
 2439 textures. The landscape is a mosaic of beech forests, gorse shrublands dominated by *Ulex gallii* Planch
 2440 and *Erica vagans* L., and grasslands dominated by perennial grasses such as *Festuca rubra* gr., *Agrostis*
 2441 *capillaris* L., *Brachypodium rupestre* (Host) Roem. & Schult, *Danthonia decumbens* (L.) and *Avenula*
 2442 *sulcata* (J. Gay ex Boiss) Dumort. Other species are *Galium saxatile* L., *Potentilla erecta* (L.) Räeusch,
 2443 *Potentilla montana* Brot., *Hypochaeris radicata* L., and the legume *Trifolium repens* L. The area is part

2444 of the European Protected Areas Network (Natura 2000) and was declared Special Area of
2445 Conservation (Roncesvalles-Selva de Irati, code ES0000126) in 2011 (Figure 1).

2446 High-altitude grasslands are extensively grazed from May to October by sheep, cows and horses.
2447 Domestic herbivores have been present in the area since the Neolithic, as numerous prehistoric
2448 pastoral remains indicate. Where an appropriate extensive summer grazing exists, grasslands
2449 constitute high-diversity communities that are burned every 6-7 years by the bush-to-bush traditional
2450 practice to control localized shrub resprouting (San Emeterio et al., 2016). However, in the last
2451 decades, the number of grazers has sharply declined due to socio-economical changes experienced in
2452 the valleys, and the use of repeated winter burnings to control the build-up of ungrazed biomass has
2453 increased (Durán et al., 2020). Nowadays, many areas are burned recurrently, every 1-2 years (Canals
2454 et al., 2017). Due to the frequent burnings and the lack of grazing, the grasslands are far less diverse,
2455 favored by the expansion and dominance of *B. rupestre*, which grows in dense and tall clumps.
2456 Consequently, the current open landscape is a combination of grassland communities with different
2457 degrees of cover by *B. rupestre*, which accurately reflects the level of herbivory and the burning
2458 recurrence.

2459 Based on the cartographic information provided by the management plan of the area (Ferrer
2460 and Canals, 2008), we selected six grassland communities where *B. rupestre* was present at different
2461 coverages: three areas had above 75% cover and three areas under 25% cover (Table 1 and Figure 1).
2462 The detailed floristic communities of the area are available in Durán et al. (2020). At each location, 40
2463 turfs (400 cm³) of *B. rupestre* (including shoots, rhizomes, roots and rhizosphere) were collected in
2464 summer 2018. We established a distance of ca 30 m among collected plants to avoid clonal individuals
2465 (Baĝa et al., 2012). In the three areas of diverse grasslands, 40 turfs of *Festuca rubra* and 40 turfs of
2466 *Agrostis capillaris* were also collected. Sampling points were georeferenced and the sampling grid
2467 covered ca 2.5 ha per location (Supplementary Figure 1). In total, 480 turfs were collected, placed in
2468 seedbed trays and transported to the UPNA laboratory. The plants in the turfs were processed for the
2469 isolation of fungi from shoots, rhizomes and roots in the same week.

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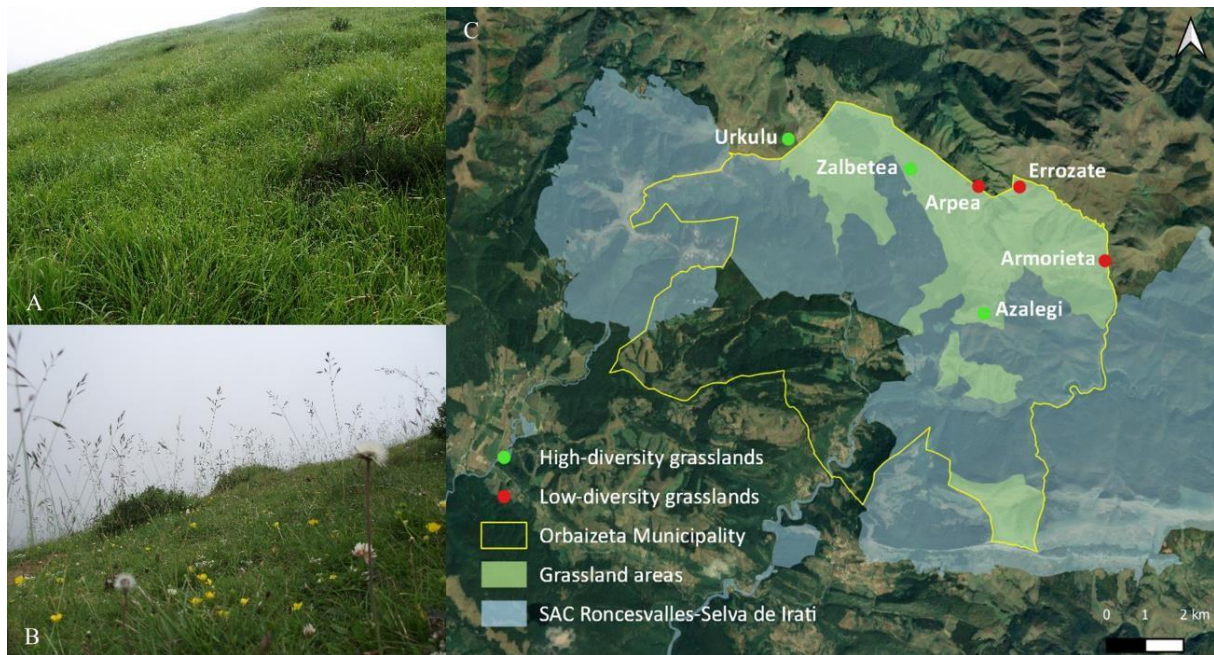
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Table 1. Characteristics of the six locations selected

Location	Fire recurrence	Grazing level	<i>B. rupestre</i> cover (%)	Plant diversity
1 Arpea				
2 Errozate	High: 1-2 years	Low to nonexistent	> 75%	Very low
3 Armorieta				
4 Urkulu				
5 Zalbetaea	Low: 6-7 years	Moderate	< 25%	High
6 Azalegi				

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Figure 1. Locations selected for collecting plants. Red points represent low-diversity grasslands and green points high-diversity grasslands (C). Pictures of the *Brachypodium rupestre* invaded (A) and non-invaded (B) areas.

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2.2. Isolation and identification of fungi

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We isolated fungi from shoots, rhizomes and roots of *B. rupestre* and from shoots of *F. rubra* and *A. capillaris*. Leaf sheaths and stems were cut into fragments of ca 5 mm, and surface-disinfected by immersion in a solution of 20% commercial bleach (1% active chlorine) containing 0.02% Tween 80 (v:v) for 10 min, and finally rinsed with sterile water. The fragments of rhizomes and roots were surface-sterilized with the same bleach-Tween 80 solution, but then treated with an aqueous solution of 70% ethanol for 30 s, and a final rinse with sterile water. About 10-12 tissue fragments of the same individual were plated in a Petri dish with potato dextrose agar (PDA) containing 200 mg/L of chloramphenicol to avoid the growth of endophytic bacteria. Petri dishes, kept at room temperature and ambient light, were checked daily for mycelium growth during 5 weeks. When mycelium emerged from a tissue fragment, a small amount was transferred to a new Petri dish to obtain a culture.

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Isolated fungi were grouped into morphotypes according to their morphological characteristics (colony color, exudates, growth type, and mycelium appearance). One or more isolates of each morphotype were genotyped for taxonomic purposes. To do this, a small amount of mycelium was scratched from the isolate culture and its DNA extracted using the Phire Plant Direct PCR Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific). The ITS1, 5.8s and ITS2 regions were amplified using ITS4 and ITS5 primers (White et al., 1990). PCR amplification was done at 98°C for 5 min, followed by 35 cycles of 95°C for 5 s, 54°C for 5 s, 72°C for 20 s, and a final phase of 72°C for 1 min. Amplicons were purified (Favor Prep™ Plant Genomic DNA Extraction Mini Kit, Favorgen) and sequenced by the Sanger method at an external sequencing service (STABvida).

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Because the range of intraspecific variation in ITS sequences is unknown for most fungal species (Taylor et al., 2000), DNA sequences were clustered using the CD_HIT program (Li and Godzik, 2006; Huang et al., 2010) and those with 97% or more similarity were considered to belong to the same taxon. A representative sequence of each cluster was selected and used to search the database of the ITS region from fungi type and reference material (Schoch et al., 2014) at the National Center for

2504 Biotechnology Information (NCBI) using the BLAST algorithm.

2505 In addition, the UNITE database of fungal nucleotide sequences was used as a complement for
2506 sequences without type specimens in NCBI. We also used the database FUNGuild (Nguyen et al., 2016)
2507 to get information on the ecological guild of each taxon, and to estimate for their possible functional
2508 roles.

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2510 **2.3. Data analysis**

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2512 To evaluate the efficiency of our sampling effort for measuring species richness, species
2513 accumulation curves were estimated with all the species, and also excluding singletons, species that
2514 appeared only once (Vegan package, Oksanen et al., 2017). We calculated the incidence of all
2515 endophyte species within each type of tissue (shoots, rhizomes and roots), grassland type (low and
2516 high-diversity) and host plant species, and determined richness and Shannon and Simpson diversity
2517 indexes (Vegan package, Oksanen et al., 2017). Differences in species richness and diversity indexes of
2518 *B. rupestre* endophytes were analyzed using two-way ANOVA with tissue and grassland type as fixed
2519 factors, and permutation tests was used to compare diversity indexes of *B. rupestre*, *F. rubra*, and *A.*
2520 *capillaris* shoots (Coin package, Hothorn et al., 2008).

2521 Venn diagrams were used to represent the taxa shared among grassland types, plant tissues and
2522 grass species (Euler package, Chen and Boutros, 2011). Frequencies were calculated from the matrix
2523 of presence/absence of isolates and permutational analyses of variance (PERMANOVA) were used to
2524 evaluate the variability of the fungal endophyte assemblages of *B. rupestre* between grassland types
2525 and among plant tissues. For that purpose, Adonis function was used (Vegan package, Oksanen et al.,
2526 2017). Distances were calculated using Bray-Curtis dissimilarities, set the number of permutations to
2527 9999 and constrained the permutations within each location. Since PERMANOVA analyses are very
2528 sensitive to heterogeneity of multivariate dispersions, homogeneous dispersion between treatment
2529 groups was tested using the betadisper function.

2530 To identify which species were characteristic of a particular tissue and grassland type, the
2531 indicator species tests in the Labsdv package was used (Roberts, 2019). The indicator value of as
2532 species (indval) measures the fidelity and relative abundance of the species in a particular situation
2533 (Dufrière and Legendre, 1997). General Linear Mixed Models (GLMM) was used to determine whether
2534 the indicator species for a particular grassland type presented differences in the probability of
2535 incidence among grassland types. The grassland type was included as the fixed factor, the location as
2536 the random factor, using a binomial distribution. In addition, GLMM was used to analyze whether the
2537 probability of incidence of some mycobiome core species from the aboveground tissues presented
2538 differences among host plant species. Host plant species was included as the fixed factor, location as
2539 the random factor, using a binomial distribution. GLMM's were done using the lme4 package (Bates et
2540 al., 2015).

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2542 **3. RESULTS**

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2544 **3.1. Isolation and identification of fungal endophytes**

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2546 We plated ca 10000 tissue fragments of *B. rupestre* (shoots, rhizomes and roots), *F. rubra*
2547 (shoots) and *A. capillaris* (shoots) in 960 culture media plates (10-12 fragments per plate). We obtained

2548 1151 isolates (ca 190 isolates per location) which were classified into a total of 95 morphotypes. One
 2549 or more isolates of each morphotype were sequenced, obtaining 116 sequences. After the sequence
 2550 clustering process, 61 different sequence types remained, which were identified into 53 different taxa
 2551 using the NCBI and UNITE databases. Twenty-two of them were classified to species rank, 20 to genus,
 2552 6 to family, 3 to order, and the remaining two to class rank (Supplementary Table 1 contains the
 2553 complete list of taxa identified and their accession number).

2554

2555 3.2. Diversity of the *B. rupestre* mycobiome

2556

2557 Fungi were isolated from 58% of the *B. rupestre* plants in low-diversity grasslands and from 43%
 2558 in high-diversity grasslands (Table 2). Endophyte incidence varied among tissues: 37% of shoots, 52%
 2559 of rhizomes and 64% of roots harbored fungi. Forty-five different taxa were identified in *B. rupestre*.
 2560 Endophyte species richness in *B. rupestre* shoots, rhizomes and roots were 9, 25, and 26 taxa,
 2561 respectively. Endophyte species richness in *B. rupestre* growing in low-diversity grasslands ranged from
 2562 9 to 22, and from 12 to 18 taxa in high-diversity grasslands (Table 2). Roots and rhizomes shared 23.9%
 2563 of the species, whereas shoots with rhizomes and with roots shared 8.7 and 6.5%, respectively, all
 2564 tissues had only 6.5% of all species in common (Figure 2). *B. rupestre* plants in low and high-diversity
 2565 grasslands shared 39.1% of the species.

2566 The most frequent species were *Albotricha* sp., *Lachnum* sp. B, *Omnidemptus graminis*, and
 2567 Mollisiaceae sp. (Table 3). *Omnidemptus graminis* was more frequent in shoots than in rhizomes and
 2568 absent in roots, whereas *Albotricha* sp., *Lachnum* sp. B, and Mollisiaceae sp. were more frequent in
 2569 belowground tissues than in shoots. In addition to the Mollisiaceae sp. taxon, other dark septate
 2570 endophytes (DSE) such as *Cadophora* sp., *Microdochium bolleyi*, *Microdochium neoqueenslandicum*,
 2571 and *Periconia* sp. were found, although with a low incidence. Members of the Clavicipitaceae family,
 2572 such as *Metapochonia bulbillosa*, *Metarhizium carneum*, and *Epichl e typhina* in shoots and rhizomes
 2573 also occurred. The frequencies of the remaining species were under 2% (Supplementary Table 2). Three
 2574 trophic types (pathotroph, saprotroph, and symbiotroph) were found in the mycobiome of *B. rupestre*.
 2575 The most common guilds were plant pathogens, endophytes and undefined saprotrophs. However, a
 2576 remarkable number of taxa were animal pathogens (*Clonostachys rosea*, *Tolypocladium album*, and
 2577 *Trichoderma koningii* are described as entomopathogens, *Metapochonia bulbillosa* and *Sarocladium*
 2578 *strictum* as nematophagous). Fungi with antimicrobial activity (*Fusarium circinatum*, *Glarea* sp.,
 2579 *Nemania* sp., and *Penicillium ortum*) and species with a high source of bioactive compounds
 2580 (*Acremonium* sp., *Gaeumannomycella* sp., and *Lachnum* sp.) also occurred (Supplementary Table 1).

2581 The species-accumulation curves including all the endophyte taxa were non-asymptotic (Figure
 2582 3), but when singletons were excluded the curves reached a plateau, suggesting that an increase in the
 2583 sampling effort would reveal few common taxa, and mostly rare species. Therefore, a sampling effort
 2584 of 100 plants is adequate to flatten the curves of the different tissues when excluding the singletons
 2585 (Figures 3B-D). A greater sampling effort would be needed to include all the tissues (Figure 3A),
 2586 although low-diversity grasslands need more plants than high-diversity grasslands to characterize their
 2587 endophyte richness (Figures 3E,F).

2588 Species richness and diversity indexes were significantly different among tissues ($F = 10.319$, p
 2589 < 0.001 ; $F = 18.336$, $p < 0.001$; $F = 24.114$, $p < 0.001$; for richness, Shannon and Simpson, respectively).
 2590 Shoots showed consistently lower diversity values than rhizomes or roots in both types of grasslands
 2591 (Figure 4). No significant differences in diversity were found between low and high-diversity grasslands
 2592 ($F = 0.210$, $p > 0.05$; $F = 0.180$, $p > 0.05$; $F = 0.311$, $p > 0.05$; for richness, Shannon and Simpson,
 2593 respectively).

2594 Table 2. Number of plants collected, final plates (taking into account the contaminations), fungal endophyte incidence (%
 2595 plants), and number of fungal species in *Brachypodium rupestre*, all of that according to tissue and location.
 2596

	Tissue	Number of plants	Number of plates	Endophyte incidence (% plants)	Number of fungal species
	Shoot	240	231	37	9
	Rhizome	240	213	52	25
	Root	240	228	64	26
	Total	240	672		45
Cover	Location				
Low-diversity grasslands	Arpea	40	107	59	21
	Errozate	40	112	60	9
	Armorietea	40	110	56	22
	Total	120	329		32
High-diversity grasslands	Urkulu	40	114	42	12
	Zalbetea	40	114	49	18
	Azalegi	40	115	39	16
	Total	120	343		30

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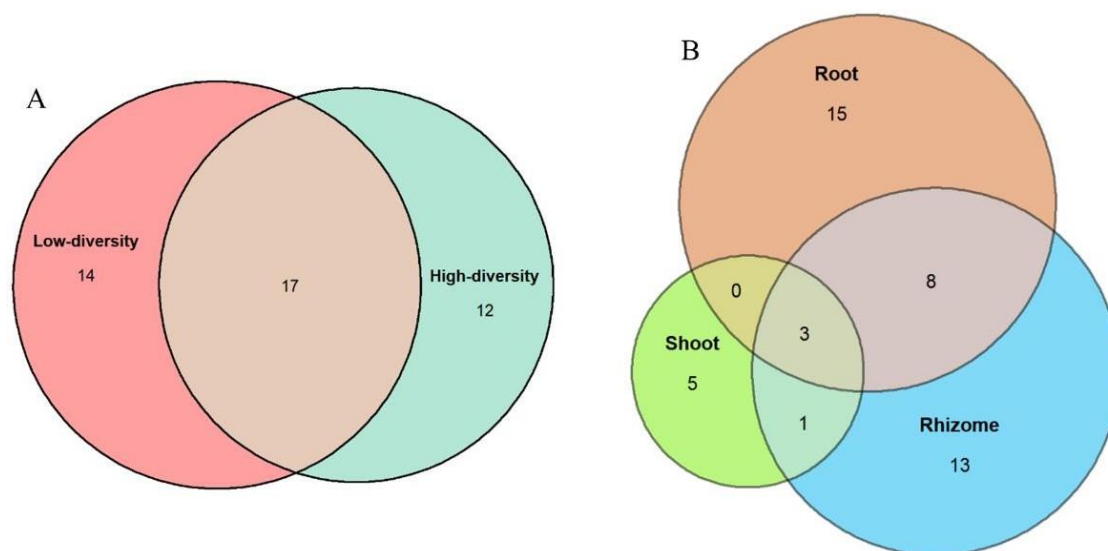


Figure 2. Venn's diagrams indicating the number of shared fungal species across grassland types (A) and tissues (B).

2613 Table 3. Incidence in *Brachypodium rupestre* plants of the most abundant fungal endophyte taxa, differentiated by tissues
 2614 and number of locations where they were present.

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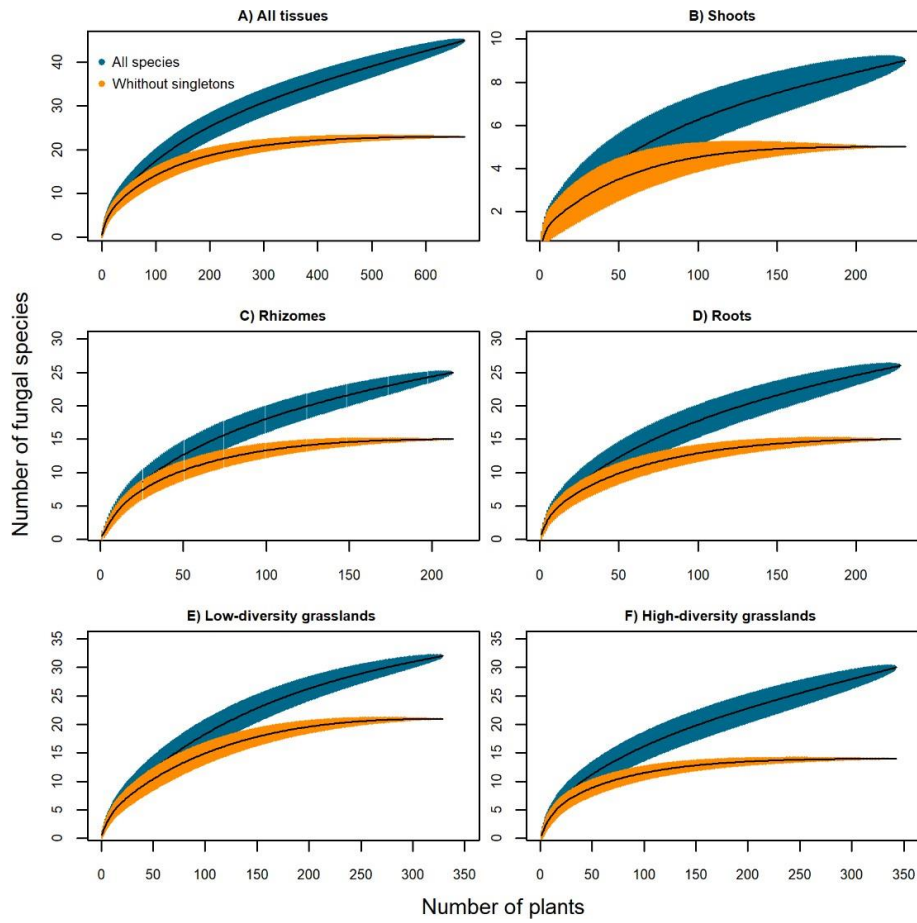
Tissue	Fungal endophyte	Low-diverse grasslands		High-diverse grasslands	
		Incidence (%)	Number of locations	Incidence (%)	Number of locations
Shoots	<i>Omnidemptus graminis</i>	46.1	3	23.3	3
	<i>Epichloë typhina</i>	2.6	1	3.4	2
	<i>Sarocladium strictum</i>	3.5	2	0	0
Rhizomes	<i>Lachnum</i> sp.B	13.9	3	8.9	2
	<i>Mollisiaceae</i> sp.	14.9	2	7.1	2
	<i>Albotricha</i> sp.	2	1	16.1	2
	<i>Omnidemptus graminis</i>	5.9	1	5.4	2
	<i>Metapochonia bulbilosa</i>	3	1	2.7	3
	<i>Fusarium circinatum</i>	3	3	1.8	1
	<i>Penicillium ortum</i>	2	2	2.7	1
	<i>Tolypocladium album</i>	3	1	0.9	1
	<i>Clonostachys rosea</i>	2	1	1.8	2
	<i>Ilyonectria robusta</i>	2	2	0.9	1
	<i>Microdochium bolleyi</i>	0	0	2.7	2
	Roots	<i>Lachnum</i> sp. B	35.4	3	16.5
<i>Mollisiaceae</i> sp.		14.2	3	14.8	3
<i>Albotricha</i> sp.		9.7	3	19.1	2
<i>Lachnum</i> sp. A		3.5	2	2.6	2
<i>Ilyonectria robusta</i>		0.9	1	5.2	2
<i>Glarea</i> sp.		1.8	2	3.5	2
<i>Dictyochoaeta</i> sp.		3.5	2	0	0
<i>Acremonium</i> sp.		1.8	2	1.7	1
<i>Fusarium circinatum</i>		0	0	3.5	2
<i>Mollisia</i> sp.		2.7	1	0	0

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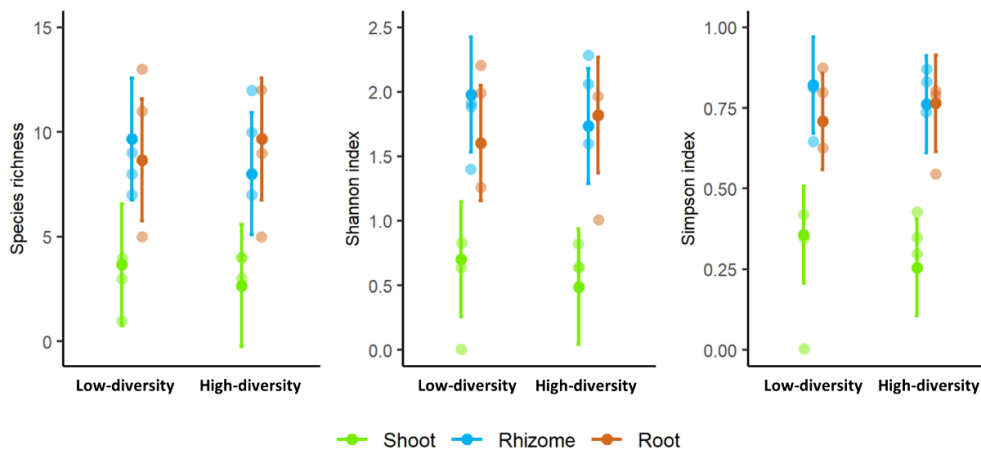
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2622 Figure 3. Species-accumulation curves of the mycobiota isolated from *Brachypodium rupestre* according to plant tissue and
 2623 grassland type. Black line, based estimator of the total number of species; Shaded zone, standard deviation; Dark blue, all
 2624 species included; orange, excluding singleton species.



