



# **Patrones ecológicos de macromicetos lignícolas respecto a la altitud en el sur de México.**

TESIS PARA OBTENER EL GRADO DE DOCTOR EN CIENCIAS EN  
CONSERVACIÓN Y APROVECHAMIENTO DE RECURSOS NATURALES

PRESENTADA POR

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# INSTITUTO POLITECNICO NACIONAL SECRETARIA DE INVESTIGACION Y POSGRADO

## ACTA DE REVISION DE TESIS

En la Ciudad de Oaxaca de Juárez siendo las 13:00 horas del día 28 del mes de noviembre del 2012 se reunieron los miembros de la Comisión Revisora de Tesis designada por el Colegio de Profesores de Estudios de Posgrado e Investigación del **Centro Interdisciplinario de Investigación para el Desarrollo Integral Regional, Unidad Oaxaca (CIIDIR-OAXACA)** para examinar la tesis de grado titulada: **“Patrones ecológicos de macromicetos lignícolas respecto a la altitud en el sur de México”**.

Presentada por el alumno:

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aspirante al grado de: **DOCTORADO EN CIENCIAS EN CONSERVACIÓN Y APROVECHAMIENTO DE RECURSOS NATURALES**

Después de intercambiar opiniones los miembros de la Comisión manifestaron **SU APROBACION DE LA TESIS**, en virtud de que satisface los requisitos señalados por las disposiciones reglamentarias vigentes.

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En la Ciudad de Oaxaca de Juárez el día 28 del mes noviembre del año 2012, el (la) que suscribe Vázquez Mendoza Sadoth alumno (a) del Programa de **DOCTORADO EN CIENCIAS EN CONSERVACIÓN Y APROVECHAMIENTO DE RECURSOS NATURALES** con número de registro **B081477**, adscrito al Centro Interdisciplinario de Investigación para el Desarrollo Integral Regional, Unidad Oaxaca, manifiesta que es autor (a) intelectual del presente trabajo de Tesis bajo la dirección del Dres. Rafael Felipe del Castillo Sánchez y Ricardo Valenzuela Garza. y cede los derechos del trabajo titulado: **“Patrones ecológicos de macromicetos lignícolas respecto a la altitud en el sur de México”**., al Instituto Politécnico Nacional para su difusión, con fines académicos y de investigación.

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## RESUMEN

Los patrones de distribución altitudinal son tema importante en los estudios ecológicos; especialmente con miras de conservar la biodiversidad. En México, este tipo de estudios respecto a macromicetos son casi nulos, aun cuando estos organismos son parte fundamental tanto por diversidad como por función, para los ambientes forestales. El presente trabajo busca determinar y analizar los patrones de distribución altitudinal de las comunidades de macromicetos lignícolas en dos regiones montañosas de México: la Sierra Norte de Oaxaca y la Sierra Norte de Puebla; y en particular, determinar si dicho patrón es el mismo en ambos sitios y que factores ambientales influyen sobre ellos. El patrón de distribución altitudinal de la riqueza específica de macromicetos lignícolas en ambos gradientes fue similar, presentado un máximo en altitudes intermedias. Sin embargo, este patrón es dependiente de factores como temperatura y precipitación, y se demostró la influencia del gradiente y el grupo ecológico de los organismos en sí, sobre la distribución altitudinal de los macromicetos. Por otra parte, la evapotranspiración actual (AET), mostró ser buen predictor de la distribución altitudinal de la riqueza específica de los macromicetos en general y de los Aphyllophorales en particular. De manera adicional, se incrementaron los inventarios fúngicos de las zonas de estudio, determinándose el uso etnomedicinal de 21 especies en el norte del estado de Puebla; y el descubrimiento en Oaxaca de una cactácea como nuevo hospedero en regiones áridas para *Schizophyllum commune* Fr., especie con importancia económica, lo que abre la posibilidad de nuevos aprovechamientos. Se reportan además 39 nuevos registros para Puebla y dos especímenes que probablemente sean nuevas especies. Los resultados rechazan la existencia de un patrón universal de riqueza de especies con respecto a la altitud y señala la necesidad de considerar tantos

grupos de organismos como sea posible antes de asentar las prioridades de conservación en los ecosistemas de montaña.

## **ABSTRACT**

Altitudinal distribution patterns are a fundamental item in ecological research, especially in biodiversity conservation. In Mexico, this kind of studies for macro fungi are scarce, instead fungi are essential for forests both its diversity and role. The objective of the present study is determinate and analyze altitudinal distribution patterns of lignicolous macrofungi communities in two mountain ranges of Mexico: Sierra Norte de Oaxaca and Sierra Norte de Puebla; and in particular, determinate if that pattern will be the same in both sites and analyze environmental factors that influence them. Species richness altitudinal distribution in both gradients was similar, with a peak in mid-altitude. This pattern depends of factors like temperature and precipitation, and influence of gradient and ecological group of the organisms was proved. Actual evapotranspiration (AET) is a good predictor of altitudinal distribution of species richness of lignicolous macrofungi in general and Aphyllophorales in particular. Additionally, fungi inventories for studied areas were incremented, 21 species was reported as medicinal for north region in Puebla, and a cactus was reported as a new host in Oaxaca's arid regions for *Schizophyllum commune* Fr., a fungus species with high economic importance, so new procedures will be developed. A total of 39 species are new records for Puebla and two specimens could be new species. Results reject the existence of an universal pattern of species richness respect altitude and point to the need of considering as many groups of species as possible before setting conservation priorities in mountain environments.

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### **A Dios**

*Por darme la vida y la salud necesaria para alcanzar mis metas*

### **A Nallely**

*Con todo el amor que siento por ella,  
Este triunfo es de los dos*

### **A mi Madre**

*Eres el mejor ejemplo de dedicación y fortaleza*

*“Iré a donde sea,  
Siempre que sea hacia adelante”*

David Livingston.