2625

2626 Figure 4. Species richness and diversity indexes (Shannon and Simpson) of the mycobiome of shoots, rhizomes and roots of
 2627 *Brachypodium rupestre* in low and high-diversity grasslands.

2628

3.3. Distribution patterns of the *B. rupestre* mycobiome

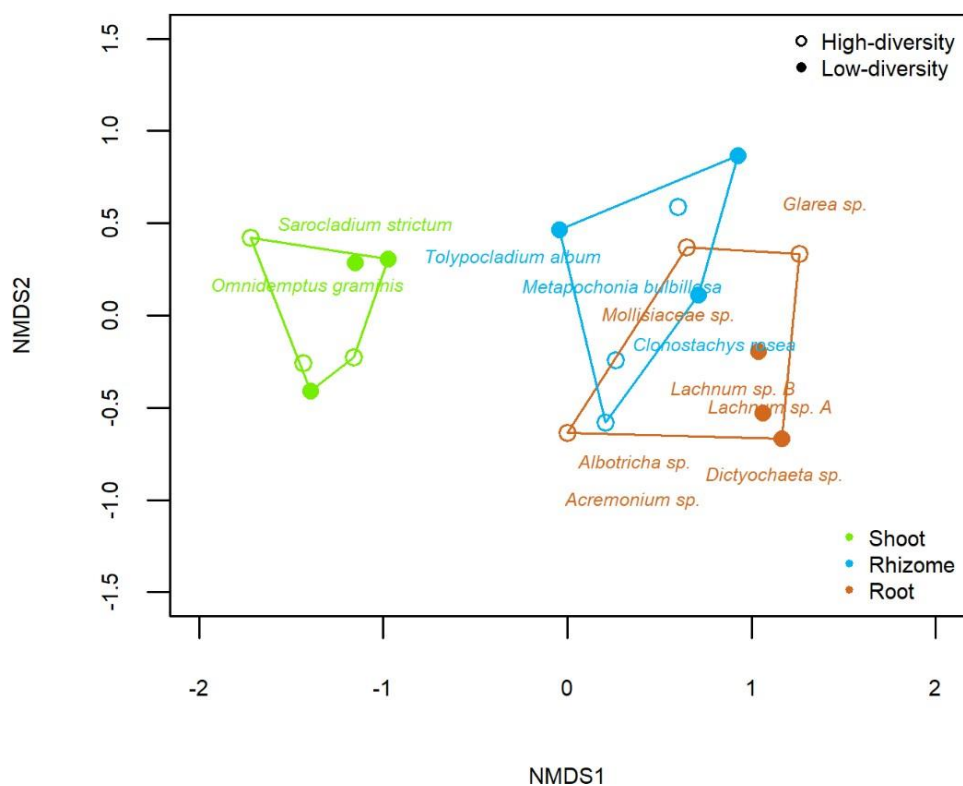
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2630 A homogeneous dispersion was found within different tissues (Beta-disper; $F_{2,15} = 2.195$, $p =$
 2631 0.146) and grassland types (Beta-disper; $F_{1,16} = 0.028$, $p = 0.870$), contrasting with the significant
 2632 effects on community assemblages. PERMANOVA analysis showed that tissue and grassland type had
 2633 a significant effect on the endophytic community of *B. rupestre* plants (both $p < 0.001$). Tissue
 2634 explained ca 50% of the variance of the model ($r^2 = 0.508$), whereas grassland type explained ca 5% (r^2
 2635 $= 0.052$). The NMDS (Non-Metric Multidimensional Scaling) plot discriminated the assemblages
 2636 according to the tissues and included the indicator species (Figure 5). *Omnidemptus graminis* ($p =$
 2637 0.001) and *Sarocladium strictum* ($p = 0.032$) were indicators of shoots. *Metapochonia bulbillosa* ($p =$
 2638 0.003), *Clonostachys rosea* ($p = 0.011$) and *Tolypocladium album* ($p = 0.009$) were indicators of
 2639 rhizomes. And *Lachnum* sp. B ($p = 0.001$), *Albotricha* sp. ($p = 0.001$), Mollisiaceae sp. ($p = 0.001$),
 2640 *Lachnum* sp. A ($p = 0.008$), *Acremonium* sp. ($p = 0.021$) and *Dictyochoeta* sp. ($p = 0.024$) were indicators
 2641 of roots. Regarding the grassland type, *Albotricha* sp. ($p = 0.001$) was an indicator of high-diversity
 2642 grasslands and *Lachnum* sp. B ($p = 0.004$) and *Omnidemptus graminis* ($p = 0.003$) of low-diversity
 2643 grasslands.

2644 GLMM's showed that *B. rupestre* plants from low-diversity grasslands had a greater probability
 2645 of having their roots infected by *Lachnum* sp. B (LRT = 4.5719, $p = 0.032$) and their shoots by
 2646 *Omnidemptus graminis* (LRT = 4.679, $p = 0.030$) than plants from high-diversity grasslands (Figure 6).
 2647 Regarding *Albotricha* sp., the patterns were not so clear and its probability of incidence in *B. rupestre*
 2648 roots was not significantly different between grassland types (LRT = 0.2849, $p = 0.594$, Figure 6).

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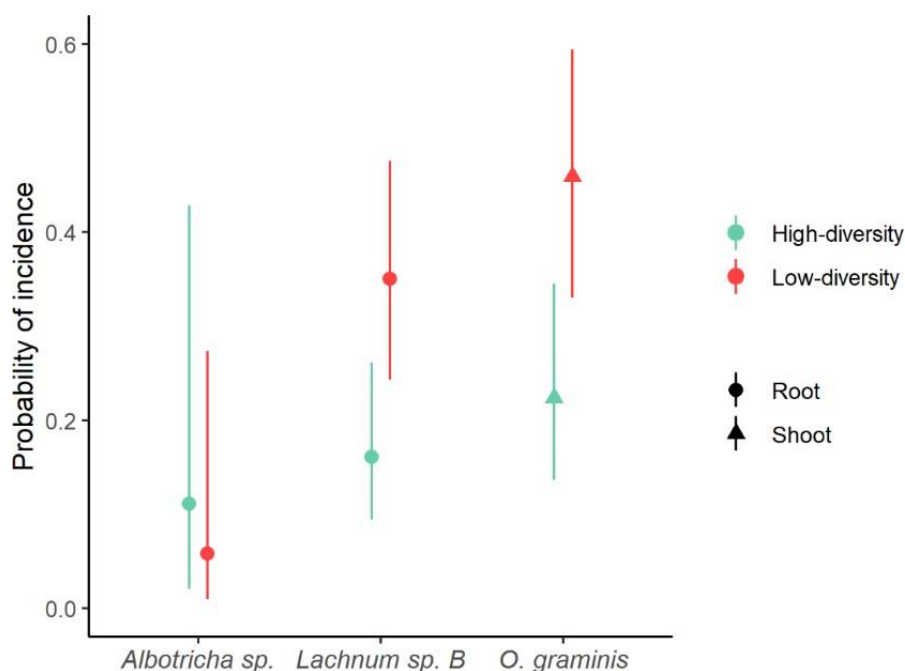
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2651

2652 Figure 5. Non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) of the fungal endophyte community composition of tissues of
 2653 *Brachypodium rupestre* from low and high-diversity grasslands.

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2657 Figure 6. Probability of incidence of fungal indicator species of *Brachypodium rupestre* calculated with GLMM.

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2660 3.4. Aboveground endophyte assemblages of the most common grasses in high-diversity 2661 grasslands

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2663 The incidence of endophytes varied among the shoots of the three grass species, ranging from
2664 25% in *B. rupestre* and *A. capillaris* to 38% in *F. rubra*. For each plant species, a strong variability of
2665 endophyte incidence among locations was detected (Table 4). Eight taxa not observed in the *B.*
2666 *rupestre* survey were isolated from *F. rubra* or *A. capillaris* (Supplementary material, table S1).

2667 A total of 23 taxa were isolated from the shoots of *B. rupestre*, *F. rubra* and *A. capillaris*
2668 (Supplementary material, table S3). Endophyte species richness in *B. rupestre*, *F. rubra* and *A. capillaris*
2669 shoots were 5, 10 and 16, respectively (Table 4). *F. rubra* and *A. capillaris* shared more endophyte
2670 species between them than *B. rupestre* with either (Figure 7). The three grasses had two endophyte
2671 species in common, *Lachnum* sp. B and *Omnidemptus graminis*. The most frequent endophyte species
2672 in *B. rupestre* shoots were *Omnidemptus graminis* and *Epichloë typhina*, in *F. rubra* *Epichloë festucae*
2673 and Mollisiaceae sp., and in *A. capillaris* *Lachnum* sp. B, *Epichloë baconii* and Mollisiaceae sp. (Table 5).

2674 When including all endophyte species, the species-accumulation curves of the three host
2675 grasses were non-asymptotic (Figure 8), but when removing singletons the curves flattened with a
2676 sampling effort of 50 plants for *B. rupestre* and 60 plants for *F. rubra* and *A. capillaris* in high-diversity
2677 grasslands (Figure 8).

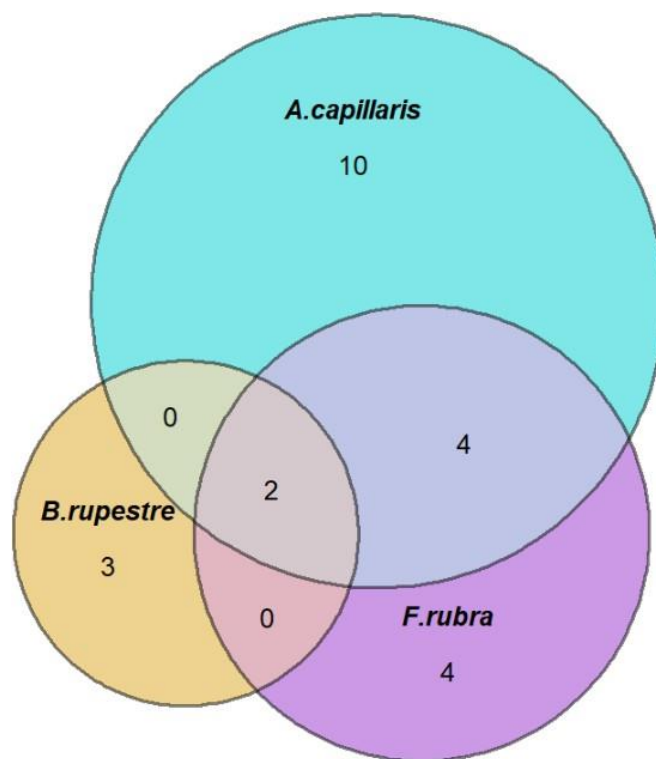
2678 The mycobiome of *A. capillaris* appeared to be more rich and diverse (averaged per site
2679 richness_{AC} = 7.0, Shannon_{AC} = 1.85, Simpson_{AC} = 0.83) than that of *F. rubra* and *B. rupestre* (averaged
2680 richness_{FR} = 4.3, Shannon_{FR} = 0.76, Simpson_{FR} = 0.36; averaged richness_{BR} = 2.7, Shannon_{BR} = 0.49,
2681 Simpson_{BR} = 0.26). However, the high variability among locations and the size of the sample (Figure 9)

2682 did not allow to detect significant differences in richness and diversity indexes among grasses in the
 2683 permutations tests (richness, $t = 1.7876$, $p = 0.1737$; Shannon, $t = 2.0697$, $p = 0.09614$; Simpson, $t =$
 2684 2.0193 , $p = 0.1076$).

2685 *Omnidemptus graminis* and *Epichloë typhina* were species indicators of *B. rupestre* ($p = 0.001$; p
 2686 $= 0.008$), whereas *Epichloë festucae* was a species indicator of *F. rubra* ($p = 0.001$) and *Epichloë baconii*
 2687 of *A. capillaris* ($p = 0.009$). The GLMM showed that the probability of incidence of *Omnidemptus*
 2688 *graminis* significantly varied among species (LRT = 38.194, $p < 0.001$), and had a higher probability of
 2689 incidence in *B. rupestre*, despite its presence in the other grasses (Figure 10). On the contrary, *Epichloë*
 2690 species were specific of each grass (*E. typhina* in *B. rupestre*, *E. festucae* in *F. rubra* and *E. baconii* in *A.*
 2691 *capillaris*), but the probability of *Epichloë* infection was higher in *F. rubra* than in the rest of grasses
 2692 (LRT = 34.581, $p < 0.001$; Figure 10).

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2697 Figure 7. Venn's diagrams indicating the number of shared fungal endophyte species among grass species.

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Table 4. Number of plants collected, number of final plates (taking into account the contaminations), fungal endophyte incidence (% plants), and number of fungal taxa per location for each grass species from high-diversity grasslands in aboveground tissues.

Grass species	Location	Number of plants	Number of plates	Fungal endophyte incidence (%)	Number of fungal species
<i>B. rupestre</i>	<i>Urkulu</i>	40	39	26	4
	<i>Zalbetea</i>	40	39	41	3
	<i>Azalegi</i>	40	38	8	1
	Total	120	116	25	5
<i>F. rubra</i>	<i>Urkulu</i>	40	39	51	7
	<i>Zalbetea</i>	40	38	8	1
	<i>Azalegi</i>	40	40	55	5
	Total	120	117	38	10
<i>A. capillaris</i>	<i>Urkulu</i>	40	40	38	7
	<i>Zalbetea</i>	40	40	20	8
	<i>Azalegi</i>	40	39	18	6
	Total	120	119	25	16

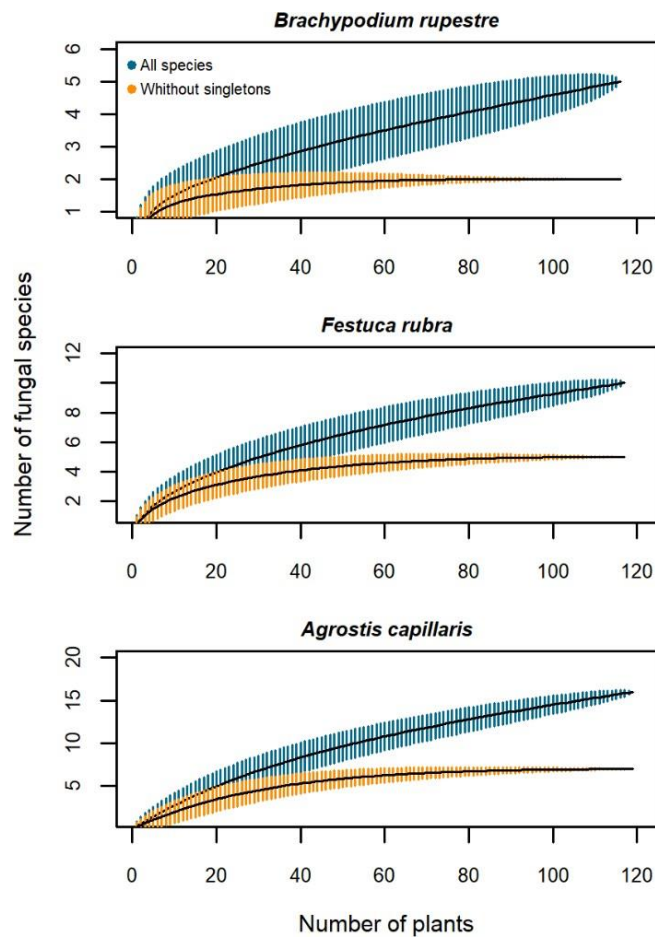
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Table 5. Percentage of incidence of dominant fungal endophyte species in shoots of three representative grasses of high-diversity grasslands.

Grass species	Fungal endophyte	Urkulu	Zalbetea	Azalegi
<i>B. rupestre</i>	<i>Omnidemptus graminis</i>	23.1	38.5	7.9
	<i>Epichloë typhina</i>	2.6	7.7	0
<i>F. rubra</i>	<i>Epichloë festucae</i>	23.1	0	50
	<i>Mollisiaceae</i> sp.	20.5	0	2.5
	<i>Albotricha</i> sp.	0	7.9	2.5
	<i>Alfaria dandenongensis</i>	7.7	0	0
	<i>Omnidemptus graminis</i>	0	0	5
	<i>Lachnum</i> sp. B	15	0	0
<i>A. capillaris</i>	<i>Epichloë baconii</i>	7.5	0	5.1
	<i>Mollisiaceae</i> sp.	12.5	0	0
	<i>Alfaria dandenongensis</i>	5	2.5	0
	<i>Ilyonectria robusta</i>	2.5	0	2.6
	<i>Albotricha</i> sp.	5	0	0

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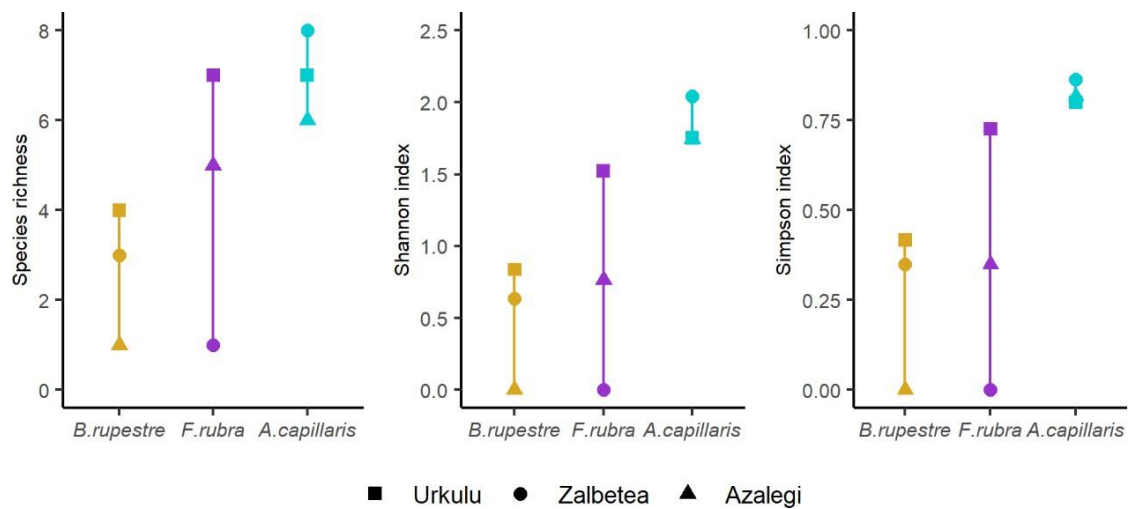
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Figure 8. Species-accumulation curves of fungal endophytes from *Brachypodium rupestre*, *Festuca rubra* and *Agrostis capillaris* shoots from high-diversity grasslands. Black line, based estimator of the total number of species; Shaded zone, standard deviation; Dark blue, all species included; orange, excluding singleton species.

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Figure 9. Species richness and diversity indexes (Shannon, Simpson) of the mycobiome of shoots from three representative grasses of high-diversity grasslands from three locations.

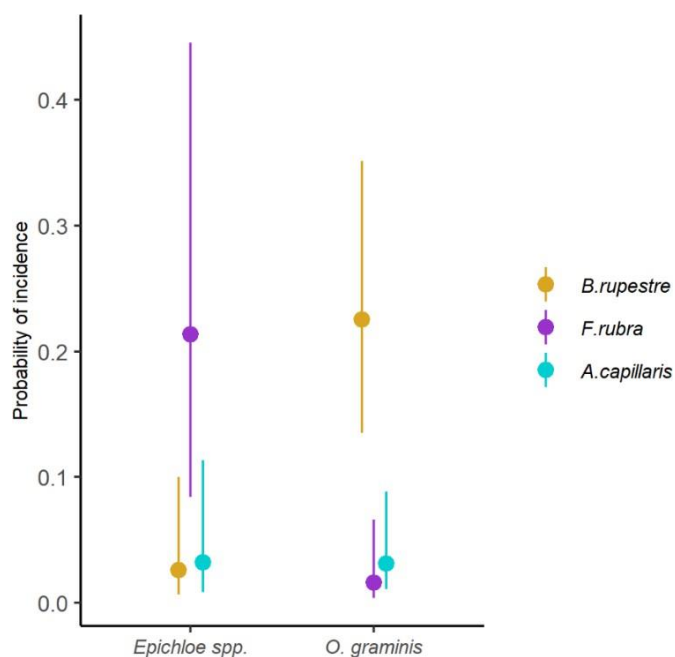


Figure 10. Probability of incidence of *Epichloë* spp. and *Omnidemptus graminis* in the aboveground tissues of the most common grasses of high-diversity grasslands.

4. DISCUSSION

4.1. Shoot fungal endophyte assemblages of the most common grasses

The richness and diversity of the mycobiomes from this survey was relatively low compared to other studies in grasses (Sánchez-Márquez et al., 2008, 2010; Pereira et al., 2019). The study of fungal endophytes is highly method-dependent (Hyde and Soyong, 2008). In this research, we applied a conservative protocol, with along sterilization process -i.e. 10 minutes vs 6 minutes in Pereira et al., (2019)-, and discarding the mycelia growing in the first day, which might influence the final counts of species (Burgdorf, 2014).

Despite the low richness reported, interesting patterns emerged from the shoot assemblages of the grasses. *B. rupestre* hosted the poorest mycobiome, half of that present in *F. rubra*, and one third of that of *A. capillaris*. Only two of 23 endophyte species identified were common to all grasses (*Omnidemptus graminis* and *Lachnum* sp. B). Recent studies indicate that plant identity influences foliar fungal assemblages more than expected from previous literature (Kivlin et al., 2019). Since the three grasses are sympatric and share an identical abiotic environment (i.e. climate, soil, location), other factors might define their mycobiomes. Plant abundance and capacity for carbon provision (*B. rupestre* develops more biomass but it is generally less abundant in diverse grasslands than the other grasses), potential interactions among fungal species (i.e. *Omnidemptus graminis*, which is abundant in *B. rupestre*, can induce host defence against other fungi (Schulz and Boyle, 2005; Constantine et al., 2020) and the different degree of herbivory (*B. rupestre* is less palatable to livestock than *A. capillaris* and *F. rubra*), may play a definite role in the structure of fungal assemblages.

Regarding systemic endophytes, the three grasses were infected by species of the genus

2750 *Epichloë*. *E. typhina*, *E. baconii* and *E. festucae* are highly specific for *B. rupestre*, *A. capillaris* and *F.*
 2751 *rubra*, respectively (Saikkonen et al., 2016; Leuchtmann et al., 2014). *Epichloë* species are known to
 2752 produce long-term, systemic infections and have a narrow range of hosts, limited to a genus or to
 2753 related genera (Schardl et al., 2009; Schirrmann et al., 2015). In the area of study, the incidence of
 2754 *Epichloë* was variable depending on species and locations, and symbioses with *E. festucae* were by far
 2755 the most abundant (up to 50% incidence in one location) compared to *E. typhina* and *E. baconii* (less
 2756 than 8% incidence in all locations). This is in accordance with previous research showing that the
 2757 incidence of *Epichloë*-grass infections change depending on the associations (Leuchtmann and Schardl,
 2758 1998). *E. festucae* mainly reproduces asexually by vertical transmission to seeds, while in *E. typhina*
 2759 and *E. baconii* seed transmission is absent (Leuchtmann et al., 2014). *B. sylvaticum*, a species close to
 2760 *B. rupestre*, is very common in forest undergrowth, and displays high levels of infection by *E. sylvatica*,
 2761 a seed-transmitted species (Meijer and Leuchtmann, 1999; Brem and Leuchtmann, 2001). The results
 2762 suggest that the capacity of systemic endophytes to infect host seeds and transmit vertically, which is
 2763 the most common reproductive mechanism in *Epichloë* species, leads to higher levels of incidence than
 2764 in sexual, horizontally-transmitted *Epichloë* species. This makes sense because in vertically transmitted
 2765 endophytes reproductive fitness is intimately tied to that of their hosts (Saikkonen et al., 2002). As a
 2766 consequence, mutualisms are expected to be more successful and intense in these situations. Of the
 2767 three *Epichloë* species identified, *E. festucae* has been extensively studied for its capacity to establish
 2768 successful symbioses in the most extreme environments (Pereira et al., 2019; Vázquez-de-Aldana et
 2769 al., 2013a; Zabalgogazcoa et al., 2013, Leinonen et al., 2019), and for the variety of advantages that
 2770 confers to the host plant (i.e. tolerance to stress, resistance to herbivores, plant fitness) (Malinowski
 2771 et al., 2000; Zaurov et al., 2001)

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2773 4.2. Fungal tissue assemblages and core mycobiome of *B. rupestre*

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2775 Roots and rhizomes of *B. rupestre* displayed different endophyte assemblages than
 2776 aboveground tissues, had the greatest percentages of fungal infection (Figure 5), and a significantly
 2777 high richness and diversity of taxa. Previous studies have shown that belowground tissues have greater
 2778 endophyte diversity than aerial tissues, and this could be related to the level of tissue exposition to
 2779 fungal inoculum (Sánchez-Márquez et al., 2010; Harrison and Griffin, 2020). In *B. rupestre*, as in many
 2780 perennial grasses, most aboveground tissues die and renew annually, while belowground tissues such
 2781 as rhizomes, survive and consequently have a larger time frame for fungal reinfection.

2782 As in other grass species, the mycobiome of *B. rupestre* was constituted by a few core species
 2783 and many rare species (Comby et al., 2016; Ofek-Lalzar et al., 2016; Pereira et al., 2019; Sun et al.,
 2784 2020). Only two species were found in more than 20% of the *B. rupestre* plants and in most locations,
 2785 *Omnidemptus graminis* in shoots and rhizomes and *Lachnum* sp. B in roots and rhizomes. *O. graminis*
 2786 is a member of the Magnaporthaceae that has been described recently (Hernández-Restrepo et al.,
 2787 2019). Although some Magnaporthaceae strains have shown plant-growth promoting activity (Yuan et
 2788 al., 2010; Changyeol et al., 2017), the best known members of this family are pathogens of grasses,
 2789 associated to roots (*Gaeumannomyces graminis* and *Magnaporthe poae*) and shoots (*Magnaporthe*
 2790 *oryzae*) (Illana et al., 2013). *M. oryzae* is a hemibiotrophic fungus that causes the rice blast disease.
 2791 This species switches from a biotrophic growth phase -it feeds from the host plant without killing its
 2792 cells- in early infection to a necrotrophic stage (Kankanala et al., 2007). According to Talbot et al.
 2793 (1997), the switch between phases may be triggered by the lack of nutrients within the host cell. In
 2794 this survey, *O. graminis* was present in asymptomatic plants, suggesting at least the occurrence of a
 2795 biotrophic phase of unknown duration. As many other fungal endophytes, this species may have a
 2796 latent saprobic lifestyle (Vázquez-de-Aldana et al., 2013b).

2797 *Lachnum* is a large genus within the Hyaloscyphaeaceae family with more than 250 species
 2798 described and distributed in a wide range of habitats and host species (Wu and Su, 2007; Nagao, 2008).
 2799 Most *Lachnum* species are latent saprophytes, that may grow as endophytes in roots of perennial
 2800 grasses (Sánchez-Márquez et al., 2010; Pereira et al., 2019) and form ericoid mycorrhiza coils in some
 2801 Ericaceae (Walker et al., 2011). Many *Lachnum* sp. are bioactive, producing a wide range of biologically
 2802 active compounds (Shan et al., 1997; Ondeyka et al., 2009; McMullin et al., 2017; Zong et al., 2017).

2803 In addition to the core species *Omnidemptus graminis* and *Lachnum* sp., the culturable
 2804 mycobiota of *B. rupestre* was characterized by a remarkable number of taxa with recognized defensive
 2805 activities, such as entomopathogenic fungi (*Tolypocladium album* and *Sarocladium strictum*) (Gera Hol
 2806 et al., 2007; Quesada-Moraga et al., 2014; El-Sayed et al., 2020), nematophagous fungi (*Metapochonia*
 2807 *bulbillosa* and *Clonostachys rosea*) (Sankaranarayanan et al., 1997; Ownley et al., 2010; Manzanilla-
 2808 López and Lopez-Llorca, 2017), and fungi with antifungal activity (*Fusarium circinatum*, *Penicillium*
 2809 *ortum*, *Lachnum* sp., *Glarea* sp., *Trichoderma* sp., *Trichoderma koningii* and *Nemania* sp.) (Ondeyka et
 2810 al., 2009, Youssar et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2014, Mousa et al., 2015, Kornsakulkarn et al., 2017). The
 2811 known defensive functions of this group of microorganisms may confer a decisive advantage to *B.*
 2812 *rupestre*, which may use them for its own protection, as predators of its pathogens and pests,
 2813 according to the bodyguard hypothesis (Elliot et al., 2000). To what extent this particular defensive
 2814 assemblage plays a key role in the success and expansion of *B. rupestre* with regard to other grasses is
 2815 a matter of interest that needs further research.

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2817 **4.3. Fungal assemblages in *B. rupestre* associated to specific grasslands**

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2819 Low and high-diversity grasslands, generated by a distinctive disturbance regime, had similar
 2820 fungal richness and diversity (Figure 4), but different endophyte assemblages (Figure 2 and
 2821 PERMANOVA analysis). Differences were mostly due to the different probability of incidence of the
 2822 core taxa (Figure 6). *B. rupestre* in low-diversity grasslands had a greater probability of incidence of
 2823 *Omnidemptus graminis* and *Lachnum* sp. B than in high-diversity grasslands, and the two grassland
 2824 types only shared 36% of the total fungal taxa identified. Considering that we sampled 120 turfs per
 2825 grassland type, and that we did not reach the asymptote in the species accumulation curves (Figure 3),
 2826 a more exhaustive sampling effort would be necessary to draw conclusions on a specific cohort of rare
 2827 taxa per grassland type. With regard to the systemic endophyte *E. typhina*, no significant differences
 2828 in the probability of incidence were found between grassland types. In consequence, the highest
 2829 degree of incidence of the two core taxa, *O. graminis* (in shoots and rhizomes) and *Lachnum* sp. B (in
 2830 roots and rhizomes), in low-diversity, recurrently burned grasslands was the most sound result of this
 2831 part of the study.

2832 From the spectrum of core species infecting *B. rupestre*, *O. graminis* was only found in shoots
 2833 and rhizomes, which indicates its affinity for both tissues, which are anatomically similar (de Kroon and
 2834 Knops, 1990), and different from roots (Table 3). When isolated and cultured in plates, we observed
 2835 rapid mycelial growth of *O. graminis* compared to the rest of species. We hypothesize that fires destroy
 2836 the aerial mycelium of *O. graminis*, together with the aboveground biomass of the plant, but the
 2837 fungus remains in the rhizome reservoir. Since fire is applied in winter time in moist soils, the
 2838 temperatures reached in the top soil are low (at 1 cm deep, soil temperature rise 9-10 °C and no change
 2839 is measured at 5 cm depth - data unpublished), and the function of rhizomes remains unaffected.
 2840 Consequently, recolonization of the aboveground tissues by the rhizome mycelium of *O. graminis* can
 2841 occur rapidly, paralleling the regrowth of the plant, and conferring a decisive initial advantage to this
 2842 fungal species.

2843 Regarding *Lachnum* sp. B, the increased incidence of this fungal species in frequently-burnt areas

2844 paralleled a consistent decrease of *Albotricha* sp. in roots and rhizomes (Table 3). These two
 2845 endophytic taxa constitute a large part of the belowground mycobiome of *B. rupestre* and belong to
 2846 the same family, Hyaloscyphaceae. The close phylogeny of both genera and the polyphyly of the
 2847 *Lachnum* group has been demonstrated in genetic studies (Ye and Zhuang, 2003; Hosoya et al., 2010).
 2848 The pattern of increased *Lachnum* sp. and decreased *Albotricha* sp. infection in the most burned sites,
 2849 may indicate a negative interaction between both species, or a contrasting response among them to
 2850 the fire disturbance. The capacity of *Lachnum* sp. to cope with environmental stress, by producing
 2851 sclerotia and adopting latent forms, and its growth in belowground structures, which are less affected
 2852 by fire than aboveground structures, may help to explain its success. In particular, in temperate
 2853 shrublands close to the region of study, ascocarps of *Lachnum pygmaeum* have been observed on
 2854 charred wood and roots of *Ulex europaeus* (unpublished results). It is known that the thermal shock
 2855 produced by fire may enhance fungal fecundity and activate the development of sexual structures in
 2856 some pyrophilous fungi (Raudabaugh et al., 2020). Also, fungal biomass may be increased by fires, as
 2857 demonstrated for the pyrophilous fungi *Morchella* sp. infecting the grass *Bromus tectorum* (Baynes et
 2858 al., 2012). To what extent the particular *Lachnum* sp. B identified in the area of study is a pyrophilous
 2859 fungus merits additional study.

2860 Although the incidences of *O. graminis* and *Lachnum* sp. B are favoured in such anthropized fire-
 2861 prone habitats, the extent to which these endophytes confer particular advantages to its host, *B.*
 2862 *rupestre*, is unknown. Further experimental research is needed to evaluate whether *O. graminis* and/or
 2863 *Lachnum* sp. B infected plants perform better after fires than non-infected plants and whether the
 2864 relationship in such a disrupted environment relies in a mutualistic relationship. In this research, the
 2865 systemic *E. typhina* did not display significant differences in incidence among grasslands, and its
 2866 percentage of infection was low at all sites. Previous research on *Epichloë* endophytes of grasses did
 2867 not find evidence of a mutualistic relationship associated to fire (Faeth et al., 2002; Hall et al., 2014),
 2868 contrary to grazing intensities that have been positively related to the abundance of vertically-
 2869 transmitted *Epichloë* producers of toxic metabolites (Hume et al., 2020; Vázquez-de-Aldana et al.,
 2870 2010).

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2872 5. CONCLUSIONS

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2874 The perennial tall-grass *B. rupestre* had a moderately diverse endophytic mycobiome consisting
 2875 of a few core species and many rare species in assemblages that differed between aerial and
 2876 belowground tissues. Recurrent grassland burnings, which eliminate the aerial biomass of the grass
 2877 every 1-2 years, did not affect the richness and the diversity of the fungal community in *B. rupestre*,
 2878 but the percentages of infection of two core taxa, *Omnidemptus graminis* and *Lachnum* sp. B, were
 2879 significantly modified. The results indicate that although in frequently-burnt areas the same core
 2880 species of diverse grasslands subsist, *Omnidemptus graminis* and *Lachnum* sp. B are singularly
 2881 benefitted due to the proposed following mechanisms: 1) the capacity to survive belowground in
 2882 rhizomes during the winter, and to spread rapidly to the shoots when the plant starts its spring growth
 2883 (*O. graminis*), and 2) the location in belowground tissues (*Lachnum* sp. B) and the higher resistance to
 2884 stress than other core root fungi, such as the related-taxon *Albotricha* sp. Following steps should
 2885 address whether these two core taxa benefit the expansive success of *B. rupestre* in these anthropized,
 2886 fire-prone environments, as well as to determine whether the cohort of less abundant fungi with well-
 2887 defined defensive functions play a role too.

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Supplementary material table S1. The proposed identification of the isolated taxa based on the information provided by the matches in the databases.

3273

GenBank accession number	Greatest sequence identity (%)	Proposed taxon	Guild	Supplementary references
MW528548	<i>Acremonium furcatum</i> (98.07)	<i>Acremonium</i> sp.	Animal Pathogen Endophyte Fungal Parasite Plant Pathogen Wood Saprotrroph	Tian <i>et al.</i> , 2017 An <i>et al.</i> , 1993
MW528549	<i>Albotricha</i> spp. (98.46)	<i>Albotricha</i> sp.	Undefined Saprotrroph	Wu M-L., 2003
MW528550	<i>Alfaria thymi</i> (100)	<i>Alfaria thymi</i>	Undefined	Lombard <i>et al.</i> , 2016
MW528551	<i>Funiliomyces biseptatus</i> (92.31)	Amphisphaeriaceae sp.	Undefined Saprotrroph	Kang <i>et al.</i> , 1999
MW528552	<i>Bullanockia australis</i> (99.59)	<i>Bullanockia australis</i>	Undefined Saprotrroph	Crous <i>et al.</i> , 2016
MW528553	<i>Cadophora obovata</i> (99.47)	<i>Cadophora</i> sp.	Endophyte	Newsham K.K., 2010
MW528554	<i>Chaetosphaeria ciliata</i> (98)	<i>Chaetosphaeria</i> sp.	Undefined Saprotrroph	Réblová <i>et al.</i> , 1999
MW528555	Chaetosphaeriales (100)	Chaetosphaeriales sp.	Undefined	Maharachchikumbura <i>et al.</i> , 2016
MW528556	<i>Clonostachys rosea</i> (100)	<i>Clonostachys rosea</i>	Plant Saprotrroph Wood Saprotrroph Animal Pathogen	Rodríguez <i>et al.</i> , 2011 Lahlali and Peng, 2014 Fournier <i>et al.</i> , 2020
MW528557	Cucurbitariaceae spp. (94.76)	Cucurbitariaceae sp.	Plant Pathogen Wood Saprotrroph	Doilom <i>et al.</i> , 2013
MW528558	<i>Dictyochaeta lithocarp</i> (98)	<i>Dictyochaeta</i> sp.	Undefined Saprotrroph	Réblová <i>et al.</i> , 1999
MW528559	<i>Dinemasporium morbidum</i> (100)	<i>Dinemasporium morbidum</i>	Undefined Saprotrroph	Krohn <i>et al.</i> , 2008 Crous <i>et al.</i> , 2012
MW528560	<i>Epichloë typhina</i> (100)	<i>Epichloë typhina</i>	Endophyte Plant pathogen	White J.F., 1988 Zabalgoeazcoa <i>et al.</i> , 2007

Clay and Schardl, 2002

MW528561	<i>Fusarium circinatum</i> (100)	<i>Fusarium circinatum</i>	Animal Pathogen Endophyte Lichen Parasite Plant Pathogen Soil Saprotroph Wood Saprotroph	Hanada <i>et al.</i> , 2010 Martínez-Álvarez <i>et al.</i> , 2016
MW528562	<i>Gaeumannomyces cariciola</i> (96.59)	<i>Gaeumannomyces</i> sp.	Plant Pathogen	Hernández-Restrepo <i>et al.</i> , 2016a
MW528563	<i>Glarea lozoyensis</i> (96.59)	<i>Glarea</i> sp.	Undefined Saprotroph	Youssar <i>et al.</i> , 2011
MW528564	Hypocreales spp. (94.54)	Hypocreales sp.		
MW528565	<i>Ilyonectria robusta</i> (100)	<i>Ilyonectria robusta</i>	Plant Pathogen	Martínez-Diz <i>et al.</i> , 2018 Liu <i>et al.</i> , 2019
MW528566	<i>Lachnum pygmaeum</i> (99.01)	<i>Lachnum</i> sp. A	Undefined Saprotroph	Pereira <i>et al.</i> , 2019 McMullin <i>et al.</i> , 2017
MW528567	<i>Lachnum</i> spp. (99.04)	<i>Lachnum</i> sp. B	Undefined Saprotroph	Xu <i>et al.</i> , 2017 Hou <i>et al.</i> , 2019
MW528568	<i>Metapochonia bulbillosa</i> (99.16)	<i>Metapochonia bulbillosa</i>	Animal Pathogen	Manzanilla-López and Lopez-Llorca, 2017
MW528569	<i>Metarhizium carneum</i> (98.7)	<i>Metarhizium carneum</i>	Animal Pathogen	Lomer <i>et al.</i> , 2001 Inyang <i>et al.</i> , 1998
MW528570	<i>Microdochium bolleyi</i> (99.57)	<i>Microdochium bolleyi</i>	Plant Pathogen	Ernst <i>et al.</i> , 2011 Shadmani <i>et al.</i> , 2020 Zhang <i>et al.</i> , 2008
MW528571	<i>Microdochium neoqueenslandicum</i> (99.77)	<i>Microdochium neoqueenslandicum</i>	Plant Pathogen	Hernández-Restrepo <i>et al.</i> , 2016b
MW528572	<i>Mollisia</i> spp. (97.88)	<i>Mollisia</i> sp.	Endophyte Plant Pathogen	Tanney and Seifert, 2020 Fan <i>et al.</i> , 2016
MW528573	<i>Loramyces</i> spp. (99.40)	Mollisiaceae sp.	Endophyte Plant Pathogen	Tanney and Seifert, 2020
MW528574	<i>Mycena fulgoris</i> (96)	<i>Mycena</i> sp.	Leaf Saprotroph Plant Pathogen Undefined Saprotroph Wood Saprotroph	Tejesvi <i>et al.</i> , 2010 Ogura-Tsujite <i>et al.</i> , 2009

MW528575	<i>Myrmecridium phragmitis</i> (95.89)	<i>Myrmecridium</i> sp.	Endophyte	Jie <i>et al.</i> , 2013
MW528576	<i>Myrothecium</i> spp. (100)	<i>Myrothecium</i> sp.	Undefined Saprotroph	Clarke <i>et al.</i> , 2007 Hoagland <i>et al.</i> , 2007 Bezerra <i>et al.</i> , 2015
MW528577	<i>Nemania</i> spp. (99.79)	<i>Nemania</i> sp.	Undefined Saprotroph	Kornsakulkarn <i>et al.</i> , 2017
MW528578	<i>Omnidemptus graminis</i> (99.54)	<i>Omnidemptus graminis</i>	Plant Pathogen	Hernández-Restrepo <i>et al.</i> , 2019 Ortega <i>et al.</i> , 2013
MW528579	<i>Ophiosphaerella korrae</i> (100)	<i>Ophiosphaerella</i> sp.	Plant Pathogen	Flores <i>et al.</i> , 2015
MW528580	<i>Parasola crataegi</i> (96.27)	<i>Parasola</i> sp.	Undefined Saprotroph	Szarkándi <i>et al.</i> , 2017
MW528581	<i>Penicillium ortum</i> (100)	<i>Penicillium ortum</i>	Wood Saprotroph	Dastogeer <i>et al.</i> , 2018 Mousa <i>et al.</i> , 2015 Visagie <i>et al.</i> , 2015
MW528582	<i>Vararia calami</i> (84.06)	Peniophoraceae sp.	Plant Pathogen Wood Saprotroph	Miller <i>et al.</i> , 2006
MW528583	<i>Periconia</i> spp. (99.8)	<i>Periconia</i> sp.	Endophyte Plant Pathogen Wood Saprotroph	Liu <i>et al.</i> , 2017
MW528584	<i>Petrakia</i> spp. (99.19)	<i>Petrakia</i> sp.	Undefined Saprotroph	Jaklitsch and Voglmayr, 2017 Gross <i>et al.</i> , 2017
MW528585	<i>Pezicula rhizophila</i> (100)	<i>Pezicula rhizophila</i>	Undefined Saprotroph	Chen <i>et al.</i> , 2016 Lynch <i>et al.</i> , 2013
MW528586	Pleosporales spp. (99.68)	Pleosporales sp.		
MW528587	<i>Pyrenochaetopsis leptospora</i> (100)	<i>Pyrenochaetopsis leptospora</i>	Endophyte Lichen Parasite Undefined Saprotroph	Doilom <i>et al.</i> , 2013 Chi <i>et al.</i> , 2019
MW528588	<i>Sarocladium strictum</i> (98.96)	<i>Sarocladium strictum</i>	Undefined Saprotroph Animal pathogen	El-Sayed <i>et al.</i> , 2020
MW528589	<i>Fusidium</i> spp. (96.06)	Sordariomycete sp. A		
MW528590	<i>Myrothecium chiangmaiense</i> (100)	Sordariomycete sp. B		Maharachchikumbura <i>et al.</i> , 2016

MW528591	<i>Tolypocladium album</i> (100)	<i>Tolypocladium album</i>	Animal Pathogen Endophyte Fungal Parasite	Hanada <i>et al.</i> , 2010 Gazis <i>et al.</i> , 2014 Fukuda <i>et al.</i> , 2015
MW528592	<i>Trichoderma koningii</i> (99.63)	<i>Trichoderma koningii</i>	Endophyte Plant Pathogen Fungal parasite	Sankaranarayanan <i>et al.</i> , 1997 Xiao-Yan <i>et al.</i> , 2006 Worasatit <i>et al.</i> , 1994 Taha <i>et al.</i> , 2021
Species not present in <i>B. rupestre</i>				
MW528593	<i>Alfaria dandenongensis</i> (100)	<i>Alfaria dandenongensis</i>	Undefined	Lombard <i>et al.</i> , 2016
MW528594	<i>Dilophospora alopecuri</i> (99.76)	<i>Dilophospora</i> sp.	Plant Pathogen	Riley <i>et al.</i> , 1998 Barbetti <i>et al.</i> , 2006
MW528595	<i>Epichloë baconii</i> (100)	<i>Epichloë baconii</i>	Endophyte Plant pathogen	Romo-Vaquero <i>et al.</i> , 2003
MW528596	<i>Epichloë festucae</i> (99.79)	<i>Epichloë festucae</i>	Endophyte Fungal parasite	Vázquez.de-Aldana <i>et al.</i> , 2013 Zabalgogazcoa <i>et al.</i> , 2013
MW528597	<i>Paracremonium</i> sp. (88.59)	Nectriaceae sp.	Animal Pathogen Endophyte Fungal Parasite Lichen Parasite Plant Pathogen Wood Saprotroph	Lombard <i>et al.</i> , 2015 Jumpponen <i>et al.</i> , 2010 Zheng and Gong, 2019
MW528598	<i>Oculimacula anguioides</i> (97.29)	<i>Oculimacula</i> sp.	Plant Pathogen	Parnell <i>et al.</i> , 2008 Vera and Murray, 2016
MW528599	<i>Scytalidium album</i> (99.78)	<i>Scytalidium album</i>	Wood Saprotroph	El-Elimat <i>et al.</i> , 2015
MW528600	Tricholomataceae sp. (100)	Tricholomataceae sp.	Ectomycorrhizal Fungal Parasite	Campoamor and Molina, 2001

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Supplementary material table S2. The presence/absence data of the *B. rupestre* identified taxa.