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## INTRODUCCIÓN

Un tema de importancia en los estudios ecológicos actuales es el comprender los patrones de distribución de los organismos y analizar sus implicaciones, especialmente con miras de predecir el futuro de la biodiversidad y poder establecer medidas de conservación (Gaston, 2000). Algunos patrones ecológicos son conspicuos y muy estudiados, por ejemplo el gradiente latitudinal (Rahbek, 1997; Colwell y Lees, 2000; Gaston, 2000), pero otros como el altitudinal no lo son tanto (Rahbek, 1997) aun cuando las montañas son perfectos laboratorios naturales para entender el efecto de los factores ambientales sobre la distribución de las especies (Körner, 2007).

Actualmente, los estudios de distribución y diversidad de las especies en gradientes altitudinales buscan desarrollar una teoría general con base en factores ambientales tales como la humedad y la temperatura que tienen influencia sobre el metabolismo de los organismos y que están directa o indirectamente relacionados con los cambios de altitud (Lomolino, 2001; Allen et al., 2002; Körner, 2007).

Diversas teorías se han propuesto para explicar los patrones altitudinales. Las más comunes son: a) Teoría Metabólica, que propone que a mayor nivel metabólico la tasa de mutación será mayor y por tanto habrá un aumento en los niveles de especiación, lo que ocurre con mayor frecuencia en ambientes cálidos y en especies de tamaño pequeño, por tanto a mayor altitud menor riqueza de especies (Brown et al., 2004). b) Modelo de Dominio Medio, que asume que el intervalo altitudinal presenta fronteras estrictas, más allá de las cuales las especies de interés no pueden presentarse, por lo que la distribución es independiente de los factores ambientales y muestra un máximo de riqueza justo a la mitad del gradiente altitudinal (Rahbek, 1997). c) Modelo de Joroba (*Humped back*), que señala que la riqueza específica alcanza su máximo en altitudes medias, preferentemente cercanas al extremo inferior del intervalo altitudinal, con disminución de la riqueza de especies hacia los extremos altitudinales como resultado de la influencia de factores ambientales principalmente de tipo climático (Rahbek, 1997).

Numerosos estudios apoyan uno u otro modelo para diversos taxones (Andrew *et al.*, 2003; Cardelús *et al.*, 2006; Cortés Fernández, 2006; McCain, 2004); sin embargo, los trabajos sobre hongos son escasos aun cuando estos organismos representan un alto porcentaje de la biodiversidad en cualquier

hábitat ó región del planeta, y su importancia en los ecosistemas es vital (Hawksworth y Rossman, 1997; Kendrick, 2000).

A nivel mundial los trabajos que analizan los patrones altitudinales de grupos de hongos son escasos. Los estudios que se han realizado para mixomicetos e hifomicetos, reportan mayor riqueza específica en las zonas bajas y ésta disminuye conforme la altitud aumenta (Rojas y Stephenson, 2008; Raviraja *et al.*, 1998). Ruotsalainen *et al.* (2002) señalan un patrón similar para hongos micorrízogenos. En México, este tipo de trabajos son aún más escasos. Fierros *et al.* (2000) reportan máximo de riqueza específica para macromicetos en altitudes mayores a 1800 m en la Sierra de Quila, Jalisco. La misma tendencia se señala para Boletaceos en Nuevo León, que prefieren bosques de pino por arriba de los 2000 m (García-Jiménez y Garza-Ocaña, 2001). Sin embargo, los intervalos de altitud y las áreas utilizados en cada estudio son diferentes por lo que los resultados no son comparables cuantitativamente. Entender los patrones de distribución altitudinal de los hongos con respecto a factores ecológicos puede dar las herramientas adecuadas para implementar medidas para su conservación y la de los ambientes donde habitan (Newton *et al.*, 2003).

De acuerdo con lo que sabemos, con excepción del trabajo realizado por Vázquez-Mendoza (2008), que analiza el patrón de diversidad fúngica respecto a la altitud en la región serrana del municipio de Santa Catarina Ixtepeji, Oaxaca; no existen estudios sinicológicos en este sentido en el sur del país. Vázquez-Mendoza (2008) reporta un aumento de la diversidad de macromicetos al incrementarse la altitud, que parece estar relacionado con un patrón similar de la humedad del suelo.

En el presente trabajo se busca determinar y analizar los patrones de distribución altitudinal de las comunidades de macromicetos lignícolas en dos regiones montañosas de México: la Sierra Norte de Oaxaca y la Sierra Norte de Puebla. En particular, se busca determinar si el patrón de distribución de estos macromicetos con respecto a la altitud es el mismo en ambos sitios; y que factores ambientales influyen sobre ellos.

Como resultados adicionales se incrementó los inventarios micológicos de las regiones de estudio, especialmente en la Sierra Norte de Puebla que ha sido poco estudiada desde el aspecto micológico.

## NOTA CIENTÍFICA

**Macromicetos medicinales provenientes de la Sierra Norte de Puebla, México; depositados en el Herbario “Gastón Guzmán”, ENCB-IPN.**

**Medicinal macrofungi from Sierra Norte de Puebla, México, deposited in Herbarium “Gastón Guzmán”, ENCB-IPN.**

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### **Resumen**

Los hongos han estado presentes en las tradiciones de todas las culturas y los totonacos de la Sierra Norte de Puebla no son excepción. Ellos utilizan los hongos como comida, juguetes y medicina. En este trabajo se efectuó un análisis de los hongos con potencial medicinal reportados para la región. La información se obtuvo a través de revisión bibliográfica, consulta de herbario y trabajo de campo, así como entrevistas informales con habitantes del municipio de Zapotitlán de Méndez. 131 especies son reportadas para el área de estudio, de ellas 18 géneros y 21 especies tienen potencial medicinal. Sin embargo, sólo tres especies: *Calvatia cyathiformis*, *Lycoperdon perlatum* y *Schizophyllum commune* son utilizadas frecuentemente por la gente de la Sierra. A pesar de la alta diversidad fúngica en la Sierra Norte de Puebla, los hongos son un grupo poco empleado en el aspecto medicinal y es sólo a través del conocimiento de estos recursos que podremos hacer un uso adecuado de los mismos.