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Fungal endophyte	<i>B. rupestre</i> tissue			Low-diversity grasslands			High-diversity grasslands		
	Shoot	Rhizome	Root	Arpea	Errozate	Armorietta	Urkulu	Zalbetaea	Azalegi
<i>Acremonium</i> sp.	0	0	4	1	0	1	2	0	0
<i>Albotricha</i> sp.	0	20	33	1	3	9	23	17	0
<i>Alfaria thymi</i>	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
Amphisphaeriaceae sp.	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0
<i>Bullanockia australis</i>	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0
<i>Cadophora</i> sp.	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
<i>Chaetosphaeria</i> sp.	0	0	2	1	0	1	0	0	0
Chaetosphaeriales sp.	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
<i>Clonostachys rosea</i>	0	4	0	0	2	0	1	1	0
Cucurbitariaceae sp.	0	2	1	2	0	0	0	1	0
<i>Dictyochoeta</i> sp.	0	0	4	2	0	2	0	0	0
<i>Dinemasporium morbidum</i>	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
<i>Epichloe typhina</i>	7	2	2	0	0	4	3	4	0
<i>Fusarium circinatum</i>	0	5	4	1	1	1	0	2	4
<i>Gaeumannomycella</i> sp.	0	2	0	2	0	0	0	0	0
<i>Glarea</i> sp.	0	2	6	1	0	2	0	4	1
Hypocreales sp.	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
<i>Ilyonectria robusta</i>	0	3	7	0	2	1	0	5	2
<i>Lachnum</i> sp. A	0	1	9	4	1	1	0	3	1
<i>Lachnum</i> sp. B	1	24	59	14	26	14	9	4	17
<i>Metapochonia bulbillosa</i>	0	6	0	3	0	0	1	1	1
<i>Metarhizium carneum</i>	3	0	0	2	0	1	0	0	0
<i>Microdochium bolleyi</i>	0	3	2	1	0	0	0	1	3
<i>Microdochium neoqueenslandicum</i>	0	0	2	0	0	1	0	0	1
<i>Mollisia</i> sp.	0	0	3	2	0	1	0	0	0
Mollisiaceae sp.	3	23	33	10	18	6	8	7	10
<i>Mycena</i> sp.	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
<i>Myrmecridium</i> sp.	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
<i>Myrothecium</i> sp.	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
<i>Nemania</i> sp.	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
<i>Omnidemplus graminis</i>	80	12	0	19	20	20	12	15	6
<i>Ophiospaerella korrae</i>	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
<i>Parasola</i> sp.	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
<i>Penicillium ortum</i>	0	5	2	0	1	1	0	0	5

Peniophoraceae sp.	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
<i>Periconia</i> sp.	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
<i>Petrakia</i> sp.	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
<i>Pezicula rhizophila</i>	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
Pleosporales sp.	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
<i>Pyrenochaetopsis leptospora</i>	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
<i>Sarocladium strictum</i>	4	0	0	1	3	0	0	0	0
Sordariomycete sp. A	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
Sordariomycete sp. B	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
<i>Tolypocladium album</i>	0	4	0	0	0	3	1	0	0
<i>Trichoderma koningii</i>	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0

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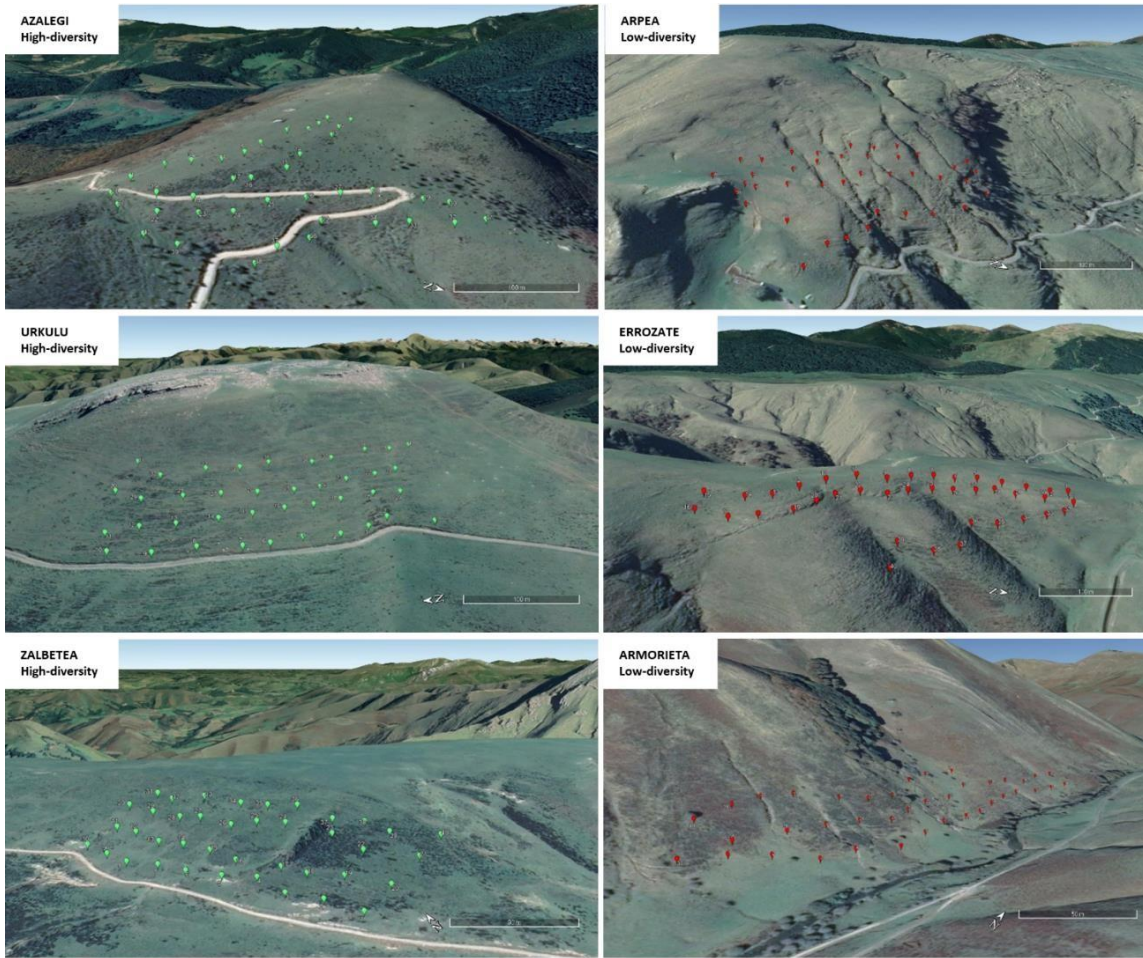
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Supplementary material table S3. The presence/absence data of the aerial tissues in three representative grasses of high-diversity grasslands.

Fungal endophyte	Grass species			High-diversity grasslands		
	<i>B. rupestre</i>	<i>F. rubra</i>	<i>A. capillaris</i>	Urkulu	Zalbetea	Azalegi
<i>Albotricha</i> sp.	0	4	2	2	3	1
<i>Alfaria dandenongensis</i>	0	3	3	5	1	0
<i>Cadophora</i> sp.	0	1	0	0	0	1
<i>Clonostachys rosea</i>	0	1	0	1	0	0
<i>Dilophospora</i> sp.	0	0	1	0	1	0
<i>Dinemasporium morbidum</i>	1	0	0	1	0	0
<i>Epichloe baconii</i>	0	0	5	3	0	2
<i>Epichloe festucae</i>	0	29	0	9	0	20
<i>Epichloe typhina</i>	4	0	0	1	3	0
<i>Fusarium circinatum</i>	0	0	1	0	0	1
<i>Glarea</i> sp.	0	0	1	0	1	0
<i>Ilyonectria robusta</i>	0	0	2	1	0	1
<i>Lachnum</i> sp. B	1	1	6	8	0	0
<i>Microdochium neoqueenslandicum</i>	0	1	1	1	0	1
Mollisiaceae sp.	0	9	5	13	0	1
<i>Myrmecridium</i> sp.	1	0	0	0	1	0
Nectriaceae sp.	0	0	1	0	1	0
<i>Oculimacula</i> sp.	0	0	1	0	1	0
<i>Omnidemtus graminis</i>	27	2	4	10	17	6
<i>Pyrenochaetopsis leptospora</i>	0	0	1	0	0	1
<i>Scytalidium album</i>	0	0	1	0	1	0
Sordariomycete sp. B	0	1	0	1	0	0
Tricholomataceae sp.	0	0	1	0	1	0

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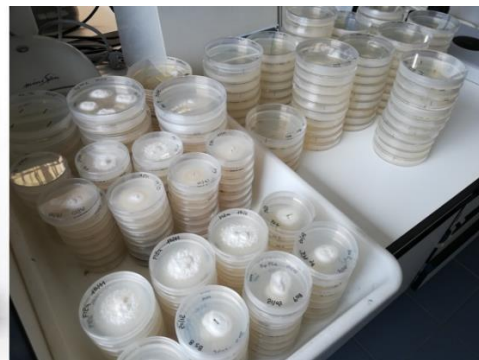
Supplementary Figure S1. Georeferenced sampling points in each location.

CHAPTER 3

3514 **Comparison of culturing and metabarcoding methods**
3515 **to describe the fungal endophytic assemblage of**
3516 ***Brachypodium rupestre* growing in a range of**
3517 **anthropized disturbance regimes**

3518
3519 **ABSTRACT**

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3522 Fungal endophytes develop inside plants without visible external signs and they may confer
3523 adaptive advantages to their hosts. Culturing methods have been traditionally used to recognize the
3524 fungal endophytic assemblage, but novel metabarcoding techniques are being increasingly applied.
3525 This study aims to characterize the fungal endophytic assemblage in shoots, rhizomes and roots of the
3526 tall-grass *Brachypodium rupestre* growing in a large area of natural grasslands with a continuum of
3527 anthropized disturbance regimes. Seven out of 88 taxa identified by metabarcoding accounted for
3528 81.2% of the reads (Helotiaceae, *Lachnum* sp. A, *Albotricha* sp. A, Helotiales A, Agaricales A, *Mycena*
3529 sp. and Mollisiaceae C), revealing a small group of abundant endophytes and a large group of rare
3530 species. Although both methods detected the same trends in richness and fungal diversity among the
3531 tissues (root > rhizome > shoot) and grasslands (low-diversity > high-diversity grasslands), the
3532 metabarcoding tool identified 5.8 times more taxa than the traditional culturing method (15 taxa) but,
3533 surprisingly, failed to sequence the most isolated endophyte on plates, *Omnidemptus graminis*. Since
3534 both methods are still subject to important constraints, both are required to obtain a complete
3535 characterization of the fungal endophytic assemblage of the plant species.



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3544 **1. INTRODUCTION**

3545

3546 The study of microorganisms in their natural environment is a recent branch of research
 3547 compared to microbial investigations undertaken in disciplines such as medicine and agronomy, with
 3548 high impact on human health and development (Bud, 1991; United Nations, 1992). Nowadays,
 3549 microbial ecology, i.e., their diversity in nature, their response to prevailing and future environmental
 3550 conditions, the associations they establish with plants and the complex network of interactions and
 3551 functions they are involved in, are gaining ground in ecological research (Tikhonovich and Provorov,
 3552 2011; Guerrero et al., 2013; Carthey et al., 2019).

3553 One example involves examining the associations that endophytic fungi establish with plants.
 3554 These associations were first studied in agronomic grasses (Saikkonen et al., 2006, 1998; Hume and
 3555 Sewell, 2014) and the research has extended to natural plant communities in recent decades
 3556 (Rodriguez et al., 2009; Binet et al., 2013; Hardoim et al., 2015). Scientific literature has shown that
 3557 these hidden associations are ubiquitous in nature, and that all plants harbor an endophyte
 3558 assemblage that delivers different functions and constitutes a collective and complex holobiont
 3559 (Vandenkoornhuyse et al., 2015).

3560 Nowadays, two techniques, culturing and metabarcoding, are used for the determination of
 3561 fungal endophyte assemblages (Hyde and Soyong, 2008). The protocols of culturable techniques have
 3562 a longer record and have been implemented in many laboratories (Verma and Gange, 2014). In this
 3563 method, important constraints include the possibility that some fungal species are unculturable on
 3564 artificial medium, and the accumulation of inaccuracies and errors due to different sterilization times,
 3565 diverse species growth rates and the presence of surface contaminants (Chi et al., 2019). The
 3566 metabarcoding techniques (culture-independent) (Nilsson et al., 2019a), despite appearing very
 3567 promising, still remain costly and lack a complete repository of sequences with taxonomic
 3568 identification, a task which is under way (Ebach et al., 2011; Nilsson et al., 2019b). In the latter, the
 3569 potential for providing quantitative data based on the proportion of read sequences makes it a very
 3570 powerful ecological tool (Li, 2009; Sun and Guo, 2012).

3571 The genus *Brachypodium* encompasses several perennial tall-grasses, native to European
 3572 calcareous grasslands, that are expanding aggressively in the last decades due to the global change
 3573 conditions (*B. pinnatum*, *B. genuense* and *B. rupestre*) (Bobbink and Willems, 1987; Buckland et al.,
 3574 2001; Catorci et al., 2011; Bąba et al., 2012; Bricca et al., 2020). This tall-grass expansion causes a
 3575 decline of the biodiversity of the natural grasslands and also has an impact on the ecosystem service
 3576 of provisioning (Durán et al., 2020). The competitive strategies of this group of species that explain the
 3577 expansive process is a matter of interest (Catorci et al., 2014; Canals et al., 2014, 2017; Bąba et al.,
 3578 2016; Tardella et al., 2018; Múgica et al., 2021; San Emeterio et al., 2021) as it is the study of the
 3579 mycobiome that may help to understand these advantages. To date, the research in the *Brachypodium*
 3580 genus has focused on the systemic fungi of the Clavicipitaceae family hosted by *B. sylvaticum* (Meijer
 3581 and Leuchtman, 1999; Miwa et al., 2017), *B. phoenicoides* (Vazquez-de-Aldana et al., 2003;
 3582 Zabalgoeazcoa et al., 2008) and *B. pinnatum* (Leuchtman and Schardl, 1998). Only a previous study
 3583 of our research team has characterised the systemic and non-systemic mycobiome of *Brachypodium*
 3584 *rupestre* under a gradient of grazing and fire disturbances using culturable techniques (Durán et al.,
 3585 2021).

3586 The aim of this research is to provide a characterization of the endophytic mycobiome of the
 3587 tall-grass species *Brachypodium rupestre* and to compare culture and metabarcoding techniques
 3588 applied to conditions with restricted sampling effort due to the high cost of the novel technique. The
 3589 comparison includes the aboveground (shoot) and the underground (rhizome and root) component of
 3590 a set of *B. rupestre* individuals growing in the same region but subjected to different levels of anthropic

3591 disturbance (grasslands with different regimes of grazing and prescribed burning and, consequently,
 3592 encompassing a different plant community composition). Through this range of regional variation, and
 3593 considering different tissues and different environmental drivers, we are interested in determining the
 3594 capacity of the two methods to identify and characterize the fungal endophyte assemblage of *B.*
 3595 *rupestre*.

3596

3597 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

3598

3599 **2.1. The study area**

3600

3601 The Aezkoa valley (Navarra county, Spain) is the westernmost valley of the southern Pyrenees
 3602 (42.53' - 43.3'N, 1.8' - 1.17'W) (Figure 1d). The climate is snowy and cold in winter, and mild and foggy
 3603 in summer. The annual temperature averages 9.3°C and the accumulated precipitation reaches 1856
 3604 mm per year (Irabia climatic station, <http://meteo.navarra.es>). The landscape is a mosaic of forests
 3605 (e.g. *Fagus sylvatica*, *Abies alba*), shrubland communities (e.g. *Erica* spp., *Ulex gallii*) and grasslands.
 3606 The area of study is part of the Special Area of Conservation (SAC) Roncesvalles-Selva de Irati (code
 3607 ES0000126; Figure 1f) and is located in the north of the valley. High-altitude grasslands (800 - 1400
 3608 m.a.s.l.) comprise diverse communities of perennial grasses (*Festuca* gr. *rubra*, *Agrostis capillaris*,
 3609 *Brachypodium rupestre*, *Danthonia decumbens*), forbs (*Achillea millefolium*, *Potentilla erecta*, *Gallium*
 3610 *saxatile*) and legumes (*Trifolium repens*, *Lotus corniculatus*). Sandstones and calcareous clays dominate
 3611 the substrate, upon which develop acidic, deep and organic soils, with clay-loamy and loamy textures.

3612 Depending on the grazing pressure of the livestock during the summer months, farmers
 3613 schedule different types of burnings to control the build-up of litter and resprouting of woody species.
 3614 As a result, traditional (bush-to-bush) burnings applied every 6-7 years coexist with more intense fire
 3615 regimes, applied across the whole surface every 1-2 years in the less grazed areas. The regional plant
 3616 community composition reflects the dominant grazing/burning regime, which leads to a mosaic of
 3617 high-diversity grasslands (more grazed, less burned) and low-diversity grasslands highly dominated by
 3618 *B. rupestre* (less grazed, more burned). Based on previous floristic surveys undertaken in the area
 3619 (Durán et al., 2020), we selected two representative locations according to the percentage of *B.*
 3620 *rupestre* cover. A low-diversity grassland (LD) in Arpea, with a dominant cover of *B. rupestre* up to 80%,
 3621 and a high-diversity grassland (HD) located in Urkulu, with a *B. rupestre* cover lower than 25% (Table
 3622 1).

3623

3624 **2.2. Plant sampling**

3625

3626 In summer 2018, a total of 10 turfs of *B. rupestre* were collected (turfs included shoots, rhizomes
 3627 and roots surrounded by soil) from the two locations (Figure 1f). The distance between turf samples
 3628 was ca 150 m to avoid collecting clonal individuals. Turfs were transported to the UPNA laboratory and
 3629 processed in the following days.

3630 One *B. rupestre* plant with high biomass was selected from each turf. Tissues were separated
 3631 (shoots, rhizomes and roots) and cut into fragments of ca 2 cm, surface-disinfected by immersion in a
 3632 solution of 20% commercial bleach (1% active chlorine) containing 0.02% Tween 80 (v:v) for 10 min
 3633 and finally, rinsed with sterile water. The rhizome and root fragments were also treated with an
 3634 aqueous solution of 70% ethanol for 30 s. Thirty fragments (10 shoots, 10 rhizomes and 10 roots)
 3635 assigned to the metabarcoding method were ground using a pestle with liquid nitrogen and preserved

3636 at -20°C until shipment.
3637



3638
3639 Figure 1. The appearance of low (a, b) and high (c) diversity grasslands. Location of the Aezkoa Valley in Spain (d) and within
3640 the western Pyrenees (e). The two locations (Arpea and Urkulu) where the samples were collected in the Roncesvalles-Selva
3641 de Irati SAC (f).

3642

3643

Table 1. General description of the study sites.

Study site		ARPEA	URKULU
Type of grassland		LD = Low diversity	HD = High diversity
General description	Location	-1° 10' 57" W 43° 2' 12" N	-1° 14' 38" W 43° 2' 49" N
	Soil classification (WRB)	Cambic Umbrisol	Dystric Cambisol
	Altitude (m.a.s.l.)	893	1256
	Slope (%)	40	45
Management	Burning recurrence	High 1-2 years	Low 6-7 years
	Type of burning	Large grassland areas	Bush-to-bush
	Grazing level	Low to nonexistent	Moderate to high
	<i>B. rupestris</i> cover (%)	> 80%	< 25%

3644

3645 2.3. Isolation and identification of fungi by the culturing method

3646

3647 We plated 300 tissue fragments of *B. rupestris* onto 30 culture media plates (10
3648 fragments/tissue/plate, 90 mm diameter), containing PDA medium (potato dextrose agar) with
3649 chloramphenicol (200 mg/L). Dishes with tissue fragments were kept at room temperature and

3650 ambient light, and checked daily for 4 weeks. Any emerging mycelium was transferred and individually
 3651 isolated to a new mini petri dish (60 mm diameter). Isolates with the same morphological
 3652 characteristics (colony color, exudates, growth type and general appearance) were grouped into
 3653 morphotypes, and at least one of them was genotyped for taxonomic analysis.

3654 A small amount of mycelium was collected and its DNA extracted using a Phire Plant Direct PCR
 3655 Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific). The complete ITS region (ITS1-5.8S-ITS2) was amplified using ITS4 and
 3656 ITS5 primers (White et al., 1990). The amplification cycles followed were: 98°C for 5 min, 95°C for 5 s
 3657 (35 repeated cycles), 54°C for 5 s, 72°C for 20 s and a final phase of 72°C for 1 min. PCR amplicons were
 3658 purified (Favor Prep™ Plant Genomic DNA Extraction Mini Kit, Favorgen) and sequenced by the
 3659 Sanger method, copying single-stranded DNA, at STABVIDA enterprise. The returned DNA sequences
 3660 were grouped using the CD_HIT program at 97% identity threshold (Li and Godzik, 2006; Huang et al.,
 3661 2010), considering the clustered sequences to represent the same taxon. A representative sequence
 3662 of each cluster was selected and contrasted to the closest match of the ITS region from fungal types at
 3663 the National Centre for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) using the BLAST algorithm (Schoch et al.,
 3664 2014). The database UNITE was also interrogated for sequences.

3665

3666 **2.4. Metabarcoding analysis and taxonomic assignment**

3667

3668 A total of 30 samples was sent to AllGenetics services for metabarcoding analysis. The DNA of
 3669 samples was isolated using the Dneasy PowerSoil DNA isolation kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) and the
 3670 complete ITS2 region was amplified using the primers ITS86F and ITS4 (White et al., 1990; Turenne et
 3671 al., 1999), to which the Illumina sequencing primer sequences were attached to their 5' ends. The PCR
 3672 cycle consisted of an initial denaturation at 95°C for 5 min, followed by 35 cycles of 95°C for 30 s, 49°C
 3673 for 30 s, 72°C for 30 s, and a final extension step at 72°C for 10 minutes. The index sequences required
 3674 for multiplexing libraries were attached in a second PCR with the same conditions but only 5 cycles and
 3675 60°C as the annealing temperature. Libraries were purified using Mag-Bind RXNPure Plus magnetic
 3676 beads (Omega Biotek, Norcross, USA), pooled in equimolar amounts and sequenced in a MiSeq PE300
 3677 run (Illumina, San Diego, USA).

3678 The Illumina raw files R1 (forward) and R2 (reverse) reads were trimmed and checked using the
 3679 software FastQC (www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk). FLASH2 was used to merge reads and
 3680 CUTADAPT software 1.3 to remove sequences that did not contain the PCR primers and those shorter
 3681 than 100 nucleotides (Magoč and Salzberg, 2011; Martin, 2011). The sequences were filtered by quality
 3682 using Qiime v1.9.1. and the FASTA file was processed using VSEARCH (Caporaso, 2011). Sequences
 3683 were dereplicated, sorted and clustered at a similarity threshold of 100%. Artefacts were detected and
 3684 filtered using the UCHIME algorithm implemented in VSEARCH (Edgar et al., 2011). Sequences were
 3685 then assigned to OTUs and those occurring at a frequency below 0.005% in the whole dataset were
 3686 removed. In the same way as the sequences obtained from the culture method, sequences were
 3687 grouped using the CD_HIT program at 97% identity threshold (Li and Godzik, 2006; Huang et al., 2010);
 3688 we considered that the clustered OTUs were the same taxon. A representative OTU of each cluster was
 3689 selected and compared with the NCBI and UNITE data using the BLAST algorithm (Schoch et al., 2014).

3690

3691 **2.5. Data analysis**

3692

3693 For the metabarcoding data, we estimated accumulation curves with and without singletons
 3694 (OTUs and taxa that were only present in one sample) to evaluate the sampling effort and to compare
 3695 the importance of rare taxa/OTUs between grasslands and tissue types. We calculated the OTU

3696 richness and Shannon and Simpson diversity indexes and we analyzed the effects of tissue and
 3697 grassland type on fungal endophyte richness and diversity using two-way ANOVAs (Oksanen et al.,
 3698 2017). We calculated the relative abundance at the taxonomic level of phyla, orders, families and OTUs
 3699 grouped into taxa using read sequences, within each tissue (shoot, rhizome and root) and each
 3700 grassland type (LD and HD). We evaluated the effects of tissue and grassland type on fungal endophyte
 3701 assemblages of *B. rupestre* using nonmetric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) with a Bray-Curtis
 3702 dissimilarity index matrix, and we identified the distinctive fungal endophytes of a specific tissue and
 3703 grassland type using indicator species tests (Roberts, 2019), measuring the fidelity of the taxa to a
 3704 particular situation (Dufrêne and Legendre, 1997).

3705

3706 3. RESULTS

3707

3708 3.1. Comparison of *B. rupestre* mycobiome obtained by culturing and metabarcoding 3709 methods

3710

3711 For the culture method, we obtained 28 isolates which were classified into a total of 19
 3712 morphotypes. Their corresponding sequences were matched in databases, a total of 15 taxa were
 3713 obtained and classified to species (2), genus (9), family (3) and order (1) rank (Table 2). Ten taxa were
 3714 isolated in plants collected in the LD grassland (66.6%), while eight were from the HD grassland
 3715 (53.3%). We identified 2, 5 and 11 taxa from shoots, rhizomes and roots, respectively (Table 3).

3716 The thirty samples of *B. rupestre* analyzed by the metabarcoding method produced 1,622,980
 3717 reads from 1,822 OTUs before filtering, and 513,671 reads from 352 OTUs after the filtering process.
 3718 We obtained 316 OTUs from the LD grassland (61.1%) and 246 OTUs from the HD grassland (38.9%).
 3719 There were 19,197 and 340 OTUs from shoots, rhizomes and roots, respectively. The OTU clustering
 3720 process returned a total of 88 taxa: 38 assigned to genus, 16 to family, 19 to order, 9 to class and the
 3721 remaining 6 to phylum or still unidentified (Appendix A). According to grassland type, 75 taxa were
 3722 identified in the LD grassland (85.2%) and 52 in the HD grassland (59.1%). According to tissue type, 15,
 3723 37 and 82 taxa were identified in shoots, rhizomes and roots, respectively (Table 3).

3724 The culturing method isolated 13 taxa out of 88 sequenced by metabarcoding. Since we used a
 3725 conservative approach in the process of identification, it is likely that we arrived at different taxonomic
 3726 levels of identification depending on the methodology, for example, *Codinaea* sp. (culturing) vs.
 3727 Chaetosphaeriaceae (metabarcoding), Didymosphaeriaceae (culturing) vs. *Paracamarosporium* sp.
 3728 (metabarcoding) and *Mollisia* sp. and *Phialocephala* sp. (culturing) vs. Mollisiaceae (metabarcoding).
 3729 The rest of the isolated taxa did match at the taxonomic level assigned (*Albotricha* sp., *Drechslera* sp.,
 3730 *Falciphora* sp., Helotiaceae, *Lachnum* sp., *Microdochium phragmitis* and *Neoscochyta* sp.). Table 4
 3731 shows the complete information obtained from both methods for each sample, as well as the samples
 3732 where the same taxon was isolated by the culturing method and also sequenced by the metabarcoding
 3733 analysis. The two taxa isolated by culturing but not sequenced by metabarcoding were *Ilyonectria* sp.
 3734 and *Omnidemtus graminis*. The latter was the most isolated fungal endophyte from shoots of *B.*
 3735 *rupestre* by the culturing method.

3736 Despite the remarkable differences in the number of sequences obtained by the two methods
 3737 (28 isolates vs. 513,671 reads), the pattern of fungal endophyte richness and diversity among grassland
 3738 and tissue types followed a similar trend, with the highest values in the root tissue and plants collected
 3739 from the LD grassland.

3740
3741Table 2. Fungal endophytes isolated from *B. rupestre* by the culturing method, their greatest percentage identity in both databases (NCBI and UNITE), the proposed taxon and the available accession number in GenBank.

3742

Match taxon (NCBI)		Match taxon (UNITE)		Taxon proposed		GenBank accession number		
	Accession number	Greatest percentage identity (%)		Accession number	Greatest percentage identity (%)			
1	<i>Lachnellula hyalina</i>	NR_165202	90.11	<i>Albotricha</i> sp.	HM136666	98.22	<i>Albotricha</i> sp.	MW789554
2	<i>Codinaea paniculata</i>	NR_166297	99.74	<i>Codinaea</i> sp.	MT118230	99.74	<i>Codinaea</i> sp.	MW789567
3	<i>Paracamarosporium</i> sp.	NR_154318	94.28	<i>Paracamarosporium</i> sp.	MT882131	97.6	Didymosphaeriaceae	MW789559
4	<i>Drechslera</i> sp.	NR_153992	94.43	<i>Drechslera</i> sp.	UDB0174425	100	<i>Drechslera</i> sp.	MW789560
5	<i>Falciphora oryzae</i>	NR_153972	96.69	<i>Falciphora</i> sp.	UDB0162916	99.76	<i>Falciphora</i> sp.	MW789558
6	<i>Glarea lozoyensis</i>	NR_137138	96.18	<i>Glarea</i> sp.	KF617491	99.58	Helotiaceae	MW789565
7	<i>Ilyonectria leucospermi</i>	NR_152889	99.36	<i>Ilyonectria crassa</i>	MT294410	100	<i>Ilyonectria</i> sp.	MW789566
8	<i>Lachnellula hualina</i>	NR_165202	88.89	<i>Lachnum virgineum</i>	MT133783	98.15	<i>Lachnum</i> sp.	MW789564
9	<i>Microdochium phragmitis</i>	NR_132916	100	<i>Microdochium phragmitis</i>	MH861162	100	<i>Microdochium phragmitis</i>	MW789562
10	<i>Mollisia asteliae</i>	NR_173037	96.44	<i>Mollisia</i> sp.	KJ188683	98.69	<i>Mollisia</i> sp.	MW789555
11	<i>Phialocephala spaheroides</i>	NR_121302	95.71	<i>Loromyces</i> sp.	KF618060	99.36	Mollisiaceae	MW789556
12	<i>Neosascochyta dactylidis</i>	NR_170041	100	<i>Neosascochyta</i> sp.	MT185527	100	<i>Neosascochyta</i> sp.	MW789561
13	<i>Omnidemptus graminis</i>	NR_164058	100	<i>Omnidemptus graminis</i>	MK487758	100	<i>Omnidemptus graminis</i>	MW789553
14	<i>Phialocephala sphaeroides</i>	NR_121302	89	<i>Phialocephala</i> sp.	JN995646	98.87	<i>Phialocephala</i> sp.	MW789563
15	<i>Paraphaeosphaeria michotii</i>	NR_155640	91.41	Pleosporales	MN450621	100	Pleosporales	MW789557

3743

3744 Table 3. Total number of reads, OTUs and taxa associated with *B. rupestre* tissues and the type of grassland where plants
 3745 were collected (LD: Low-diversity grassland, HD: High-diversity grassland).

		Type of grassland		Tissue		
				Shoot	Rhizome	Root
Metabarcoding method	Reads	LD	313621	4680	47268	261673
		HD	200050	3204	29692	167154
		Total	513671	7884	76960	428827
	OTUs	LD	316	12	165	305
		HD	246	11	58	236
		Total	352	19	197	340
	Taxa	LD	75	10	27	69
		HD	52	10	23	45
		Total	88	15	37	82
Culture method	Taxa	LD	10	2	3	6
		HD	8	1	3	5
		Total	15	2	5	11

3746

3747

3748 3.2. The mycobiome of *B. rupestre* according to the metabarcoding method

3749

3750 3.2.1. Fungal endophytic richness and diversity

3751

3752 The quantitative data from metabarcoding, based on read sequences, allowed an exhaustive
 3753 characterization of the endophytic diversity of *B. rupestre*. Both the OTUs (352) and the clustering of
 3754 OTUs into taxa (88) produced non-asymptotic species accumulation curves (Figure 2). However, 23 out
 3755 of 88 taxa and 71 out of 352 OTUs were sequenced in only one sample (designated as singletons).
 3756 Additional curves were constructed without singletons, suggesting that an increase in sampling effort
 3757 would increase the number of rare taxa/OTUs but not the more common ones (Figure 2a and d).
 3758 Accumulation curves comparing tissues and grassland types did not approach horizontal asymptotes
 3759 (Figure 2b, c, e and f), therefore greater sampling effort is required for reliable richness estimates.

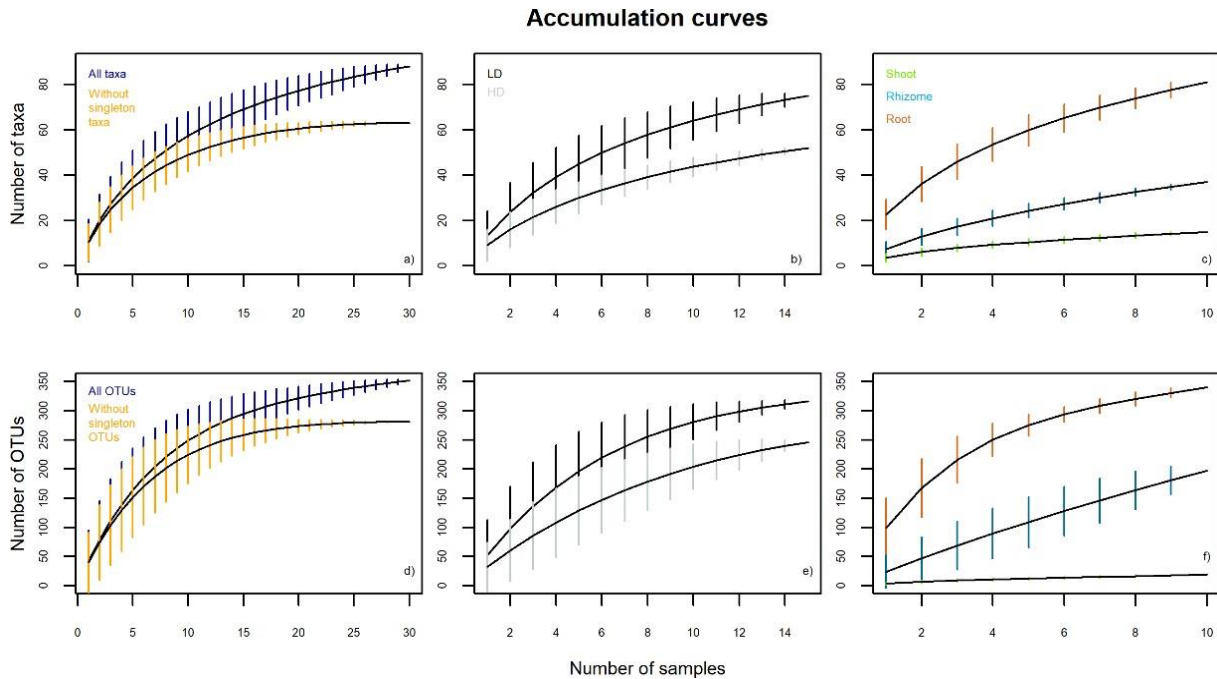
3760 The two factor ANOVA showed a significant effect of plant tissue ($F = 19.9$, $p < 0.001$) but not of
 3761 grassland type ($F = 2.5$, $p = 0.126$) on OTU richness, whereas Shannon and Simpson indexes showed
 3762 significant differences between grassland types ($F = 5.1$, $p = 0.033$ and $F = 4.4$, $p = 0.046$, respectively)
 3763 and tissues ($F = 32.7$, $p < 0.001$ and $F = 9.5$, $p < 0.001$, respectively) (Figure3).

3764

3765 Table 4. Culturing and metabarcoding comparison. Total number of reads, OTUs and taxa and match identification for each
3766 sample.

Sample	Culture method		Match methods	Metabarcoding		
	Isolated taxa			Taxa	OTUs	Reads
Shoot LD	1	<i>Neosascochyta</i> sp.	✓	5	5	233
	2	<i>Omnidemptus graminis</i>	x	5	6	1639
	3	<i>Omnidemptus graminis</i>	x	7	9	1619
	4	<i>Omnidemptus graminis</i>	x	3	3	207
	5		x	4	4	982
Shoot HD	6		x	2	2	229
	7	<i>Omnidemptus graminis</i>	x	2	2	37
	8	<i>Omnidemptus graminis</i>	x	5	5	644
	9	<i>Omnidemptus graminis</i>	x	1	1	13
	10		x	3	3	2281
Rhizome LD	1		x	8	102	12546
	2		x	11	21	24377
	3	Didymosphaeriaceae Helotiaceae	x ✓	4	6	1312
	4		x	5	7	831
	5	Mollisiaceae	✓	12	41	8202
Rhizome HD	6	Helotiaceae	✓	6	22	5621
	7	Helotiaceae	✓	3	4	267
	8	<i>Phialocephala</i> sp.	x	11	17	15380
	9		x	4	5	2035
	10	<i>Microdochium phragmitis</i>	x	11	18	6389
Root LD	1	Didymosphaeriaceae	x	15	180	49606
	2	<i>Falciphora</i> sp. <i>Codinaea</i> sp.	✓ x	29	53	40482
	3	Didymosphaeriaceae	x	27	184	70132
	4	<i>Mollisia</i> sp.	x	34	73	52335
	5	Pleosporales Didymosphaeriaceae <i>Lachnum</i> sp.	x x ✓	31	95	49118
Root HD	6	Helotiaceae	✓	18	141	62044
	7	Mollisiaceae	✓	20	116	23703
	8	<i>Albotricha</i> sp.	✓	16	32	12379
	9	<i>Albotricha</i> sp.	✓	20	55	47814
	10	<i>Drechslera</i> sp. <i>Ilyonectria</i> sp.	✓ x	17	59	21214

3767

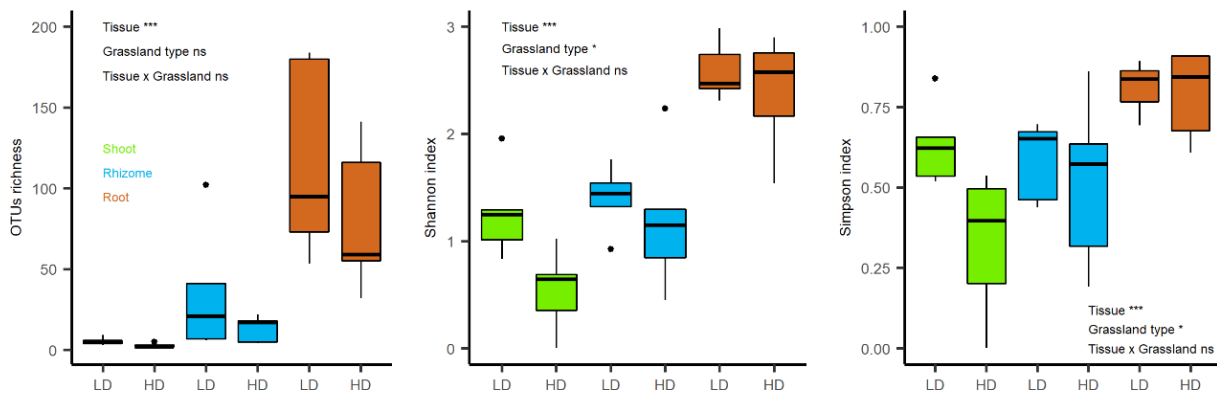


3768

3769 Figure 2. Taxon and OTU accumulation curves for the endophytic community of *B. rupestris* from metabarcoding (LD: Low-
 3770 diversity grassland , HD: High-diversity grassland). Black line shows the total number of taxa/OTUs, and vertical colored lines
 3771 indicate the standard deviation.

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3775

3776 Figure 3. OTU richness and diversity indexes (Shannon and Simpson) for the endophytic community of *B. rupestris* from
 3777 different tissues and grasslands (LD: Low-diversity grassland, HD: High-diversity grassland). *** p-value < 0.001; ** p-value <
 3778 0.01; * p-value < 0.05 and ns = no significance. Black points represent outliers.

3779

3780 3.2.2. Taxonomic assemblages for grassland types and tissues

3781

3782 The relative abundance of phyla, orders and families was estimated from the read sequences.
 3783 Most taxa were included in the phyla Ascomycota (71.21%) and Basidiomycota (21.21%). Figure 4
 3784 shows the relative abundance of orders and families according to tissue and grassland type.

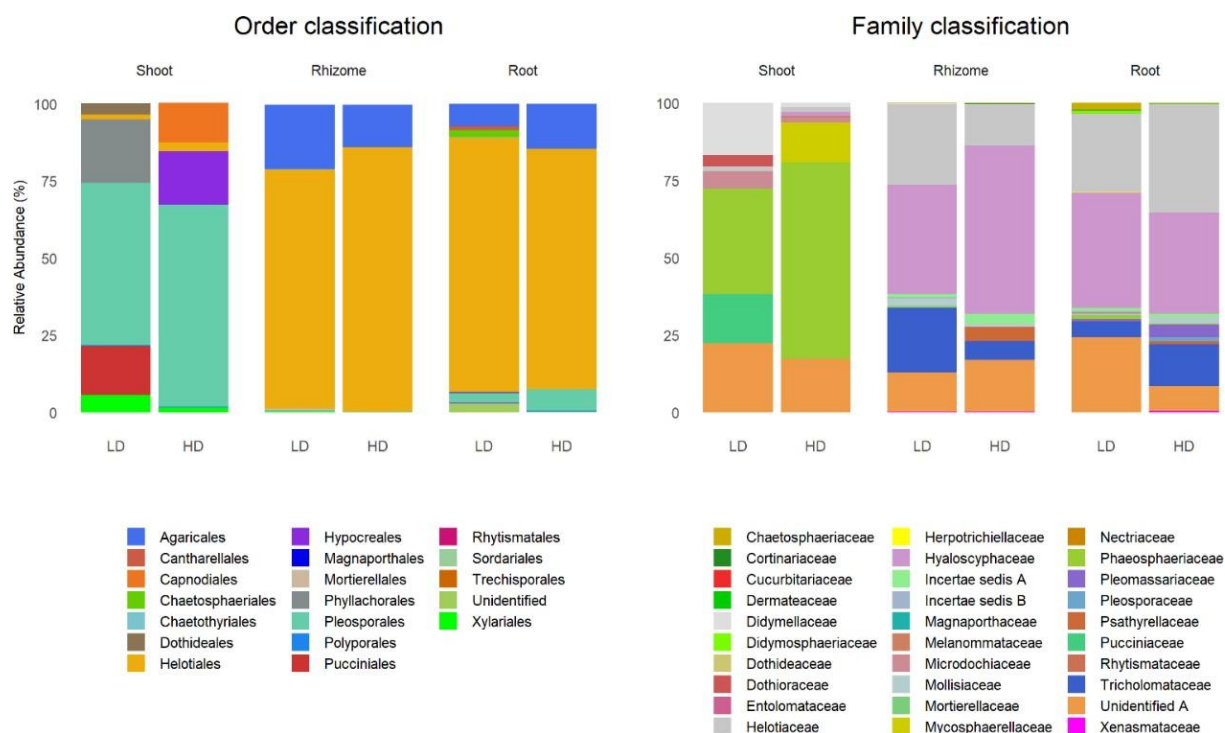
3785 Pleosporales dominated in shoots of plants from both grassland types (52.59% LD and 65.39%
 3786 HD), followed by Phyllachorales (20.49%) and Pucciniales (16.05%) in the LD grassland, and

3787 Hypocreales (17.45%) and Capnodiales (12.73%) in the HD grassland. The other orders did not exceed
 3788 4%, except Xylariales in the LD grassland (5.58 %). Helotiales dominated in the belowground tissues of
 3789 both grassland types ranging from 85.81% (Rhizome-HD) to 77.47% (Rhizome-LD), followed by
 3790 Agaricales ranging from 20.93% (Rhizome-LD) to 7.17% (Root-LD). The other orders did not exceed
 3791 2.5% except Pleosporales in roots from the HD grassland (6.74%) (Figure 4, left).

3792 Phaeosphaeriaceae dominated in shoots from both grassland types (63.48% HD and 34.08% LD),
 3793 followed by unidentified family A (22.28%), Didymellaceae (16.94%) and Pucciniaceae (16.05%) in the
 3794 LD grassland and unidentified family A (17.45%) and Mycosphaerellaceae (12.73%) in the HD grassland.
 3795 The rest of the families did not exceed 5.5%. Hyaloscyphaceae dominated in belowground tissues
 3796 ranging from 54.47% (Rhizome-HD) to 32.72% (Root-HD), followed by Helotiaceae ranging from
 3797 35.05% (Root-HD) to 13.16% (Rhizome-HD). Other families with relatively high abundance were
 3798 Tricholomataceae and unidentified family A, ranging from 20.93% (Rhizome-LD) to 5.18% (Root-LD)
 3799 and from 24.21% (Root-LD) to 8.18% (Root-HD), respectively. The other families did not exceed 4%
 3800 (Figure 4, right).

3801

3802



3803

3804 Figure 4. Taxonomic structure (orders, left and families, right) of fungal endophytes in *B. rupestris* tissues (shoot, rhizome
 3805 and root) in the different grassland types (LD: Low-diversity grassland, HD: High-diversity grassland).

3806

3807 The relative abundance of endophytic taxa after the OTU clustering process according to their
 3808 high genetic similarity (97% threshold), was estimated from the read sequences. The most abundant
 3809 read sequences were located in the root tissue and were reached by Helotiaceae (22.60%), *Lachnum*
 3810 sp. A (21.94%), Helotiales A (8.29%) and *Albotricha* sp. A (7.00%). All of these were more abundant in
 3811 plants collected in the LD grassland, with the exception of *Albotricha* sp. A.

3812 In the roots, taxa with abundances higher than 5% were *Lachnum* sp. A (35.08%), Helotiaceae

3813 (24.51%) and Helotiales A (12.43%) in LD grassland plants, and Helotiaceae (31.09%), *Albotricha* sp A
 3814 (18.83%), *Lachnum* sp. A (12.50%), Agaricales A (9.65%) and Helotiales A (6.03%) in HD grassland plants
 3815 (Table 5).

3816 The dominant taxon in the shoots was Phaeosphaeriaceae (34.08% LD and 58.80% HD). In LD
 3817 grasslands, it was accompanied by Phyllachorales (20.49%), *Puccinia* sp. (16.05%), *Neosascochyta* sp. A
 3818 (14.94%) and *Microdochium* sp. (5.58%), and in HD grasslands by Sordariomycete A (17.45%),
 3819 Mycosphaerellaceae (12.73%) and *Ophiosphaerella* sp. (4.68%). The remaining taxa did not exceed 4%
 3820 (Table 6).

3821 The dominant taxa in the rhizomes of the LD grassland were *Lachnum* sp A. (29.13%),
 3822 Helotiaceae (25.95%), *Mycena* sp. A (20.88%), Helotiales A (10.98%) and *Albotricha* sp. A (5.23%) and
 3823 in the rhizomes of the HD grassland *Albotricha* sp. A (50.58%), Helotiaceae (16.49%), *Lachnum* sp. A
 3824 (9.01%), *Parasola* sp. (5.81%) and Tricholomataceae (4.21%) (Table 5).

3825

3826 Table 6. List of taxa in the *B. rupestre* shoots and their relative abundance based on number of reads, number of OTUs and
 3827 infected plants (out of five).