**Palabras clave:** Hongos medicinales, etnomicología, México.

## **Abstract**

Fungi have been present in folklore of all cultures and Totonacs of Sierra Norte of Puebla are not an exception. They use fungi as food, toys and medicine. In this paper, we focused on potential medicinal fungi recorded for the region. Information was obtained through bibliography, review herbarium specimens, and informal interviews with local people of Zapotitlán de Méndez municipality. 131 macro fungi species are reported from the area of study, of which only 18 genus and 21 species had potential medicinal use. However, only three species: *Calvatia cyathiformis*, *Lycoperdon perlatum* and *Schizophyllum commune* are widely used for the people of the Sierra. In spite of its very high diversity, mushrooms are a subtilized resource in Sierra Norte of Puebla and only trough knowledge of their resources people could use in an adequately way.

**Keywords:** Medicinal fungi, ethnomycology, Mexico.

Los hongos son uno de los grupos taxonómicos más abundantes en el mundo. Guzmán (2008 a) estima para México un total de 200 mil especies, de las que sólo se han descrito el 4%. Estos organismos son parte importante de las tradiciones de muchos de los grupos étnicos en este país y sus usos van desde lúdico hasta religioso (Guzmán, 1997; Polese, 2005). Sin embargo, en nuestro país el uso de los hongos como medicina no es tan común como lo es en otros países (Garibay-Orijel *et al.*, 2007). De igual manera, los trabajos sobre hongos medicinales en México son escasos.

Guzmán (1994) en una revisión del uso de estos organismos en la medicina tradicional, reporta 37 especies; número que crece a 73 especies en un trabajo posterior (Guzmán, 2008 b). En lo referente a estudios etnomicológicos para la Sierra Norte de Puebla, sólo existe el trabajo de Martínez Alfaro *et al.* (1983).

El presente trabajo se enfoca en presentar un listado preliminar de las especies con uso medicinal presentes en la Sierra Norte de Puebla depositadas en el herbario “Gastón Guzmán” de la Escuela Nacional de Ciencias Biológicas -IPN.

La Sierra Norte de Puebla se localiza al norte del estado entre las regiones montañosas de los estados de Veracruz e Hidalgo. El relieve es accidentado, con elevaciones por arriba de los 2800 m que abruptamente pueden descender por debajo de los 1000 m; el clima es variable, de tipo semitropical con lluvias en verano (Lugo-Hubp, 2005). La vegetación es diversa y va desde selvas medianas en las zonas bajas hasta bosques de coníferas en altitudes superiores a los 2500 m, con bosques mesófilos y mixtos en altitudes intermedias.

Para este trabajo, se revisó el material de herbario depositado en la colección de hongos del Herbario “Dr. Gastón Guzmán” de la Escuela Nacional de Ciencias Biológicas del Instituto Politécnico Nacional proveniente de la Sierra Norte de Puebla. Además se efectuaron diez viajes de recolecta a los municipios de Zapotitlán de Méndez, Zacapoaxtla, Chignahuapan y Huauchinango en el período 2009-2010. La identificación de las especies se realizó apoyándose en los trabajos de Gilbertson y Ryvardeen (1986, 1987). Para determinar si las especies encontradas son utilizadas en la medicina tradicional se consultó las obras de Guzmán (1994, 1997), De Silva *et al.* (2012) y Patel y Goyal (2012). Durante las salidas de campo, se realizaron entrevistas informales con las personas que accedieron a la consulta entre aquellas que pasaron mientras efectuábamos la colecta. Se efectuaron un total de 10 entrevistas a personas con edades comprendidas entre 30 y 65 años.

Un total de 320 especímenes distribuidos en 131 especies fueron analizados. De ellos, 21 especies de macromicetos, agrupadas en 18 géneros y 13 familias, están reportadas como medicinales siendo la principal aplicación como cicatrizante (Cuadro 1).

(Insertar Cuadro 1)



Los pobladores reportan el uso de sólo tres especies de macromicetos: *Calvatia cyathiformis* denominada como **Pedo de muerto**, y *Lycoperdon perlatum*, ambos usados como cicatrizantes; y *Schizophyllum commune* conocido como **oreja de ratón**, preparado en sopa y utilizado como un estimulante ligero. Los géneros *Calvatia* y *Lycoperdon*, se encuentran entre los géneros de hongos medicinales con mayor uso en todo el planeta, siempre utilizados con el mismo fin cicatrizante (Guzmán 1994, Shrestha y Kropp, 2009).

Al comparar los resultados de las entrevistas con lo reportado para otros grupos indígenas del país, tal como los Lacandones que sólo utilizan una especie (Ruan-Soto *et al.*, 2009) o con el nulo uso de los hongos medicinales de los Zapotecas del municipio de Ixtlán en Oaxaca (Garibay-Orijel *et al.*, 2006), los Totonacas de la Sierra Norte de Puebla parecen mostrar un mejor conocimiento de sus recursos fúngicos al hacer uso de un mayor número de especies. Es notorio, que si bien de acuerdo con Ruan-Soto *et al.* (2004), los totonacas no consideran comestibles a los hongos terrícolas, sean dos especies de éstos de las que hacen uso como cicatrizantes. Lo anterior parece confirmar una clara diferenciación de la utilidad de la micobiota por parte de este grupo étnico.

Por otra parte, *Schizophyllum commune* es considerado en la literatura con propiedades antitumorales (Stamets, 2005), pero este uso no es conocido por la gente de la Sierra. Es importante señalar que las propiedades antitumorales de muchas especies de hongos no han sido lo suficientemente estudiadas como para recomendar el consumo de hongos con esta finalidad, aunque estudios recientes han señalado a *S. commune* como una de las especies con mayor potencial antitumoral (Shavit, 2008; Salahuddin, 2008).

A pesar de la alta diversidad de hongos en la Sierra Norte de Puebla, este es un recurso subutilizado por sus habitantes. Lamentablemente, el conocimiento de las propiedades medicinales de muchos hongos se está perdiendo al paso de las generaciones y los estudios etnomicológicos se hacen

urgentes para evitar la desaparición de esta información. Por tanto se hace necesario incrementar los trabajos etnobiológicos que recopilen los usos de los recursos naturales en el Estado para evitar la pérdida de conocimiento tradicional; y en general incrementar los inventarios micológicos en la región para la búsqueda de nuevas especies, tanto medicinales como comestibles, que puedan ser adicionadas al bagaje cultural de los grupos indígenas de Puebla.