Endophyte taxon	SHOOT							
	Relative abundance (%)		Reads		OTUs		Infected plants	
	LD	HD	LD	HD	LD	HD	LD	HD
Phaeosphaeriaceae	34.08	58.80	1595	1884	2	1	4	2
Phyllachorales	20.49	0	959	0	1	0	4	0
<i>Puccinia</i> sp.	16.05	0	751	0	3	0	1	0
<i>Neosascochyta</i> sp. A	14.94	0.53	699	17	1	1	4	1
Sordariomycete A	0	17.45	0	559	0	1	0	1
Mycosphaerellaceae	0	12.73	0	408	1	0	0	1
<i>Microdochium</i> sp.	5.58	1.59	261	51	1	1	4	1
Dothideales	3.65	0	171	0	1	0	2	0
<i>Ophiosphaerella</i> sp.	0	4.68	0	150	0	1	0	1
<i>Epicoccum</i> sp.	2.01	0.75	94	24	1	1	1	1
Helotiaceae	1.41	1.56	66	50	1	2	2	3
<i>Periconia</i> sp.	1.56	0	73	0	1	0	1	0
<i>Lachnum</i> sp. A	0	1.28	0	41	0	1	0	1
<i>Phragmocephala</i> sp. B	0	0.63	0	20	1	0	0	1
Unidentified C	0.23	0	11	0	1	0	1	0
	100	100	4680	3204				

3828

3829
3830
3831Table 5. List of the most abundant taxa in *B. rupestre* underground tissues. The relative abundance based on number of reads, number of OTUs and infected plants (out of five). Shaded taxa were sequenced in both underground tissues. The complete table is available in Appendix B.

Endophyte taxon	ROOT								RHIZOME							
	Relative abundance (%)		Reads		OTUs		Infected samples		Relative abundance (%)		Reads		OTUs		Infected samples	
	LD	HD	LD	HD	LD	HD	LD	HD	LD	HD	LD	HD	LD	HD	LD	HD
<i>Helotiaceaea</i>	24.51	31.09	64132	51968	114	116	2	4	25.95	16.49	12267	4897	94	18	2	4
<i>Lachnum sp. A</i>	35.08	12.5	91790	20889	36	20	5	5	29.13	9.01	13771	2676	5	7	4	4
<i>Albotricha sp. A</i>	1.71	18.83	4465	31473	7	6	3	3	5.23	50.58	2473	15018	4	6	3	3
<i>Helotiales A</i>	12.43	6.03	32534	10072	40	28	5	5	10.98	2.77	5188	823	25	1	2	3
<i>Agaricales A</i>	3.55	9.65	9281	16124	3	3	2	4	0.05	0	24	0	2	0	1	0
<i>Mycena sp. A</i>	2.03	0.17	5323	289	10	2	4	1	20.88	0	9870	0	1	0	1	0
<i>Mollisiaceae C</i>	4.17	0.45	10913	745	2	1	4	1	0.42	0.04	198	13	2	1	1	1
<i>Pleosporales A</i>	0.56	4.04	1476	6751	2	4	3	5	0	0.04	0	12	0	1	0	1
<i>Glarea sp.</i>	0.41	3.94	1060	6589	2	1	2	1	0	0.29	0	86	0	1	0	1
<i>Mollisiaceae B</i>	0.43	1.89	1118	3161	1	3	2	3	2.35	1.44	1111	429	1	3	2	2
<i>Mollisiaceae D</i>	0.89	1.07	2330	1782	1	2	2	1	0.78	3.56	369	1056	1	2	2	2
<i>Chaetosphaeriaceae</i>	1.76	0	4608	0	4	0	1	0	0.07	0	33	0	1	0	1	0
<i>Mycena sp. B</i>	0	2.08	0	3479	0	3	0	1	0	3.34	0	993	0	1	0	1
<i>Tricholomataceae B</i>	0	1.48	0	2474	0	1	0	2	0	4.21	0	1251	0	1	0	1
<i>Lachnum sp. B</i>	0.38	1.27	1007	2119	11	7	4	4	0.87	0.14	411	43	1	1	1	1
<i>Cantharellales</i>	1.3	0	3397	0	2	0	1	0								
<i>Parasola sp.</i>	0	0.9	0	1503	0	1	0	1	0	5.81	0	1725	0	3	0	1
<i>Unidentified A</i>	1.21	0.01	3174	19	2	1	1	1								
<i>Ophiosphaerella sp.</i>	0.96	0.32	2513	535	2	1	2	1	0.11	0.06	50	17	1	1	1	1
<i>Mollisiaceae A</i>	0.88	0.4	2309	666	4	3	4	5	0.03	0.28	13	83	1	1	1	1
<i>Drechslera sp.</i>	0.03	1.43	87	2388	2	2	2	5								

3832

3833 **3.2.3 Indicator species of the fungal assemblages**

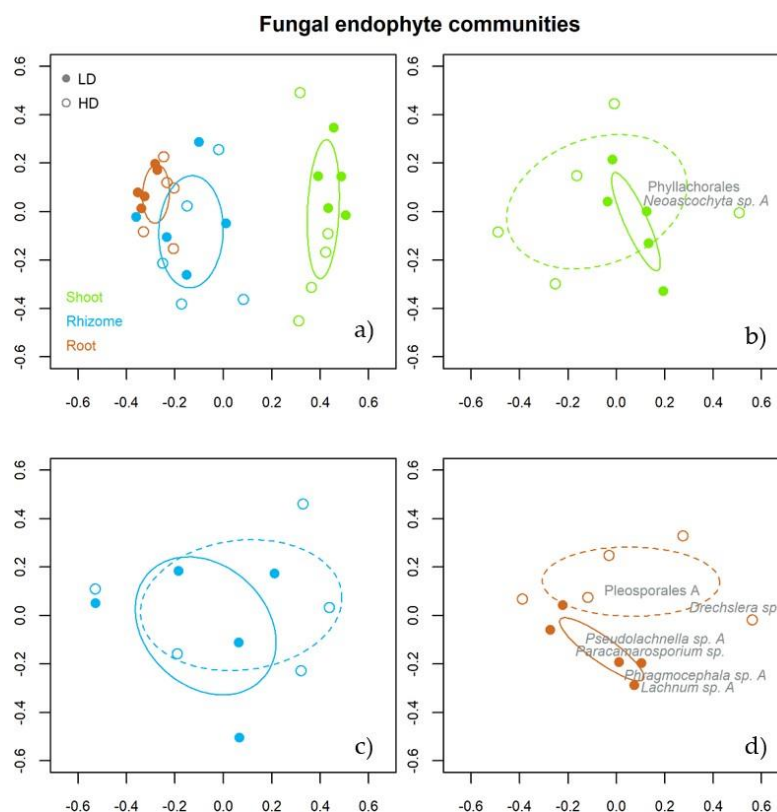
3834

3835 NMDS analysis showed that the fungal endophyte assemblage from above and belowground
 3836 tissues of *B. rupestre* was clearly different (Figure 5a). In addition, fungal assemblages from root tissues
 3837 (Figure 5d), unlike shoots (Figure 5b) and rhizomes (Figure 5c), displayed significant differences
 3838 between grassland types.

3839 The indicator species for shoot tissues were Phaeosphaeriaceae ($p = 0.002$), *Neoscochyta* sp. A
 3840 ($p = 0.005$) and Phyllachorales ($p = 0.029$), and for root tissues were Helotiales A ($p = 0.001$), *Lachnum*
 3841 sp. A ($p = 0.001$), Mollisiaceae A ($p = 0.001$), Pleosporales A ($p = 0.001$), *Drechslera* sp. ($p = 0.001$),
 3842 *Lachnum* sp. B ($p = 0.002$), Agaricales A ($p = 0.001$), *Cladophialophora* sp. ($p = 0.003$), *Leohumicola* sp.
 3843 ($p = 0.003$), *Pseudolachnella* sp. A ($p = 0.007$), Mollisiaceae C ($p = 0.011$), *Pseudolachnella* sp. B ($p =$
 3844 0.023), Unidentified B ($p = 0.041$), *Phragmocephala* sp. A (0.019) and *Paracamarosporium* sp. ($p =$
 3845 0.036). No species were indicative of rhizome tissues.

3846 The indicator species for grassland type were Phyllachorales ($p = 0.044$) and *Neoscochyta* sp. A
 3847 ($p = 0.035$) in shoots collected in the LD grassland (Figure 5b). *Drechslera* sp. ($p = 0.012$) and
 3848 Pleosporales A ($p = 0.036$) were indicators in roots from the HD grassland, while *Lachnum* sp. A ($p =$
 3849 0.007), *Phragmocephala* sp. A ($p = 0.042$), *Paracamarosporium* sp. ($p = 0.037$) and *Pseudolachnella* sp.
 3850 A ($p = 0.047$) were indicators in roots from the LD grassland (Figure 5d). No species in the rhizome
 3851 tissues were indicative of plant community (Figure 5d).

3852



3853

3854 Figure 5. Non-metric multidimensional scaling analysis (NMDS) for the endophytic community of *B. rupestre* according to
 3855 the effect of tissue (a) and plant diversity (shoot 1b, rhizome 1c & roots 1d). The ellipse formed by the solid line
 3856 encompasses the fungal composition of *B. rupestre* tissues (a). The ellipses formed by broken and solid lines encompass the
 3857 fungal composition of the low and high-diversity grassland, respectively (Figure b, c & d). The taxon names in the graphs for
 3858 shoots (b) and roots (d) are the indicator species for the effect of plant diversity.

3859 **4. DISCUSSION**

3860

3861 **4.1. The mycobiome of *B. rupestre* according to the metabarcoding data**

3862

3863 The results of the metabarcoding showed that 88 taxa constituted the mycobiome of *B. rupestre*
 3864 and that only seven taxa sequenced from the belowground tissues accounted for 81.2% of the total
 3865 reads (Helotiaceae, *Lachnum* sp. A, *Albotricha* sp. A, Helotiales A, Agaricales A, *Mycena* sp. A and
 3866 Mollisiaceae C), while the other 81 taxa were responsible for the remaining 18.8%, and 25 of them
 3867 were only sequenced in a single sample. Therefore, a restricted sampling effort using the
 3868 metabarcoding method was able to identify a small group of abundant fungal endophytes and a large
 3869 group of rare species. The accumulation curves also supported the idea that extension of the sampling
 3870 effort would enrich the group of rare species but not the most common species. This pattern of fungal
 3871 endophyte distribution seems common to grasses (Sun et al., 2020) and indicates that a limited
 3872 sampling effort is enough to provide good characterization of the dominant fungal species in plants,
 3873 which is important considering the high cost of metabarcoding. However, when addressing studies on
 3874 fungal richness and diversity, more extended sampling appears necessary to avoid an underestimation
 3875 of the values.

3876 The results of the study also highlight the importance of sampling the different tissues of plants
 3877 to obtain a reliable characterization of its mycobiome (Harrison and Griffin, 2020; Wearn et al., 2012).
 3878 Aboveground fungal assemblages were much poorer in species, less diverse, and taxonomically
 3879 different from those of rhizomes and roots, and this pattern was consistent between the grassland
 3880 types, as observed by other authors in different plant species and different habitats (Arnold and
 3881 Lutzoni, 2007; Herrera et al., 2010; Rudgers et al., 2014). The soil rhizosphere is the main route of
 3882 fungal transmission to plants (Compant et al., 2016; Frank et al., 2017) and the high biomass of rhizome
 3883 and roots developed by *B. rupestre* offers a large surface in contact with the soil microbiome. The
 3884 majority of taxa identified were specific to a tissue, or exhibited a strong preference for it, and only
 3885 five taxa appeared in all tissues (Helotiaceae, *Lachnum* sp. A, *Ophiosphaerella* sp., *Microdochium* sp.
 3886 and *Epicoccum* sp.). As expected, the relative abundances of taxonomic orders and families also varied
 3887 between tissues, with Pleosporales and Phaeosphaeriaceae more abundant in shoots, and Helotiales
 3888 and Hyaloscyphaceae more abundant in rhizomes and roots.

3889 When comparing these results with previous characterizations of fungal endophyte assemblages
 3890 in perennial temperate grasses based on culture techniques and extensive surveys, we realize the
 3891 power of the metabarcoding tool, which is capable of identifying a large set of taxa with much less
 3892 sampling effort. In *Dactylis glomerata*, 22 and 48 taxa were identified by culturing methods from the
 3893 leaves and the roots of 120 samples (Sánchez-Márquez et al., 2007) and in *Holcus lanatus* 77 and 79 in
 3894 the same tissues of 77 samples (Sánchez-Márquez et al., 2010). The results of our survey of the leaves
 3895 and roots of *B. rupestre* (2 and 11 taxa identified by the culturing method and 12 and 82 taxa identified
 3896 by metabarcoding) obtained from a small number of samples in a regional sampling suggest that the
 3897 real diversity and richness of the endophytic fungal assemblages of the previously studied grass species
 3898 have probably been underestimated and would increase greatly if the novel metabarcoding techniques
 3899 were used.

3900

3901 **4.2. Culturing vs. metabarcoding methods**

3902

3903 The modern massive sequencing techniques are gaining ground to traditional culturing methods

3904 due to the quantitative power of data that are able to generate. With equal sampling effort,
 3905 metabarcoding identified 13, 32 and 71 more taxa than culturing methods in shoots, rhizomes and
 3906 roots, respectively, which means around x 5.8 times more species identified by the novel technique
 3907 consistently in the three tissues. In similar studies comparing both methods, the metabarcoding
 3908 identified x 5.2 and x 4.3 times more OTUs in roots of *Elymus repens* and *Deschampsia flexuosa*
 3909 respectively than the culturing technique (Tejesvi et al., 2010; Høyer and Hodkinson, 2021). A parallel
 3910 study using 240 plants of *B. rupestris* recognized 45 fungal endophytic taxa using the culturing method
 3911 (Durán et al., 2021), in contrast to the 88 taxa sequenced by metabarcoding from 10 plants in the
 3912 current survey. In this parallel study, the singletons isolated accounted for 48.9% of the taxa identified
 3913 by culturing methods and 28.4% of the taxa identified by metabarcoding (with OTUs clustered with a
 3914 97% of similarity threshold).

3915 Regarding belowground tissues, four fungal species with high incidence in root tissues were
 3916 identified by both methodologies: *Albotricha* sp., Helotiaceae, *Lachnum* sp. and Mollisiaceae. In
 3917 shoots, surprisingly, the most frequent shoot endophyte identified by the culturing method,
 3918 *Omnidemptus graminis*, was not identified by the metabarcoding technique. *O. graminis* is a recently
 3919 described taxon, included in a family associated with ongoing taxonomic changes due to molecular
 3920 advances (Hernández-Restrepo et al., 2019, 2016). Its fast mycelial growth observed on culture plates
 3921 may suggest the encrypting of other endophytes, but how *O. graminis* escaped the sequencing process
 3922 of the metabarcoding is a matter that needs further study.

3923 At this point, some issues need to be discussed when comparing the technical procedures of
 3924 sequencing in both techniques. The ITS region is a universal and commonly used DNA barcode marker
 3925 for fungi (Schoch et al., 2012) and, in the metabarcoding study undertaken by an external company,
 3926 only the ITS2 region was amplified to identify the fungal sequences (Mbareche et al., 2020; Zhang et
 3927 al., 2020). In the culturing method undertaken in the UPNA's lab, the fungal mycelium was collected
 3928 and the complete ITS region was amplified (ITS1-5.8S-ITS2), generating longer DNA sequences. We
 3929 suggest that, since the ITS2 region is more restrictive, taxonomic inconsistencies may occur when short
 3930 sequences are compared in the databases, thus affecting taxon identification (Ebach et al., 2011). The
 3931 percentages of taxa identified for the metabarcoding were in the range 78.1-100%, and 97.6-100% for
 3932 the culture sequencing, evidencing this restriction and indicating the value of sequencing the complete
 3933 ITS region to achieve better fungal taxa identification. As a particular example, the taxon proposed as
 3934 *Codinaea* sp. reached a match of 99.74% with the complete ITS region sequenced, while this
 3935 percentage decreased to 97.52% when considering only the ITS2 region. As a consequence, the species
 3936 was identified as Chaetosphaeriaceae in the metabarcoding, following a more conservative approach,
 3937 although it was probably the same taxon. Similar situations may occur in other closely related taxa,
 3938 when there is no reference specimen in the database (Arnold et al., 2007; Schoch et al., 2014). Taxa
 3939 identified as Mollisiaceae in our study probably belong to the genera *Mollisia* and/or *Phialocephala*
 3940 (Tanney et al., 2016; Tanney and Seifert, 2020), and family Helotiaceae to the genera *Glarea* and/or
 3941 *Hymenoscyphus* (Bills et al., 1999). Both families were abundant in our samples. Other highly inclusive
 3942 taxa, such as Pleosporales, raised similar doubts in the identification due to the still high uncertainty
 3943 in the genetic characterization of the type specimens.

3944 Despite the remarkable differences between the quantitative data generated by the two
 3945 methods, the characteristics of the fungal assemblages in the different plant communities and tissues
 3946 types are consistent between methods. Root tissues display the most diverse and rich fungal
 3947 assemblages, and the endophytic community in plants collected in more disrupted, LD grasslands had
 3948 the highest diversity and richness. Similar patterns have been reported in previous research in the
 3949 area, conducted with a much greater sampling effort and using the culturing method (Durán et al.,
 3950 2021), that analyzed the fungal assemblages in terms of the ecological mechanisms favored by the
 3951 different disturbance regimes.

3952 **5. CONCLUSIONS**

3953

3954 The endophytic mycobiome of *B. rupestre* is composed of a few abundant and many rare
3955 species, the identification of which depends on the sampling effort. Despite the restricted sampling
3956 effort, the two methodologies produced consistent results and detected the same trends in endophytic
3957 richness and diversity among tissues (roots > rhizomes > shoot) and grassland types (low-diversity >
3958 high-diversity). Comparatively, the metabarcoding method allowed the identification of a much larger
3959 number of taxa than the culturing method and revealed differences in richness and diversity that were
3960 not apparent with the culturing method (even when a larger number of samples was collected; Durán
3961 et al., 2021).

3962 Despite the promising results of the metabarcoding technique, the data indicate that a
3963 combination of the two methodologies is the best current option to obtain an adequate
3964 characterization of the plant fungal assemblage. In this study, metabarcoding did not identify
3965 *Omnidemptus graminis*, the most abundant fungal endophyte isolated in shoots by culturing; this
3966 recently described species is included in a family where there have been repeated taxonomic
3967 restructurings as a result of molecular advances (Hernández-Restrepo et al., 2019).

3968

Appendix A. Table with the 88 identified taxa from the metabarcoding method

3969

Match taxon (NCBI)			Match taxon (UNITE)			Taxon proposed	Accession number	
	Accession number	Greatest percentage identity (%)		Accession number	Greatest percentage identity (%)			
1	<i>Gerronema</i> sp.	NR_166278	82.37	<i>Delicatula integrella</i>	UDB034203	99.77	Agaricales A	OK430888
2	<i>Gerronema</i> sp.	NR_166278	78.9	<i>Mycena</i> sp.	KT224934	89	Agaricales B	OK430889
3	<i>Ramariopsis flavescens</i>	NR_119913	85.06	Agaricales	JX456916	95.2	Agaricales C	OK430890
4	<i>Gerronema indigoticum</i>	NR_166278	78.06	Mycenaceae	KT224934	94.29	Agaricales D	OK430891
5	<i>Laccaria aurantia</i>	NR_154113	78.57	<i>Mycena floridula</i>	MH856660	99.35	Agaricales E	OK430892
6	<i>Radulotubus resupinatus</i>	NR_153458	84.66	Agaricomycete	LR864837	99.32	Agaricomycete	OK430893
7	<i>Lachnellula hyalina</i>	NR_165202	93.02	<i>Albotricha</i> sp.	JN995639	100	<i>Albotricha</i> sp. A	OK430894
8	<i>Lachnellula hyalina</i>	NR_165202	91.59	<i>Albotricha</i> sp.	JN995639	98.71	<i>Albotricha</i> sp. B	OK430895
9	<i>Lachnellula hyalina</i>	NR_165202	91.59	<i>Albotricha</i> sp.	HM136666	100	<i>Albotricha</i> sp. C	OK430896
10	<i>Funiliomyces biseptatus</i>	NR_159862	96.39	<i>Acremonium</i> sp.	MT911439	100	Ascomycota A	OK430897
11	<i>Tricladium terrestre</i>	NR_160144	93.67	Ascomycota sp.	KR266584	93.67	Ascomycota B	OK430898
12	<i>Auricularia scissa</i>	NR_125807	80.48	<i>Oliveonia</i> sp.	MT235652	97.16	Auriculariales	OK430899
13	<i>Hydnum albidum</i>	NR_164025	78.7	<i>Sistotrema</i> sp.	KC965692	93.87	Cantharellales	OK430900
14	<i>Codinaeae</i> sp.	NR_168799	97.52	<i>Codinaea</i> sp.	MT626587	98.35	Chaetosphaeriaceae	OK430901
15	<i>Chalara hyalocuspica</i>	NR_137568	91.25	<i>Chalara</i> sp.	MK965778	98.33	<i>Chalara</i> sp.	OK430902
16	<i>Cladophialophora tengchongensis</i>	NR_172399	90.07	<i>Cladophialophora</i> sp.	KP889848	100	<i>Cladophialophora</i> sp.	OK430903
17	<i>Coccomyces pinicola</i>	NR_158295	83.54	<i>Coccomyces dentatus</i>	KU986782	93.82	<i>Coccomyces</i> sp.	OK430904
18	<i>Conlarium duplumascospora</i>	NR_138382	94.9	<i>Conlarium</i> sp.	MK164654	96.85	<i>Conlarium</i> sp.	OK430905
19	<i>Laburnicola centaurear</i>	NR_154131	93.6	<i>Laburnicola</i> sp.	MK018553	97.95	Didymosphaeriaceae	OK430906
20	<i>Pseudoseptoria collariana</i>	NR_156560	97.63	<i>Pseudoseptoria donacis</i>	MH859141	99.6	Dothideales	OK430907
21	<i>Roussoella thailandica</i>	NR_155717	80.56	Dothideomycete	KJ827952	95	Dothideomycete A	OK430908