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CUADROS.

Cuadro 1. Listado de especies de macromicetos utilizados en la medicina tradicional que se encuentran en la Sierra Norte de Puebla.

<b>Especie</b>	<b>Uso reportado</b>	<b>Municipio*</b>
<i>Agaricus campestris</i> L.	Antibacterial, Antitumoral, antidiabético	Chignahuapan
<i>Agaricus silvaticus</i> Shaeff ex Secr sensu Krumbhoh	Antioxidante, auxiliar contra cáncer	Nuevo Necaxa
<i>Auricularia delicate</i> ; <i>A. fuscosuccinea</i>	Antioxidante, antitumoral	Zapotitlán de Méndez, Zacapoaxtla
<i>Astraeus hygrometricus</i> (Pers.) Morgan	Hemostático, desinfectante	Chignahuapan
<i>Calvatia cyathiformis</i> (Bosc) Morgan	Cicatrizante	Zapotitlán de Méndez, Chignahuapan
<i>Clitocybe gibba</i> P. Kumm	Febrífugo	Chignahuapan
<i>Ganoderma applanatum</i> (Pers.) Pat.	Estimulante	Zacapoaxtla, Hueytamalco
<i>Hexagonia hydroides</i> Sw.:Fr.	Contra tiñas	Nuevo Necaxa
<i>Lactarius volemus</i> (Fr.) Fr.	Antitumoral	Teziutlán
<i>Lentinula boryana</i> (Berk. & Mont.) Pegler	Estimulante, control de presión baja	Teziutlán

<i>Lenzites betulina</i> (Fr.) Fr.	Antitumoral	Zacapoaxtla, Nuevo Necaxa
<i>Lycoperdum perlatum</i> Pers.	Cicatrizante, desinfectante	Zacatlán, Chignahuapan
<i>Phaeolus schweinitzii</i> (Fr.)Patouilliard	Contra tiñas	Nuevo Necaxa
<i>Pleurotus smithii</i> Guzmán	Anticolesterol	Zapotitlán de Méndez, Teziutlán
<i>Rusula cyanoxantha</i> (Schaeff ex Schw) Fr	Antitumoral	Pahuatlán, Chignahuapan
<i>Schizophyllum commune</i> Fr.	Antitumoral, estimulante	Zapotitlan de Mendez, Zacapoaxtla,Teziutlán, Nuevo Necaxa, Huauchinango,
<i>Stereum hirsutum</i> (Wild:Fr.)S.F.Gray	Antibiótico, antitumoral	Nuevo Necaxa
<i>Trametes versicolor</i> (L.:Fr.)Pilat	Contra tiñas	Zapotitlán de Méndez, Zacapoaxtla, Teziutlán, Chignahuapan
<i>T. hirsuta</i> (Wulf.:Fr.)Pilat	Antibiótico	Nuevo Necaxa
<i>Tremella mesenterica</i> Retz.	Reduce azúcar en sangre	Zacapoaxtla



## NOTA CIENTÍFICA

### NUEVO HOSPEDERO DEL HONGO *Schizophyllum commune* Fr. EN AMÉRICA.

### NEW HOST FOR THE MUSHROOM *Schizophyllum commune* Fr. IN AMERICA.

Sadoth Vázquez Mendoza\*

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**Resumen.** *Schizophyllum commune* Fries, que es uno de los hongos lignícolas con mayor distribución, es también apreciado por sus múltiples usos. Se han reportado más de 300 hospederos sobre los que crece. En este trabajo se reporta por primera vez para el continente americano a la choya (*Opuntia sp.*) como sustrato de este hongo. Este descubrimiento hace posible el uso de desechos orgánicos de estas plantas como sustrato para el cultivo del hongo en las zonas áridas de México.

**Abstract.** *Schizophyllum commune* Fries one of the most distributed lignicolous mushrooms on the world, is also appreciated for its multiple uses. More of 300 hosts have been reported for it. In this paper, is reported choya (*Opuntia sp.*) by first time for America continent as a host of this mushroom. This discovery made possible use organic waste of this plant as a culture substrate for this mushroom in the arid regions of Mexico.

Una gran variedad de hongos son apreciados por su comestibilidad en diversas partes de México y el mundo, en especial en las regiones templadas (Cappello-García, 2003; Ruan Soto et al., 2006). Si bien muchos son parte fundamental de la alimentación en diversas regiones tropicales del mundo

(Adejoye et al., 2007), en México por diversos factores, entre ellos la pérdida de cultura gastronómica y la transculturización, el consumo de hongos ha disminuido en dichas regiones, aun cuando algunas especies siguen siendo buscadas y consumidas con frecuencia especialmente por los habitantes de origen indígena (Ruán-Soto et al., 2004, 2006; Chanona-Gómez et al., 2007, Grajales-Vásquez et al., 2008).

Entre los hongos apreciados como alimento se encuentra *Schizophyllum commune* Fries (Degreef et al., 1997; Adejoye et al., 2007), que en México se consume tradicionalmente en las zonas bajas del sur donde es una especie buscada y presenta un mercado por temporada (Cappello-García, 2003; Ruan- Soto et al., 2004, 2006; Chanona-Gómez et al., 2007). Además, *S. commune* ha tenido un papel importante en la medicina tradicional como anticancerígeno, principalmente en Asia; y en los últimos años ha repuntado su importancia en biotecnología (Salahuddin, 2008; Quiroz-Castañeda y Folch-Mallol, 2011). Si bien se han reportado casos de sinusitis provocados por esta especie, se han producido sólo en personas con inmunodeficiencia; por lo que se considera una especie inocua (Castro, 2010).