22	<i>Pirozynskiella laurisilvica</i>	NR_153488	91	Capnodiales	KX403688	91	Dothideomycete B	OK430909
23	<i>Drechslera</i> sp.	NR_164466	92.89	<i>Drechslera</i> sp.	MT816433	99.6	<i>Drechslera</i> sp.	OK430910
24	<i>Entoloma luteofuscum</i>	NR_152900	95.24	<i>Entoloma conferendum</i>	MT741744	100	<i>Entoloma</i> sp.	OK430911
25	<i>Epicoccum phragmospora</i>	NR_165920	99.19	<i>Epicoccum</i> sp.	MW054426	100	<i>Epicoccum</i> sp.	OK430912
26	<i>Falciphora oryzae</i>	NR_153972	98.86	<i>Falciphora oryzae</i>	MH201898	99.23	<i>Falciphora</i> sp.	OK430913
27	<i>Glarea lozoyensis</i>	NR_137138	98.48	<i>Glarea</i> sp.	KT268823	100	<i>Glarea</i> sp.	OK430914
28	<i>Glarea lozoyensis</i>	NR_137138	95.96	<i>Glarea</i> sp.	KF617491	100	Helotiaceae	OK430915
29	<i>Loramyces macrosporus</i>	NR_138379	89.8	<i>Loramyces</i> sp.	KF618060	99.58	Helotiales A	OK430916
30	<i>Loramyces macrosporus</i>	NR_138379	89.07	<i>Mollisia</i> sp.	UDB0778890	99.59	Helotiales B	OK430917
31	<i>Triposporium cycadicola</i>	NR_156587	89.71	<i>Hymenoscyphus</i> sp.	HQ625461	99.58	Helotiales C	OK430918
32	<i>Bisporella shangrilana</i>	NR_153628	97.02	Helotiales	LR863043	99.58	Helotiales D	OK430919
33	<i>Hyaloscypha finlandica</i>	NR_121279	92.27	<i>Hyaloscypha vraalstadiae</i>	KC876248	96.23	Hyaloscyphaceae	OK430920
34	<i>Lachnellula hyalina</i>	NR_165202	91.12	<i>Lachnum</i> sp.	MT913626	96.61	<i>Lachnum</i> sp. A	OK430921
35	<i>Lachnum fusiforme</i>	NR_154122	89.91	<i>Lachnum</i> sp.	MK808968	97.45	<i>Lachnum</i> sp. B	OK430922
36	<i>Proliferodiscus</i> sp.	NR_164304	86.67	<i>Lachnum</i> sp.	MH628228	99.57	<i>Lachnum</i> sp. C	OK430923
37	<i>Leohumicola minima</i>	NR_121307	100	<i>Leohumicola</i> sp.	FM999596	100	<i>Leohumicola</i> sp.	OK430924
38	<i>Variabilispora flava</i>	NR_165906	86.83	Helotiales	AY969994	95.65	Leotiomycete	OK430925
39	<i>Menispora ciliata</i>	NR_171740	99.5	<i>Menispora ciliata</i>	MH860017	99.12	<i>Menispora</i> sp.	OK430926
40	<i>Microdochium phragmitis</i>	NR_132916	100	<i>Microdochium phragmitis</i>	MN077456	100	<i>Microdochium</i> sp.	OK430927
41	<i>Phialocephala</i> sp.	NR_119482	90.38	<i>Phialocephala</i> sp.	MG066460	97.88	Mollisiaceae A	OK430928
42	<i>Mollisia scopiformis</i>	NR_119460	93.22	<i>Phialocephala</i> sp.	MK808244	98.72	Mollisiaceae B	OK430929
43	<i>Mollisia moniloides</i>	NR_171261	96.22	<i>Phialocephala</i> sp.	MT911435	100	Mollisiaceae C	OK430930
44	<i>Mollisia prismatica</i>	NR_171258	91.9	<i>Phialocephala</i> sp.	MK965789	99.57	Mollisiaceae D	OK430931
45	<i>Mollisia asteliae</i>	NR_173037	95.15	<i>Mollisia</i> sp.	MH633925	100	Mollisiaceae E	OK430932
46	<i>Mollisia diesbachiana</i>	NR_171259	96.77	<i>Mollisia</i> sp.	MT179560	100	Mollisiaceae F	OK430933
47	<i>Mortierella gemmifera</i>	NR_111559	94.81	Mortierellaceae	LR863033	99.43	<i>Mortierella</i> sp.	OK430934
48	<i>Podila horticola</i>	NR_111572	99.09	<i>Mortierella</i> sp.	DQ388818	99.7	Mortierellaceae	OK430935
49	<i>Mycena fulgoris</i>	NR_163300	93.29	<i>Mycena</i> sp.	JF519186	98.4	<i>Mycena</i> sp. A	OK430936
50	<i>Mycena fulgoris</i>	NR_163300	93.29	<i>Mycena</i> sp.	MK961197	99.67	<i>Mycena</i> sp. B	OK430937

51	<i>Mycena fulgoris</i>	NR_163300	93.31	<i>Mycena arcangeliana</i>	JF908402	99.35	<i>Mycena</i> sp. C	OK430938
52	<i>Mycena fulgoris</i>	NR_163300	87.99	<i>Mycena</i> sp.	UDB020406	100	<i>Mycena</i> sp. D	OK430939
53	<i>Mycena fulgoris</i>	NR_163300	89.64	<i>Mycena</i> sp.	HQ625481	99.32	<i>Mycena</i> sp. E	OK430940
54	<i>Cercospora coniogrammes</i>	NR_147260	97.89	<i>Cercospora</i> sp.	MN970528	97.89	Mycosphaerellaceae	OK430941
55	<i>Myrmecridium spartii</i>	NR_155376	96.25	<i>Myrmecridium</i> sp.	MW133876	98.32	<i>Myrmecridium</i> sp.	OK430942
56	<i>Pseudomassariella vexata</i>	NR_164217	87.78	<i>Fusidium</i> sp.	HG936132	100	Nectriaceae	OK430943
57	<i>Neosascochyta europaea</i>	NR_136131	97.03	<i>Neosascochyta europaea</i>	MK190674	97.17	<i>Neosascochyta</i> sp. A	OK430944
58	<i>Neosascochyta soli</i>	NR_158269	100	<i>Neosascochyta paspali</i>	MT373264	100	<i>Neosascochyta</i> sp. B	OK430945
59	<i>Ophiosphaerella aquatica</i>	NR_154352	89.96	<i>Ophiosphaerella</i> sp.	MH063799	98.38	<i>Ophiosphaerella</i> sp.	OK430946
60	<i>Paracamarosporium fagi</i>	NR_154318	99.18	<i>Paracamarosporium fagi</i>	MN244221	99.18	<i>Paracamarosporium</i> sp.	OK430947
61	<i>Parasola parvula</i>	NR_160509	94.43	<i>Parasola schroeteri</i>	UDB024639	99.67	<i>Parasola</i> sp.	OK430948
62	<i>Periconia epilithographicola</i>	NR_157477	94.55	<i>Periconia</i> sp.	MG543950	100	<i>Periconia</i> sp.	OK430949
63	<i>Pezicula rhizophila</i>	NR_155659	100	<i>Pezicula</i> sp.	MN385513	100	<i>Pezicula</i> sp.	OK430950
64	<i>Parastagonospora poagena</i>	NR_168147	97.94	<i>Parastagonospora nodorum</i>	MN313349	99.17	Phaeosphaeriaceae	OK430951
65	<i>Phragmocephala garethjonesii</i>	NR_147636	92.21	<i>Phragmocephala garethjonesii</i>	MN660752	92.21	<i>Phragmocephala</i> sp. A	OK430952
66	<i>Phragmocephala garethjonesii</i>	NR_147636	90.2	<i>Phragmocephala atra</i>	MN660752	90.61	<i>Phragmocephala</i> sp. B	OK430953
67	<i>Phyllachora</i> sp.	NR_156611	85	<i>Phyllachora graminis</i>	AF257111	96.68	Phyllachorales	OK430954
68	<i>Pleotrichocladium opacum</i>	NR_155696	94.21	Pleosporales	KY228531	99.58	Pleosporales A	OK430955
69	<i>Camposporium multiseptatum</i>	NR_171863	100	<i>Camposporium</i> sp.	MN758889	100	Pleosporales B	OK430956
70	<i>Anteaglonium rubescens</i>	NR_164489	89.92	<i>Lophiostoma</i> sp.	EU977287	93.17	Pleosporales C	OK430957
71	<i>Pseudolachnella fusiformis</i>	NR_154280	94.24	<i>Pseudolachnella fusiformis</i>	AB934080	94.24	<i>Pseudolachnella</i> sp. A	OK430958
72	<i>Pseudolachnella fusiformis</i>	NR_154280	93.78	<i>Pseudolachnella fusiformis</i>	AB934080	93.77	<i>Pseudolachnella</i> sp. B	OK430959
73	<i>Puccinia aizazii</i>	NR_158929	99.2	<i>Puccinia brachypodii</i>	GQ457303	100	<i>Puccinia</i> sp.	OK430960
74	<i>Plectosphaerella niemeijerorum</i>	NR_156677	88.24	Plectosphaerellaceae	MK762215	88.23	Sordariomycete A	OK430961
75	<i>Phaeoacrenonium cinereum</i>	NR_132066	80.62	Sordariomycete	KP050604	80.62	Sordariomycete B	OK430962
76	<i>Cordana pauciseptata</i>	NR_154771	88.98	Sordariales	UDB067041	96.69	Sordariomycete C	OK430963
77	<i>Neomyrmecridium guizhouense</i>	NR_170024	82.45	Sordariomycete	LR865231	100	Sordariomycete D	OK430964
78	<i>Atractospora verruculosa</i>	NR_153542	89.53	Sordariales	EU754966	100	Sordariomycete E	OK430965
79	<i>Subulicistidium oberwinkleri</i>	NR_159060	86.42	Trechisporales	JF519283	100	Trechisporales A	OK430966

80	<i>Subulicystidium oberwinkleri</i>	NR_159060	80.53	Trechisporales	UDB020436	83.77	Trechisporales B	OK430967
81	<i>Trichoderma hispanicum</i>	NR_138451	99.25	<i>Trichoderma koningii</i>	MT781958	99.24	<i>Trichoderma</i> sp.	OK430968
82	<i>Corinarius hadrocroceus</i>	NR_131854	79.62	Tricholomataceae	KX115676	100	Tricholomataceae A	OK430969
83	<i>Mycena seminau</i>	NR_154170	88.82	Tricholomataceae	MH016642	99.67	Tricholomataceae B	OK430970
84	<i>Phialocephala humicola</i>	NR_103570	87.7	Chaetosphaeriales	HM136627	100	Unidentified A	OK430971
85	<i>Rhodospordiobolus fluvialis</i>	NR_077089	93.65	Agaricomycete	UDB0327559	100	Unidentified B	OK430972
86	<i>Mycosymbiocytes mycenaphila</i>	NR_137807	85.06	Helotiales	UDB0779249	100	Unidentified C	OK430973
87	<i>Mollisia monilioides</i>	NR_171261	90.34	Helotiales	KT203037	96.61	Unidentified D	OK430974
88	<i>Linteromyces quintinae</i>	NR_171989	86.25	Xylariales	MN218782	99.62	Xylariales	OK430975

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Appendix B. Complete table with all identified taxa in underground tissues of the *B. rupestre* by metabarcoding method. The relative abundance based on number of reads, number of OTUs and infected plants (out of five). Shaded taxa were sequenced in both underground tissues.

Endophyte taxon	ROOT								RHIZOME							
	Relative abundance (%)		Reads		OTUs		Infected plants		Relative abundance (%)		Reads		OTUs		Infected plants	
	LD	HD	LD	HD	LD	HD	LD	HD	LD	HD	LD	HD	LD	HD	LD	HD
Helotiaceae	24.51	31.09	64132	51968	114	116	2	4	25.95	16.49	12267	4897	94	18	2	4
<i>Lachnum</i> sp. A	35.08	12.5	91790	20889	36	20	5	5	29.13	9.01	13771	2676	5	7	4	4
<i>Albotricha</i> sp. A	1.71	18.83	4465	31473	7	6	3	3	5.23	50.58	2473	15018	4	6	3	3
Helotiales A	12.43	6.03	32534	10072	40	28	5	5	10.98	2.77	5188	823	25	1	2	3
Agaricales A	3.55	9.65	9281	16124	3	3	2	4	0.05	0	24	0	2	0	1	0
<i>Mycena</i> sp. A	2.03	0.17	5323	289	10	2	4	1	20.88	0	9870	0	1	0	1	0
Mollisiaceae C	4.17	0.45	10913	745	2	1	4	1	0.42	0.04	198	13	2	1	1	1
Pleosporales A	0.56	4.04	1476	6751	2	4	3	5	0	0.04	0	12	0	1	0	1
<i>Glarea</i> sp.	0.41	3.94	1060	6589	2	1	2	1	0	0.29	0	86	0	1	0	1
Mollisiaceae B	0.43	1.89	1118	3161	1	3	2	3	2.35	1.44	1111	429	1	3	2	2
Mollisiaceae D	0.89	1.07	2330	1782	1	2	2	1	0.78	3.56	369	1056	1	2	2	2
Chaetosphaeriaceae	1.76	0	4608	0	4	0	1	0	0.07	0	33	0	1	0	1	0
<i>Mycena</i> sp. B	0	2.08	0	3479	0	3	0	1	0	3.34	0	993	0	1	0	1
Tricholomataceae B	0	1.48	0	2474	0	1	0	2	0	4.21	0	1251	0	1	0	1
<i>Lachnum</i> sp. B	0.38	1.27	1007	2119	11	7	4	4	0.87	0.14	411	43	1	1	1	1
Cantharellales	1.3	0	3397	0	2	0	1	0								
<i>Parasola</i> sp.	0	0.9	0	1503	0	1	0	1	0	5.81	0	1725	0	3	0	1
Unidentified A	1.21	0.01	3174	19	2	1	1	1								
<i>Ophiosphaerella</i> sp.	0.96	0.32	2513	535	2	1	2	1	0.11	0.06	50	17	1	1	1	1
Mollisiaceae A	0.88	0.4	2309	666	4	3	4	5	0.03	0.28	13	83	1	1	1	1
<i>Drechslera</i> sp.	0.03	1.43	87	2388	2	2	2	5								
<i>Paracamarosporium</i> sp.	0.92	0	2419	0	1	0	4	0	0.06	0	28	0	1	0	2	0
Agaricales C	0.58	0.07	1514	114	1	1	2	1								

Auriculariales	0.5	0	1308	0	2	0	1	0								
Tricholomataceae A	0.48	0	1266	0	1	0	1	0								
Unidentified B	0.13	0.43	340	718	1	1	3	2	0.19	0.29	90	86	1	1	1	1
<i>Pseudolachnella</i> sp. B	0.42	0.04	1097	72	1	1	3	2	0.11	0	51	0	1	0	1	0
<i>Trichoderma</i> sp.	0.41	0.01	1076	15	1	1	2	1								
Didymosphaeriaceae	0	0.58	0	963	0	2	0	1								
<i>Conlarium</i> sp.	0.35	0	925	0	1	0	3	0	0.07	0	35	0	1	0	1	0
Helotiales C	0.34	0	900	0	1	0	1	0								
<i>Phragmocephala</i> sp. A	0.28	0	734	0	2	0	4	0								
Agaricales B	0.26	0.02	675	32	2	1	1	1								
<i>Menispora</i> sp.	0.27	0	702	0	1	0	2	0								
<i>Cladophialophora</i> sp.	0.23	0.04	604	74	1	1	3	3	0.04	0	18	0	1	0	1	0
Pleosporales B	0.11	0.2	299	341	1	2	1	2								
<i>Pseudolachnella</i> sp. A	0.23	0.01	606	11	2	1	4	1								
Mortierellaceae	0.11	0	283	0	2	0	1	0	0.43	0	201	0	3	0	1	0
Mollisiaceae F									1.01	0	476	0	1	0	1	0
<i>Chalara</i> sp.	0.06	0.03	168	57	2	2	3	2	0.4	0.09	187	26	1	1	1	1
Sordariomycete D	0.17	0	435	0	1	0	1	0								
Helotiales B	0.03	0	87	0	1	0	1	0	0.21	0.73	99	218	1	1	1	1
Agaricomycete	0.12	0	325	0	1	0	1	0								
Ascomycota B	0.1	0	266	0	1	0	1	0	0.09	0	41	0	1	0	1	0
Mollisiaceae E	0	0.13	0	216	0	1	0	1	0	0.31	0	91	0	1	0	1
<i>Microdochium</i> sp.	0.07	0	187	0	1	0	3	0	0.25	0	119	0	1	0	1	0
<i>Mortierella</i> sp.	0.12	0	305	0	2	0	1	0								
Sordariomycete B	0.11	0	297	0	1	0	1	0								
<i>Pezicula</i> sp.	0	0.16	0	272	0	1	0	2								
<i>Coccomyces</i> sp.	0.09	0.02	227	31	1	1	2	1								
<i>Albotricha</i> sp. B	0	0.13	0	217	0	2	0	1	0	0.06	0	19	0	1	0	1
<i>Leohumicola</i> sp.	0.06	0.03	166	57	1	1	4	2	0.03	0	13	0	1	0	1	0
<i>Lachnum</i> sp. C	0.09	0	228	0	1	0	1	0								

Pleosporales C	0	0.13	0	213	0	1	0	3									
Nectriaceae	0.08	0	212	0	1	0	1	0									
<i>Phragmocephala</i> sp. B	0.06	0.03	147	45	1	1	1	2									
Sordariomycete C	0	0.11	0	188	0	1	0	2									
Ascomycota A	0.06	0	168	0	1	0	3	0									
Sordariomycete E	0.06	0	167	0	1	0	1	0									
Trechisporales B	0	0.09	12	151	1	1	1	1									
Trechisporales A	0.03	0	76	0	1	0	2	0	0	0.28	0	82	0	1	0	1	
Agaricales D	0.06	0	153	0	1	0	1	0									
<i>Myrmecridium</i> sp.	0.06	0	149	0	1	0	2	0									
Dothideomycete A	0.04	0	117	0	1	0	1	0	0.06	0	30	0	1	0	1	0	
<i>Entoloma</i> sp.	0.06	0	144	0	1	0	1	0									
<i>Falciphora</i> sp.	0.05	0	141	0	1	0	1	0									
Leotiomycete	0.05	0	139	0	1	0	1	0									
<i>Mycena</i> sp. D	0.05	0.01	120	14	1	1	1	1									
<i>Mycena</i> sp. E	0	0.08	0	133	0	1	0	1									
Unidentified D	0.05	0	132	0	1	0	1	0									
Agaricales E	0.05	0	128	0	1	0	1	0									
Dothideomycete B	0	0.08	0	127	0	1	0	1									
Unidentified C	0.05	0	124	0	1	0	1	0									
<i>Albotricha</i> sp. C	0.05	0	123	0	1	0	1	0									
Helotiales D	0.05	0	121	0	1	0	1	0									
<i>Neoascochyta</i> sp. B	0.01	0	17	0	1	0	1	0	0.22	0	102	0	1	0	3	0	
<i>Mycena</i> sp. C	0.03	0	86	0	1	0	1	0	0	0.07	0	22	0	1	0	1	
Hyaloscyphaceae	0.03	0.02	73	27	1	1	2	1									
<i>Periconia</i> sp.	0.02	0	51	0	1	0	2	0									
<i>Epicoccum</i> sp.	0	0	12	0	1	0	1	0	0	0.09	0	26	0	1	0	1	
Phaeosphaeriaceae	0	0.02	0	28	0	1	0	1									
Xylariales sp.	0.04	0.01	105	12	1	1	2	1									
	100	100	261673	167154					100	100	47268	29692					

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DISCUSIÓN GENERAL

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4201 **1. El coste económico de la pérdida del valor de aprovisionamiento en pastos degradados**

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4203 La pérdida de biodiversidad de los pastos de montaña de Aezkoa debido a la expansión de *B.*
 4204 *rupestre* ha encontrado, en el primer capítulo de esta memoria, un modo de ser cuantificada
 4205 económicamente. En un planeta globalizado y movido por intereses económicos, otorgar un valor
 4206 monetario a los recursos naturales puede ser una forma de valorizarlo y fomentar su conservación (de
 4207 Groot y col., 2012). Valorizar la pérdida de biodiversidad florística y relacionarlo con la pérdida de
 4208 abastecimiento de alimento de calidad para los herbívoros domésticos, puede ser un primer paso para
 4209 fomentar un cambio de hábitos de la gestión del pastoreo y el fuego en la región, además de en el
 4210 mundo científico.

4211 La expansión de *B. rupestre* en Aezkoa no sólo va ligada a una grave pérdida de diversidad
 4212 florística sino que su escasa palatabilidad también implica un fuerte impacto en la pérdida del valor
 4213 forrajero de las cubiertas que invade. El rechazo que los animales tienen hacia su consumo encuentra
 4214 relación con su rápido y temprano desarrollo primaveral cuando los animales todavía no han sido
 4215 trasladados a las zonas altas. Su rápido agostamiento disminuye su calidad forrajera por lo que el valor
 4216 del índice de calidad otorgado a la especie en la bibliografía (Jouglet, 1999) no corresponde con la
 4217 calidad real que tiene en el momento de ser consumida por los animales.

4218 La posibilidad de comparar zonas que aún mantienen una alta calidad forrajera y diversidad
 4219 florística frente a otras totalmente degradadas por la dominancia de *B. rupestre*, permitió realizar esta
 4220 valoración económica en base a inventarios florísticos en ambas cubiertas. El cálculo final arrojó un
 4221 coste económico de 21.146€ para la temporada de pastoreo del año 2018, lo que supone un coste de
 4222 107€/ha. Un valor importante a considerar para una región pequeña y tan económicamente ligada a
 4223 la ganadería extensiva.

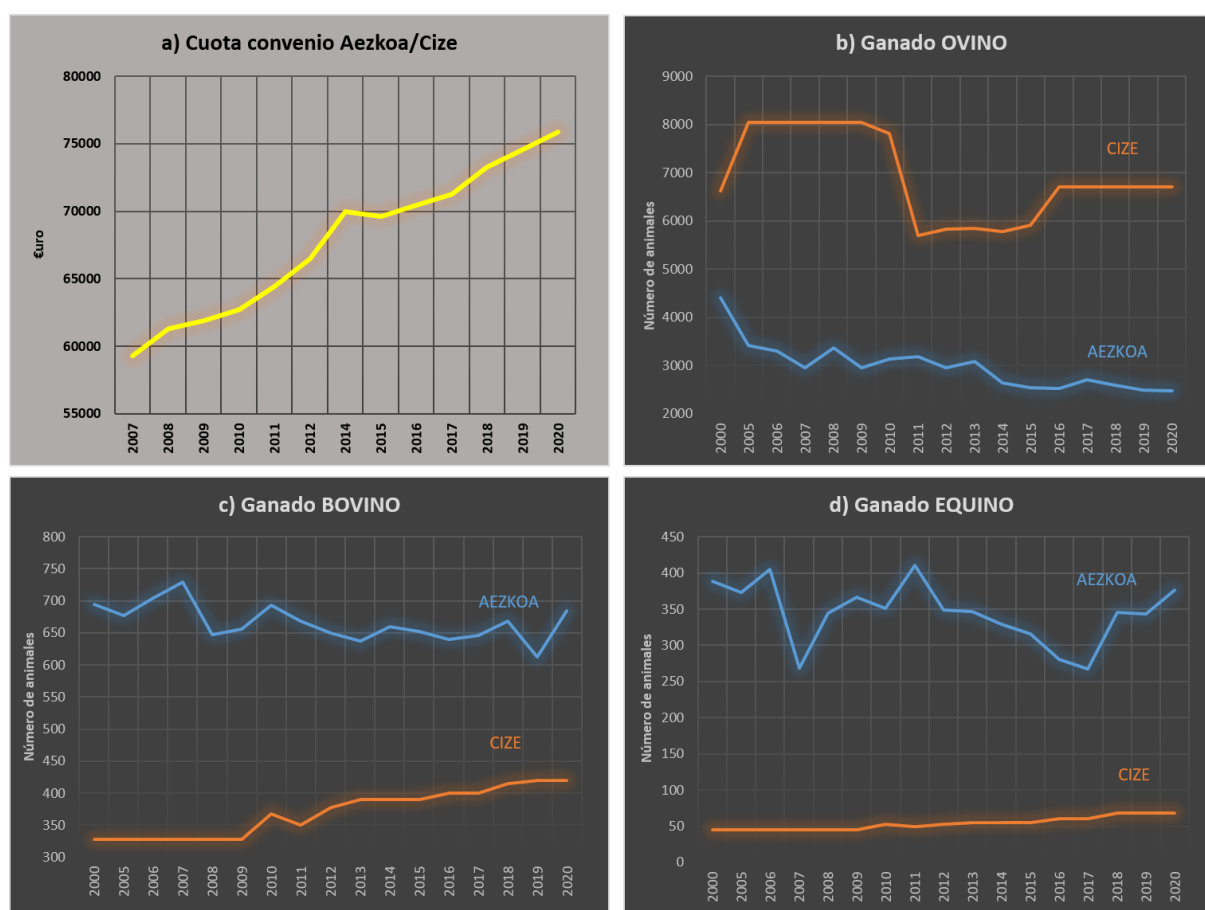
4224 Los problemas que puede acarrear no disponer de pastos de calidad y depender exclusivamente
 4225 de insumos externos también han sido expuestos en este trabajo: el incremento de la demanda y la
 4226 competencia por el uso de las zonas bajas de los valles, las fuertes fluctuaciones de precios y volatilidad
 4227 de los mercados exteriores (de Roest y col., 2018; Dronne, 2018; Schirpke y col., 2019), o el
 4228 empeoramiento de las condiciones de vida de los animales reflejado *a posteriori* en la calidad de sus
 4229 productos (Cabiddu y col., 2019), pueden ser algunos de los principales inconvenientes.