*Schizophyllum commune* es un hongo cosmopolita distribuido en todos los continentes excepto la Antártida (Chang y Lui, 1969; Adejoye et al., 2007) y se le encuentra a lo largo de todo el año (Degreef et al., 1997). Es poco específico en lo referente a hospederos y se le reporta creciendo sobre madera muerta o en plantas vivas. Por su abundancia, en ocasiones es considerado plaga causando daños a los árboles principalmente en plantaciones o en parques y jardines (Snieskiené y Juronis, 2001). De acuerdo con la *Fungal database* del Departamento de Agricultura de los Estados Unidos crece sobre 373 hospederos diferentes (Farr y Rossman, 2006) entre los que se encuentran árboles como encinos (*Quercus spp.*), pinos (*Pinus spp.*), álamos (*Acer spp.*), capulines (*Prunus spp.*) y tilos (*Tilia spp*) (Snieskiené y Juronis, 2001; Grand y Vernia, 2004). Adejoye et al. (2007) lo

reportan creciendo sobre mango (*Mangifera indica*) y en Grecia y Libia se ha reportado creciendo sobre especies del género *Opuntia* (<http://nt.ars-grin.gov/fungalatabases/index.cfm>). Sin embargo, en América no ha sido reportado su crecimiento sobre cactáceas.

Durante visitas de prospección micológica a la región de Valles Centrales y Sierra Juárez, en Oaxaca, México, se encontraron ejemplares de *S. commune* creciendo sobre cactáceas del género *Opuntia* (Fig. 1). Es el primer reporte para el continente americano de este género como hospedero del hongo. Los especímenes se encontraron en dos localidades diferentes: Santo Tomás Jalietza, distrito de Ocotlán (16° 50' 54.0" N, 96° 39' 15.4" W) y Xia, distrito de Ixtlán (17° 18' 14.4" N, 96° 31' 3.8" W). En ambos casos, los basidiomas se desarrollaban sobre cactáceas ya intemperizadas. Se fotografiaron y recolectaron los ejemplares para, posterior a su secado, depositarlos en el herbario micológico "Dr. Gastón Guzmán" de la ENCB-IPN, México.

Si se considera que las zonas áridas representan más del 50% de la superficie de México, y que las cactáceas especialmente los géneros *Opuntia* y *Cylindropuntia*, presentan una amplia distribución a lo largo del continente (Rebman y Pinkava, 2001; Pimienta y del Castillo, 2002; Feugang et al., 2006), el presente descubrimiento abre la posibilidad de utilizar estas plantas como sustrato de cultivo para *S. commune* no sólo como complemento alimenticio en regiones con escasa disponibilidad de nutrientes sino también como una alternativa productiva para la farmacéutica. Sin embargo, la factibilidad de usar este sustrato deberá ser evaluada a futuro.

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Figura 1. *Schizophyllum commune* Fr., creciendo sobre choya (*Opuntia sp.*) intemperizada en Santo Tomás Jalietza, distrito de Ocotlán, Oaxaca.



**Drought tolerance and the patterns of species richness of lignicolous fungi in a wet and a dry  
neotropical altitudinal gradient**

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## **ABSTRACT**

We documented the species richness patterns of two lignicolous fungi types, woody and soft, with distinct drought tolerances, in two contrasting altitudinal gradients, wet-windward (WG, Puebla) and dry-leeward (DG, Oaxaca). Two gradients (700–3200 m), and nine sites (4, WG; 5, DG), of six vegetation types were surveyed in southern Mexico. We sampled 0.09 ha per site during two seasons. The altitudinal patterns of species richness and the relationship between annual precipitation and temperature and species richness were explored. We identified 443 species and morph species revealing the high fungal species diversity in neotropical mountains. The WG was more diverse than the DG. Woody fungi were more diverse than soft fungi. Species richness peaked at mid-elevations in both gradients when both fungus groups were classified as a single class, and in the WG for both groups. In DG, species richness was biased towards higher elevations in the soft group and towards lower elevations in the woody group. Species richness showed a highly significant hump-shaped distribution with both annual temperature and precipitation. However, the patterns of species richness with these variables were conditioned by the gradient and the fungus group. The climate variables analysed are good predictors of species richness and support the water–energy hypothesis. Contrasting tolerances to environmental factors may affect the altitudinal patterns. These results reject the existence of a single universal pattern of species richness with altitude, and recommend considering as many groups of species as possible to set conservation priorities in mountain environments.

**KEYWORDS:** Elevational gradients; lignicolous fungi; Mexico; neotropical mountains; species richness

## INTRODUCTION

Understanding the factors that influence the distribution of the species is a key issue in ecology and biogeography (Field et al. 2009). This issue takes particular importance in mountain environments in which small altitudinal changes are associated with large environmental changes. Furthermore, conservation in mountain areas is a priority in the light of the high diversity found in these environments and the probable threats of extinction that mountain species may face in a world that is becoming increasingly warm (Rahbeck 1995; Grytness 2003). The biota of elevation gradients is likely to have gone through similar geological and evolutionary histories within one biogeographical region and the same seasonal pattern, if any. Therefore, mountains can be considered ‘natural labs’ for testing ecological and evolutionary responses of organisms (Körner 2007).

Numerous hypotheses have been developed to explain the associations observed between species richness and altitude. Many of these can be clustered in two groups: those based on the possible relationships between species diversity and the organism’s metabolism and those based on the effects of the geometry of the mountains on migration and species abundance (Rosenzweig 1995; Körner 2007). High-elevation habitats are usually smaller and more isolated than low-elevation habitats. Therefore, emigration rates should be lower and extinction rates higher in high-elevation habitats than in low-elevation habitats, following the island biogeography theory (MacArthur and Wilson 1967). Thus, species diversity should decrease with altitude, as usually high-altitude sites are more isolated and smaller in area (Rosenzweig 1995). In contrast, the mid-domain effect (MDE) predicts a peak of species richness at intermediate elevations as a result of the random distribution of altitudinal species range between strict geographic limits (Rahbek 1995; Colwell et al. 2004, 2005; McCain 2007). Although several studies are consistent with this hypothesis, it remains to be demonstrated that the observed peaks in species richness are not a consequence of ecological or

historical processes (Hawkins et al. 2005). Because of the existence of notable environmental gradients in the mountains and the restricted environmental limits in which species can prosper, the distribution of populations in mountain environments may not take place independently of such gradients (Hawkins et al. 2005; Zapata et al. 2005). Contrastingly, the MDE should work independently of any pattern of environmental factors along altitude gradients, and the different tolerances of the focal groups of species to such environmental factors.

Temperature decreases monotonically with elevation, and may contribute to explain species diversity because of its influence on physiological processes. The metabolic theory of ecology (MTE) predicts that metabolism increases many biological processes, including speciation. Thus, according with this theory, high-altitude sites must be less diverse than low-altitude sites (Brown et al. 2004; Bradford et al. 2007).

Water availability could be an important constraint to species diversity that might blur the species diversity-temperature relationship. If metabolism is a factor influencing diversity, then water availability should have a great influence on diversity, as most metabolic processes depend heavily on water. Because of the significant role of water on the distribution of organisms, species diversity could be detected independent of temperature or even decrease as temperature increases (Bradford et al. 2007).

Since both water availability and temperature may affect species diversity in mountains, it is instructive to consider both factors. One way of separating the influence of these two factors is by using altitudinal gradients with contrasting trends of precipitation and temperature with altitude (Körner 2007). If water influences species diversity, its effect should be larger in dry altitudinal gradients where it can be an important constraint to species diversity. If both temperature and humidity influence diversity, the influence of temperature should be more evident in wet altitudinal

gradients. If only temperature influences diversity, then both dry and wet altitudinal gradients should display similar patterns of diversity with altitude. A recent review of studies of altitudinal trends of species richness found different patterns of diversity along altitudinal gradients in mountains with different moisture levels for groups of small mammals, plants, and insects. In all the studied organisms, diversity peaked at mid-altitudes in dry gradients, whereas in wet elevation gradients this peak was found at lower altitudes (Grytnes and McCain 2007).

Analysing distributional patterns of organisms with different tolerances to water-deficit could be a helpful way to explore the possible influence of water on species diversity in mountains (see Lloret and González-Mancebo 2011). This could be even more useful if the study involves both wet and dry altitudinal gradients. The water deficit-tolerant group should display small or no difference in the patterns of diversity in both gradients. In contrast, the more vulnerable group should display contrasting patterns of diversity in both gradients if water is a constraint to species diversity. If water favours diversity, then diversity should peak at any elevation where moisture is highest.

Most of the studies of altitudinal and latitudinal patterns of species diversity are concentrated on vascular plants, birds, and mammals (Kessler et al. 2001; Bejarano-Bonilla et al. 2007). Fungi are one of the groups that have been largely ignored. This is surprising, since fungi, especially lignicolous fungi, play vital roles in organic matter degradation and are highly diverse (Gilbert et al. 2002; Dai et al. 2004; Vellinga 2004, 2007).

In the present study, we analysed the patterns of species diversity of lignicolous fungi and explored the possible factors that may affect the patterns observed. In particular, we explored which of the two major groups of hypothesis of altitudinal gradients, those based on the mountain geometry or those based on metabolism, best explains the patterns observed. For this task, we compared the distributional patterns of diversity of lignicolous macrofungi in two altitudinal gradients that share

similar topographic conditions, but have contrasting climatic trends. In both gradients, temperature declines linearly with altitude, but rainfall increases with altitude in the dry gradient (DG) and decreases in altitude in the wet gradient (WG). Furthermore, to increase our understanding of the possible role of water availability on the patterns observed, we compared the distributional patterns of two groups of lignicolous fungi, which are expected to differ in their tolerance to water deficits. The group of woody lignicolous fungi has a hard perennial carpophore, with low water content, and does not dehydrate easily. The group of soft lignicolous fungi has a succulent and seasonal carpophore with high water content and is easily desiccated in dry conditions (Lodge et al. 1995).

## **MATERIAL AND METHODS**

### **Study area**

Our study was conducted in two contrasting altitudinal gradients in Southern Mexico, both with a wide altitudinal range (ca. 2600 m). The WG, located on the windward side of Sierra Norte, in the State of Puebla, faces incoming masses of moist air from the Gulf of Mexico, resulting in adiabatic cooling, condensation, and high levels of precipitation. These masses of air are blocked by high-altitude mountains on the leeward side of the adjacent Sierra Norte de Oaxaca, in the state of Oaxaca, where the DG is located. Both gradients share similar geologic and edaphic characteristics and belong to the High Tropical Natural Biogeographic Region (Ortega-Gutiérrez and González-Arreola 1985; Álvarez and de Lachica 1991; Capra et al. 2006).

Mean annual rainfall and temperature were obtained from databases from the nearest weather stations to the sampling sites ([www.smn.gob.mx](http://www.smn.gob.mx)). Both mountain ranges have two well-defined seasons: a rainy season from June to October and a dry season from November to May. Annual temperature and precipitation change linearly with altitude ( $r^2 > 0.9$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). Annual precipitation in the DG is on average 34% lower than that of the WG. In both gradients temperature declines by

approximately 0.55°C per 100 m increment in elevation (Fig. 1a). Annual precipitation increases by 21.4 mm per 100 m increment in the DG, and decreases by 47.6 mm per 100 m increment in the WG, following approximately a linear trend in both gradients (Fig. 1b).

### **Sampling design**

Both gradients were divided into 600-m elevation belts, starting at 600 m and ending at ≈3200 m. In each belt, a sampling locality with similar altitude was selected for both gradients: 724, 1688, 2245, 2804, and 3200 m in the DG; and 744, 2120, 2769, and 3275 m, in the WG. The site at ≈1700 m, in the WG could not be sampled owing to the lack of native vegetation. To avoid microclimatic differences within the same altitude, the sampled sites were located away from ravines and hilltops. In the WG, the vegetation types from low to high altitude are as follows: tropical rainforest, tropical montane cloud forest, pine oak forest, and coniferous forest. In the DG, the vegetation types are as follows: tropical dry forest, oak forest, pine-oak forests, and coniferous forests. Each study site was sampled two times during the rainy (2008) and the dry (2009) seasons and the data were combined. In each study site, we sampled a total area of 883 m<sup>2</sup> using 125 circular plots of 3 m in diameter separated by at least 5 m from each other along five 125 m transects, spaced at least 7 m from each other and arranged parallel to the level curves.