4230 Los esfuerzos por recuperar las zonas degradadas, deberían ir encaminados a un pastoreo
 4231 temprano y dirigido hacia estas áreas concretas, de modo que los animales se viesan forzados a
 4232 consumirlo. Junto al consumo de biomasa, se sumaría el efecto que el aporte de nutrientes y el pisoteo
 4233 de los animales ejerce en la vegetación, propiciando el establecimiento de otras nuevas especies
 4234 acompañantes. Sin embargo, la expansión de *B. rupestre* por zonas con fuertes pendientes, dificulta el
 4235 movimiento de los animales por ellas, incluso del ganado ovino de la zona, algo que también fue
 4236 tomado en cuenta en la investigación, determinando un modelo de cabaña ganadera en función de los
 4237 censos y la proporción de especies ganaderas que aprovechan la zona en la actualidad.

4238 Respecto al uso del fuego que los ganaderos acometen recurrentemente sobre los lastonares de
 4239 Aezkoa, el objetivo de eliminar la biomasa acumulada y aprovechar su rebrote primaveral, carece de
 4240 sentido en el actual escenario, donde tras las quemadas, los animales no son conducidos hacia estas áreas
 4241 concretas. El actual número de cabezas de la cabaña ganadera española y francesa dispone de
 4242 suficiente superficie de pastos de buena calidad, por lo que desplazar a los animales a otras zonas
 4243 menos apreciadas no es una opción para los ganaderos implicados. Sin embargo, el pago que los
 4244 ganaderos franceses realizan anualmente a Aezkoa desde hace siglos pone en evidencia el interés que
 4245 estos muestran por disponer de estos pastos de altura de tan buena calidad (figura 1a). En los censos
 4246 de animales de ambas partes del Pirineo, principalmente del ganado ovino, se observa el paulatino

4247 descenso de animales aezkoanos frente al incremento de la cabaña ganadera francesa (figura 1b,c,d).
 4248 El interés de los ganaderos franceses por aumentar el número de animales en la zona facera, e incluso
 4249 en una hipotética zona más extensa, podría ser utilizado como herramienta de mejora ambiental
 4250 además de económica. El beneficio ambiental y económico que supondría la recuperación de la calidad
 4251 de los pastos degradados, bajo una gestión sostenible, podría revertir el problema de la pérdida de
 4252 diversidad florística en muchas zonas del valle viables de ser recuperadas lo que podría reflejarse en
 4253 un progresivo incremento del número de animales pastantes.

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4256 Figura 1. Evolución de la cuota pagada por los ganaderos del valle del Cize al valle de Aezkoa (a). Evolución de los censos de
 4257 ganado español (Aezkoa) y francés (Cize) en los últimos 20 años (b,c,d).

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4260 2. El microbioma de *Brachypodium rupestre*

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4262 Ampliar los conocimientos de biodiversidad y apreciar posibles alteraciones en un ecosistema
 4263 de clima extremo puede ayudarnos a predecir la resiliencia del mismo al cambio global
 4264 (Vandenkoornhuysse y col., 2015). Estudiar la riqueza de hongos endófitos en *B. rupestre* nos ha
 4265 permitido, además de conocer el conjunto de especies que forma su hasta ahora desconocido
 4266 microbioma, determinar los efectos de regímenes de perturbación ligados al uso del fuego recurrente.

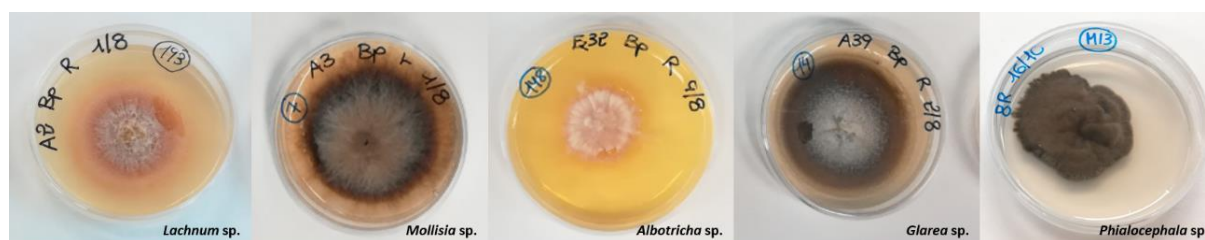
4267 El microbioma de *B. rupestre* en los pastos de Aezkoa está compuesto por un pequeño grupo de

4268 especies abundantes y un numeroso grupo de especies raras o poco frecuentes. Esta distribución es
 4269 común en numerosas comunidades ecológicas (Magurran y Henderson, 2003), y ha sido observada en
 4270 otras gramíneas (Arnold y Lutzoni, 2007; Comby y col., 2016).

4271 Caracterizar por separado el tejido aéreo (vainas) y subterráneo (rizomas y raíces) nos ha
 4272 permitido conocer lo diferentes que son las comunidades fúngicas que alberga cada uno de ellos. La
 4273 especie con la mayor incidencia en las vainas de la gramínea resultó ser *Omnidemptus graminis*
 4274 siempre que se empleó el método de cultivo, sin embargo, la técnica de *metabarcoding* no fue capaz
 4275 de identificar su presencia, y el taxón más abundante con esta última técnica fue el propuesto como
 4276 Phaeosphaeriaceae. La caracterización de la comunidad endofítica del tejido aéreo resultó por tanto
 4277 altamente dependiente del método utilizado, ya que no se obtuvo ningún taxón en común. Esta
 4278 dependencia no se vio reflejada en la caracterización de los tejidos subterráneos.

4279 Los principales taxones de los tejidos subterráneos de *B. rupestre* pertenecen a las familias
 4280 Hyaloscyphaceae, Mollisiaceae y Helotiaceae, y los géneros más representativos fueron *Lachnum* sp.,
 4281 *Albotricha* sp., *Mollisia* sp., *Phialocephala* sp. y *Glaea* sp. La agrupación de estos alcanzó el 80% de las
 4282 lecturas de *metabarcoding* y casi el 60% de los aislados por el método del cultivo tradicional. Todos
 4283 ellos fueron detectados con las dos técnicas de identificación aplicadas (Figura 2). Otros taxones en
 4284 común pero menos frecuentes fueron: *Drechslera* sp., Didymosphaeriaceae, *Falciphora* sp.,
 4285 *Microdochium* sp., *Mycena* sp., *Myrmecridium* sp., *Ophiosphaerella* sp., *Parasola* sp., *Periconia* sp.,
 4286 *Pezicula* sp. y *Trichoderma* sp.

4287



4288

4289 Figura 2. Placas con micelio aislado de los taxones más abundantes del microbioma de las raíces de *B. rupestre*.

4290

4291 La diversidad y riqueza de especies del tejido aéreo de *B. rupestre* fue mucho menor que la
 4292 albergada en los tejidos subterráneos. El contacto directo de estos con el suelo, una gran fuente de
 4293 inóculos microbianos (Tedersoo y col., 2014), puede estar detrás de estas notables diferencias de
 4294 diversidad (Harrison y Griffin, 2020). Sin embargo, rizoma y raíz, pese a desarrollarse en el mismo
 4295 ambiente subterráneo, no albergan comunidades exactamente iguales, lo que puede indicar la
 4296 influencia de los rasgos funcionales particulares de cada uno de ellos frente al proceso de inoculación
 4297 de microorganismos desde el suelo a la planta (Compant y col., 2016). También resulta importante
 4298 remarcar el mayor tiempo de exposición al inóculo fúngico de los tejidos subterráneos (Sánchez-
 4299 Márquez y col., 2010; Harrison y Griffin, 2020). En la perenne *B. rupestre*, el tejido aéreo muere y se
 4300 renueva anualmente, sin embargo, los subterráneos sobreviven, ampliando temporalmente las
 4301 oportunidades de ser infectados.

4302

4303 3. El efecto de las perturbaciones de fuego y pastoreo

4304

4305 La vegetación del valle de Aezkoa cuenta con el intenso efecto de las perturbaciones del fuego
 4306 y el pastoreo en el desarrollo de la vegetación y por tanto también en su microbioma. Inesperadamente,

4307 se detectó que las plantas de *B. rupestre* que se desarrollan en cubiertas con mayor diversidad florística
 4308 tienden a albergar una menor diversidad endofítica en sus tejidos, es decir, no se observó una
 4309 correlación positiva entre ambas diversidades con ninguno de los métodos de identificación aplicados.
 4310 Aunque perceptibles, estas diferencias no fueron significativas para el conjunto de la comunidad. Sin
 4311 embargo, los análisis de especies indicadoras nos permitieron estudiar las tendencias de distribución
 4312 de cada uno de los taxones por separado. Saber las razones que promueven las preferencias de cada
 4313 hongo por un tejido o cubierta particular no fue objeto de estudio, pero sin duda, dos especies
 4314 despertaron gran interés.

4315 La parte aérea de las cubiertas vegetales de Aezkoa cuentan con el intenso y directo efecto de
 4316 las perturbaciones del fuego y el pastoreo. Siempre que se aplicó el método tradicional de cultivo, se
 4317 observó una gran incidencia del hongo *Omnidemptus graminis* en las vainas de *B. rupestre*, y
 4318 concretamente en el capítulo 2, por la intensificación del muestreo (240 plantas vs. 10 plantas), su
 4319 incidencia fue significativamente mayor en las plantas recolectadas en las zonas degradadas. La mayor
 4320 y más cercana cantidad y densidad de biomasa disponible en los lastonares puede estar contribuyendo
 4321 a la dispersión de esta especie, de forma similar a la transmisión de fitopatógenos en monocultivos
 4322 agrícolas de especies emparentadas (Kankanala y col., 2007). Además, su presencia en el tejido del
 4323 rizoma, unido a la rápida tasa de crecimiento miceliar observado durante su cultivo en placa petri,
 4324 podría explicar esta facilidad y rapidez de colonización, sobre todo tras la aplicación de una quema.
 4325 Por qué esta especie está tan presente en las vainas de *B. rupestre*, si el shock termal tras la quema la
 4326 favorece (Uys y col., 2004) y si planta/hongo pueden haber desarrollado algún tipo de interacción
 4327 positiva, o más bien casual, deberá ser objeto de futuros trabajos.

4328 Respecto a los efectos de las perturbaciones en los tejidos subterráneos, sólo la técnica de
 4329 *metabarcoding* fue capaz de hallar disimilitudes entre la comunidad endofítica de las raíces
 4330 recolectadas en plantas de cubiertas de alta y baja diversidad florística. Sin embargo, ambas técnicas
 4331 detectaron la significativa y mayor incidencia del taxón *Lachnum* sp. en raíces procedentes de las
 4332 cubiertas de baja diversidad (*Lachnum* sp. B en el capítulo 2 y *Lachnum* sp. A en el capítulo 3). La
 4333 conocida bioactividad de algunas especies de este género (Ondeyka y col., 2009; Xu y col., 2017; Hou
 4334 y col., 2019) podría suponer una base para futuros trabajos que determinen si su presencia puede estar
 4335 jugando un rol positivo en el proceso de expansión de la gramínea. Al igual que ocurre con *O. graminis*
 4336 en las vainas de *B. rupestre*, conocer las razones que motivan este aumento en su incidencia necesitará
 4337 ser más profundamente estudiado. Otro interesante resultado a analizar sería saber por qué el
 4338 incremento de *Lachnum* sp. implica la reducción de la incidencia del cercano género *Albotricha* sp., un
 4339 hecho observado con ambos métodos.

4340

4341 **4. La comparativa de técnicas de identificación de hongos endófitos**

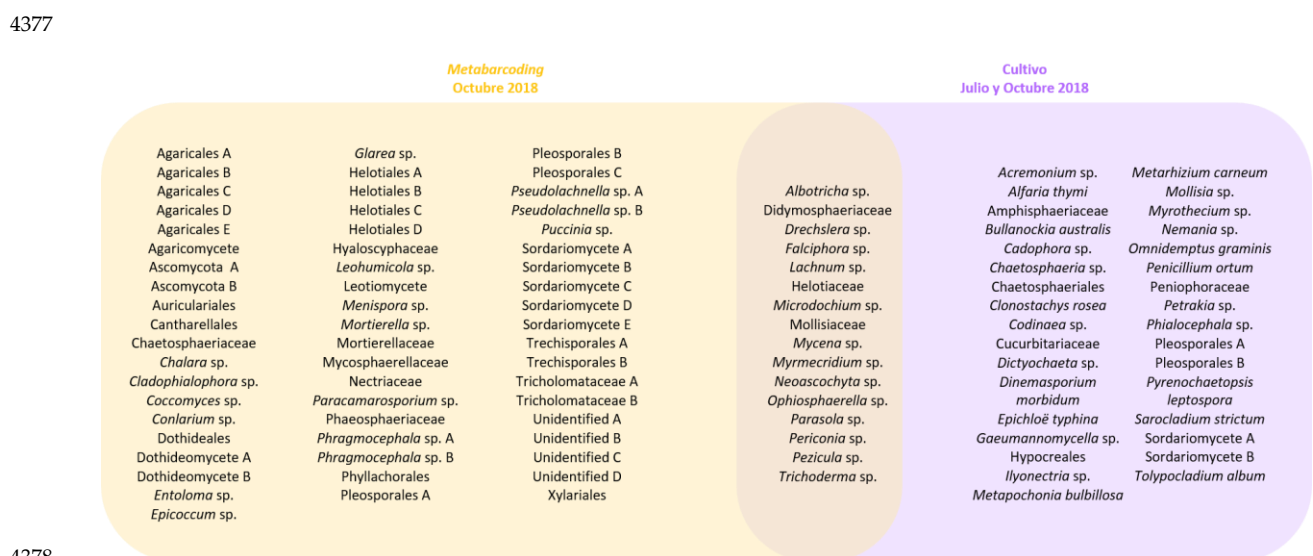
4342

4343 El método de cultivo, tradicionalmente usado para el estudio de las comunidades fúngicas
 4344 endófitas, parece haberse quedado relegado frente a las novedosas técnicas de secuenciación masiva.
 4345 Sin embargo, en este trabajo queda de manifiesto que ambas metodologías se complementan y
 4346 pueden ser buenas aliadas a la hora de caracterizar este tipo de comunidades endófitas.

4347 En la actualidad, los principales inconvenientes del método de cultivo tradicional radican en el
 4348 complejo y lento protocolo de laboratorio a seguir ligado a un proceso exhaustivo y minucioso de
 4349 esterilización del material vegetal para evitar la contaminación de las placas por la proliferación de
 4350 microorganismos externos (bacterias u otros hongos). Además, se sabe que no todos los hongos son
 4351 capaces de crecer en medios de cultivo artificiales (hongos no cultivables) y que hongos con diferentes
 4352 tasas de crecimiento pueden llegar a encriptar a otras especies por su desarrollo más lento (Hyde y
 4353 Soyntong, 2008; Verma y Gange, 2014; Chi y col., 2019).

4354 En el caso del *metabarcoding*, los altos costes de este tipo de técnicas suelen repercutir en el
 4355 tamaño muestral de los estudios y de las regiones de ADN a secuenciar. Su poder cuantitativo requiere
 4356 de una compleja metodología bioinformática y el continuo aporte de secuencias genéticas
 4357 desconocidas, no vinculadas a un taxón o altamente inclusivas conlleva en numerosas situaciones
 4358 incongruencias genéticas o constantes modificaciones taxonómicas (Ebach y col., 2011). El modo de
 4359 asignación de los taxones, contrastando las secuencias obtenidas con las almacenadas en las bases de
 4360 datos (NCBI y UNITE), se siguió de forma muy conservadora con el objetivo de evitar propuestas de
 4361 taxón menos inclusivas pero inexactas. La región ITS2, utilizada en las secuencias de *metabarcoding*,
 4362 originó porcentajes de similitud menores que los alcanzados por la región ITS completa del método de
 4363 cultivo, lo que propició asignaciones de taxones altamente inclusivos (a nivel de órdenes, clases y filos).

4364 El número de taxones identificados por la técnica de *metabarcoding* fue de 88, a partir de 10
 4365 plantas, mientras que el método del cultivo identificó 52, a partir de 250 plantas unificando los datos
 4366 del capítulo 2 y 3 (Figura 3). Este hecho pone de manifiesto la relevancia de adecuar el tamaño muestral
 4367 al método que se aplique. Las curvas de acumulación de especies indican que ampliar el tamaño
 4368 muestral incrementa la identificación de endófitos poco frecuentes. Es precisamente en los tejidos
 4369 subterráneos de *B. rupestre*, donde este conjunto de especies con escasa incidencia presenta las
 4370 principales diferencias entre metodologías. Sin embargo, como se indicó en el apartado 2, el poco
 4371 diverso microbioma del tejido de la vaina resultó ser altamente dependiente del método aplicado. La
 4372 incertidumbre generada por los resultados del tejido aéreo pone de manifiesto la importancia de poder
 4373 aplicar ambas técnicas en este tipo de caracterización (Chi y col., 2019). Las respuestas a este conflicto
 4374 deberán ser más profundamente estudiadas, para llegar a saber cómo y por qué *O. graminis* escapó
 4375 del análisis de secuenciación masiva, pese a ser aislada en las mismas plantas y tener su secuencia tipo
 4376 ya consolidada en las bases de datos actuales (Hernández-Restrepo y col., 2019).



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 4380 Figura 3. Conjunto de taxones del microbioma de *B. rupestre* identificados a partir del método de cultivo (derecha), de
 4381 *metabarcoding* (izquierda) y por ambas técnicas (intersección).

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CONCLUSIONES

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4500 **CAPÍTULO 1**

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4502 1. En aquellos pastos naturales en los que la pérdida de diversidad florística está asociada a la
 4503 merma de palatabilidad de la comunidad vegetal y de su valor energético, es posible evaluar la pérdida
 4504 del servicio ecosistémico de abastecimiento mediante el método de sustitución económica, realizando
 4505 inventarios florísticos que permitan estimar la pérdida de raciones alimentarias que deberían ser
 4506 sustituidas en establo. Este enfoque permite evaluar económicamente un problema ambiental y
 4507 concienciar a la población más directamente afectada.

4508 2. Los pastos de puerto de Aezkoa ocupan una superficie de 2147 ha, de las cuales 287,76 ha
 4509 están degradadas o en proceso de degradación. La superficie potencial de recuperación mediante
 4510 prácticas de pastoreo dirigido se estima en 200,05 ha, lo que representa el 9,3% de la superficie total
 4511 de pastos. La no recuperación de estas superficies supone una pérdida económica de entre 10925€ y
 4512 33399€ anuales, dependiendo del valor del índice de calidad aplicado a *B. rupestre* (entre 1 y 0) y de
 4513 los costes de las raciones alimenticias de sustitución. Considerando valores promedio, la pérdida de
 4514 valor de aprovisionamiento para el ganado se estima en 107€/ha al año.

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4516 **CAPÍTULO 2 Y 3**

4517

4518 3. La previamente desconocida comunidad endofítica de *B. rupestre* está constituida por un
 4519 escaso número de especies abundantes y un numeroso grupo de especies raras o poco frecuentes. Los
 4520 taxones con mayor incidencia en los tejidos subterráneos son Mollisiaceae (*Mollisia* sp. y *Phialocephala*
 4521 sp.), Helotiaceae (*Glarea* sp.) y Hyaloscyphaceae (*Albotricha* sp. y *Lachnum* sp.). En el tejido aéreo es
 4522 *Omnidemptus graminis* cuando se aplica el método de cultivo, y Phaeosphaeriaceae cuando se utiliza
 4523 la técnica de *metabarcoding*.

4524 4. Las plantas de *B. rupestre* recolectadas en las comunidades de menor diversidad florística
 4525 (lastonares), tienden a albergar una mayor riqueza y diversidad de hongos endófitos que las de las
 4526 cubiertas de mayor diversidad florística. Los dos métodos de identificación (cultivo y *metabarcoding*)
 4527 muestran esta tendencia, pero sólo es significativa en el caso de los endófitos de la raíz identificados
 4528 por *metabarcoding*.

4529 5. El análisis de especies indicadoras permitió detectar tendencias de distribución y fidelidad de
 4530 los taxones según tipo de tejido (vaina, rizoma o raíz) y tipo de cubierta vegetal (de alta o baja
 4531 diversidad florística). La incidencia de *O. graminis* en las vainas y de *Lachnum* sp. en las raíces es
 4532 significativamente mayor en las plantas muestreadas en las cubiertas de baja diversidad. Se precisa
 4533 profundizar en las interacciones que establecen estas especies con el vegetal para determinar si alguna
 4534 de ellas está aportando ventajas a la gramínea en su proceso de expansión.

4535 6. La comparación del método de cultivo tradicional frente a la novedosa técnica de
 4536 *metabarcoding* resaltó la importancia de utilizar ambos métodos para este tipo de caracterización
 4537 endofítica, debido a los inconvenientes que ambas técnicas siguen teniendo en la actualidad. Con el
 4538 mismo esfuerzo de muestreo, la técnica de *metabarcoding* identificó 5.8 veces más taxones que el
 4539 método de cultivo, sin embargo, no fue capaz de detectar la especie más aislada del tejido de la vaina,
 4540 *O. graminis*. Ambas técnicas sí fueron capaces de detectar el efecto de la diversidad endofítica de cada
 4541 tejido (raíz > rizoma > vaina) y entre el tipo de cubiertas analizadas (baja diversidad > alta diversidad
 4542 florística).

4543 **CHAPTER 1**

4544

4545 1. In natural grasslands where the loss of floristic diversity is related to a decrease in the
 4546 palatability of the plant community and its energy value, it is possible to evaluate the loss of the
 4547 ecosystem service of supply applying the economic substitution method, using floristic inventories and
 4548 estimating the loss of food ration that should be substituted in barns. This approach evaluates
 4549 economically an environmental problem and may be an effective tool to raise awareness among
 4550 affected population.

4551 2. The high-mountain grasslands of Aezkoa occupy 2147 ha, which 287.76 ha are degraded or in
 4552 process of degradation. The potential recovery area is estimated at 200.05 ha, 9.3% of the total surface
 4553 of grasslands. The non-recovery of these areas entails an economic loss between 10925€ and 33399€
 4554 per year, depending on the value of the quality index applied to *B. rupestre* (from 1 to 0) and the costs
 4555 of replacement food rations. Considering average values, the loss of provisioning value is estimated at
 4556 107€/ha per year.

4557

4558 **CHAPTER 2 AND 3**

4559

4560 3. The unknown fungal endophytic community of *B. rupestre* consists of a few core species and
 4561 many rare species. The taxa with the highest incidence in the underground tissues are Mollisiaceae
 4562 (*Mollisia* sp. and *Phialocephala* sp.), Helotiaceae (*Glarea* sp.) and Hyaloscyphaceae (*Albotricha* sp. and
 4563 *Lachnum* sp.). In the aboveground tissue, the most abundant species is *Omnidemtus graminis* by the
 4564 culturing method, and Phaeosphaeriaceae by the metabarcoding technique.

4565 4. *B. rupestre* plants collected from low-diversity grasslands tend to harbour a higher fungal
 4566 species richness and diversity than plants collected from high-diversity grasslands. This trend is
 4567 detected in both methods (culturing and metabarcoding), but is statistically significant for root
 4568 endophytes identified by the metabarcoding.

4569 5. The indicator species analysis detected the fidelity of each taxon to a specific plant tissue
 4570 (shoot, rhizome or root) and plant community type (high or low floristic diversity). The incidence of *O.*
 4571 *graminis* in shoots and *Lachnum* sp. in roots is higher in plants collected in low-diversity grasslands.
 4572 These specific fungus/plant interactions need further research, in order to determine whether the
 4573 fungal species provide advantages to *B. rupestre* in its expansion process.

4574 6. The comparison of culturing and metabarcoding techniques highlighted the importance of
 4575 applying both methods for fungal endophytic characterisation, due to the current disadvantages of
 4576 both. With the same sampling effort, the metabarcoding technique identified 5.8 times more taxa than
 4577 the culturing method, however, metabarcoding was not able to detect the most isolated species from
 4578 shoots by culturing, *O. graminis*. Both methods were able to capture the effect of endophytic diversity
 4579 among tissues (root > rhizome > shoot) and grasslands types (low-diversity > high-diversity grasslands).