We collected the carpophores of all lignicolous fungi with ≥5 mm diameter in the plots, including those on low branches or stems of the standing vegetation up to 2 m high. The size, consistence, and colour of each specimen were recorded in the field. All the specimens were identified to the species level when possible; otherwise, morph species were considered. Voucher specimens were deposited at the ENCB Herbarium, of the Instituto Politécnico Nacional, Mexico. To explore the possible role of drought tolerance in the pattern of species distribution, all the fungi collected were classified based upon their carpophore consistency. The woody group included all perennial lignicolous fungi

with corky or woody carpophores; the soft group included all the species with seasonal carpophores of jelly or fleshy consistency. Here, we use the term species richness as the number of species found per sampled area. This diversity estimator, more precisely defined as species density, has been considered as the simplest and most satisfactory mean of controlling the influence of the area on species diversity estimations (Whittaker et al. 2001).

We analysed the relationship between species richness and altitude for all lignicolous fungi, and the woody and soft groups using general linear models. The relationship between species richness and precipitation and temperature were explored with two models, one per each climatic factor, in which all species and the two gradients were included:

$$S = \beta_0 + \beta_1 r + \beta_2 c + \beta_3 y + \beta_4 (y - \bar{y})^2 + \text{two way interactions} + \text{three way interactions},$$

where  $S$  = species richness,  $r$  = gradient (dry, scaled -1, or humid, +1);  $c$  = consistence of carpophore (fleshy, -1, or woody, +1), and  $y$  = precipitation or temperature;  $\beta_i$  are regression coefficients of the model.  $\beta_0$  is the predicted overall mean of species richness.  $\beta_1$  tests if the two gradients contribute differently to the total species diversity,  $\beta_1 = 0$ , means equal contribution; similarly,  $\beta_3$  tests the proportional contribution of each group of fungi, fleshy or woody, to the total diversity;  $\beta_3$  is the linear effect of the tested environmental variable on species diversity;  $\beta_4$  is the quadratic effect,  $\bar{y}$  is the overall mean of the environmental variable. We conducted a backward elimination procedure in each of the two models in which the less significant variable was eliminated one at a time. The procedure continues until all the variables in the reduced model were significant at least at  $p < 0.05$ . Species richness was square-root transformed prior to analyses to normalize the data and homogenize variances. All statistical analyses were performed using the Proc REG of the SAS software (Cary, NC, USA, v. 9.1.3).



## RESULTS

### Species richness of lignicolous fungi in dry and wet altitudinal gradients

We collected a total of 803 specimens of 443 species and morph species in 7947 m<sup>2</sup>. As is usual in fungus diversity studies (Gilbert et al. 2002; Tofts and Orton 1998; Gilbert et al. 2008), the plateau in the species-accumulation curves was not reached. On average, only 30% of the total expected species richness was reached. Species richness was higher in the WG than in the DG at every altitudinal belt that could be compared. At equivalent altitudes, the WG was on average 3.0 times more diverse than the DG. The highest difference in species richness between both gradients was observed at the lowest altitude sampled (*ca.* 700 m), where the WG was 5.7 times more diverse than the DG. The lowest difference was observed at 2800 m where the WG was only 1.2 times more diverse (Fig. 2). In both gradients, the estimated species richness showed approximately a hump-shaped relationship with altitude as evidenced by the significant quadratic factor in the analysis ( $p = 0.038$ ). Species richness was highest at 1700 m, in the DG, and at 2100 m, in the WG, but the analysis could not detect this difference; no significant interactions involving the altitude term were significant ( $p > 0.38$ ).

The soft group was less diverse than the woody group at every site with equivalent altitude. On average, the soft group comprises approximately 20% of the total species richness of lignicolous fungi in both gradients. This proportion showed little variation among altitudinal belts in the WG (range = 9.8%) compared with the DG (range = 46.3%). The analyses exploring the relationship between species richness and altitude showed a good fit to the data ( $r^2 = 0.87$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ , Table 1). The patterns of species diversity with altitude depended on the gradient and the type of carpophore, as revealed by the significant interaction terms involving altitude with carpophore consistency or gradient (Table 1). A hump-shaped distribution between altitude and species richness was detected

in both gradients and kinds of fungi. In the WG, the site of maximum species richness was at 2120 m for both the soft and the woody groups (Fig. 3a). In the DG, the altitude at which species richness was highest (1688 m) for the woody group was more than 1100 m lower than that for the soft group (2800 m). The species richness of the soft group in the DG was nearly four times more diverse at the highest (2800 and 3200 m) sampling sites than at the lowest sampling sites (724 and 1688 m, Fig. 3b).

### **Climatic factors and distribution patterns in lignicolous fungi**

After the backward elimination procedure, both models including temperature and precipitation and considering separately the two groups of fungi explained reasonably well the patterns of species richness along the two studied gradients. The model in which rainfall was included had the lowest fit explaining 83.0% of the variance. The temperature model explained 90.0% of the variance of the data. These results suggest the involvement of climatic factors as important determinants of species richness of this fungal guild (Table 2). Both models show that: (a) the patterns of species richness with climate are influenced by the mountain gradient and the kind of carpophore of the lignicolous fungi; (b) the relationship between the climatic variables studied and species richness is approximately hump-shaped, usually with a peak at intermediate values of the range of values estimated for the studied mountains; and (c) the patterns of species richness with the climatic variables studied are more similar between the soft and the woody groups in the WG than in the DG.

In the WG, the species richness of both the soft and the woody group showed a hump-shaped distribution with annual rainfall with a predicted peak at 1230 mm y<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 4a). In contrast, the predicted peak in species richness of the woody group in DG was located at a lower rainfall: 940 mm y<sup>-1</sup> but for the soft group the predicted peak was at 1100 mm y<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 4b). The species richness of the soft group tended to peak at similar temperatures in both mountain gradients (14 °C, WG, 13

°C, DG) but in the DG woody group tended to peak at higher temperature than in the WG (14 °C, WG; 20° C, DG) (Fig. 4 a1, b1)

## **DISCUSSION**

This study reveals the high diversity of lignicolous fungi in southern Mexico mountains, and points to the need of more diversity studies of this neglected group of species. In all the studied sites, species richness was high and similar to that reported in published mycobiota studies conducted on nearby regions that included lignicolous fungus (Martínez Alfaro et al. 1983; Vázquez-Mendoza and Valenzuela-Garza 2010). A comparison of the diversity of lignicolous fungi with that reported for shrubs and trees in a study conducted in the DG between 2145–3120 m elevation revealed that lignicolous fungi are 3.4 to 4.5 times more diverse at similar altitudes, slope aspect, and sampling areas than the estimated diversity of trees and shrubs combined (cf. Zacarías-Eslava and del Castillo 2010). These figures are not far from the general 6:1 ratio of fungus-to-plant species suggested by Hawksworth (1991). To our knowledge, the present study is the first to explore the altitudinal patterns of species diversity of lignicolous fungi. We, therefore, warn about making general statements about the patterns of species richness in altitudinal gradients when important components of the biota have been ignored.

### **Mid-domain effect and migration**

When the two classes of lignicolous fungi were combined in the analyses, a hump-shaped distribution was observed in both gradients. These results contrast with the monotonic patterns reported for other taxa, including mycorrhizal fungi (Ruotsalainen et al. 2002; Stephenson et al. 2004; Naniwadekar and Vasudevan 2007; Robledo and Renison 2009). However, a hump-shaped distribution with altitude has been reported in many other groups of organisms (e.g. Lomolino 2001; Grytnes and Vetaas 2002; McCain 2004). The MDE has been considered as a satisfactory

explanation for this kind of result (e.g. McCain 2004). Geometric constraints imposed by the sea level or the bottom of a valley as a lower boundary, and the top of the mountains as upper boundaries are the main causes of the MDE (Grytnes and Vetaas 2002). Therefore, this effect should operate independently of the kind of organism studied. The similar hump-shaped distributions of the two groups of lignicolous fungi in the WG could lead to this conclusion. In the DG, however, the hump-shaped distribution of species richness with altitude was displaced towards higher altitudes in the soft group, and towards lower altitudes in the woody group. The altitude of the sampling site at which species richness tops in the soft group was 1100 m higher than that of the woody group. Furthermore, the highest altitude sites were nearly four times richer in soft fungus species than the lowest sites in the DG. Clearly, the contrasting patterns of species richness with altitude in the DG between the woody and the soft group do not support the MDE, the predictions of which are not conditioned by the organism kind. Furthermore, the highest species richness of soft fungus observed at the highest altitude sites is opposite to Rosenzweig's (1995) area limitation hypothesis.

### **Metabolism and climate**

A monotonic decrease of species richness with altitude is a corollary of the metabolic theory of ecology (Brown et al. 2004) and related hypotheses that predict that productivity is associated with diversity (Wright 1983). This prediction depends on two assumptions. Firstly, productivity should increase with temperature because of the well-known positive correlation between metabolism and temperature. Secondly, the roles of other factors that may affect productivity are negligible. The last assumption is not always true; productivity is likely to be limited by other factors (Williams et al. 1997). This should be more evident in regions in which temperature does not approach the physiological limits of metabolism. This is probably the case of altitudinal gradients in tropical regions that may not necessarily reach extreme altitudes, as is the case of our study gradients. Thus,

other factors should play important roles in determining diversity. Water deficit is a major constraint on metabolism in terrestrial ecosystems (Williams et al. 1997), and therefore should affect species diversity if metabolism determines species diversity. At continental scale, O'Brien (1998) shows the importance of considering water and energy as predictors of woody plant species richness. Here, we suggest that, in addition to temperature, water is an important factor affecting the altitudinal patterns of species richness, particularly for those organisms more vulnerable to water stress and in those environments where water is scarce.

The elevated species richness of soft lignicolous fungi in high-altitude sites in the DG contradicts the monotonic decrease of species richness with altitude prediction, but not the productivity-species richness hypothesis. Contrary to common dictum that states a monotonic decrease of productivity with elevation, we have evidence of the opposite in the DG. In this gradient, tree basal area, a common surrogate of plant biomass and the amount of substrate available for lignicolous fungi, increased linearly with elevation; the total vegetation cover was lower and more variable at 2145 m than at higher altitudes; at that altitude, shrubs, with lower stature than trees, were the dominant group of plants, whereas trees dominated at higher elevations; and, finally, annual rainfall and the water content of soil samples increased linearly with elevation (Zacarías-Eslava and del Castillo 2010). Thus, productivity in the DG is likely to increase with elevation and this increase can be explained by the higher water availability of the high elevation sites. In such cases, species diversity could be favoured at least for those groups more vulnerable to water stress and more tolerant to low temperatures.

As predicted, the soft group displayed the highest diversity in the WG where moisture is more abundant. High water content is a distinctive feature of soft fungi, which may reach 80% of its total carpophore biomass. The shape and function of the carpophore depend on turgor pressure in jelly

fungi and these tend to lose water quickly under dry conditions because of the lack of effective barriers against desiccation (Ingold 1959; Moore 1965). In contrast, the carpophore of woody lignicolous fungi is rigid and does not depend on turgor pressure to maintain its shape throughout the year. Thus, reproduction, a *sine qua non* condition for species persistence, and, eventually, for diversification, is likely to be less affected by water deficits in woody fungi. The high species richness of soft lignicolous fungus at high elevations in the DG and the possible role of water availability in this relationship may indicate that this group is relatively tolerant to cold temperatures and that water deficit, rather than temperature, is the most important factor restricting diversity in this kind of fungus. This hypothesis remains to be tested. However, the high water content of soft fungi may assist them to endure low temperatures since water acts as a temperature regulator owing to its high specific heat capacity. Further support for the importance of water in cold environments for fungi is given by the fact that, in polar regions, the occurrence of fungi is coupled to water availability (Zak and Wildman 2004). Species richness also peaks at lower altitudes in wet gradients than in dry gradients in groups of small mammals, plants, and insects (Grytnes and McCain 2007). The reasons for such patterns remain to be investigated. Here, we provide evidence that water limitation as a constraint for species diversity in mountain gradients, may explain, at least in part, this kind of result in lignicolous fungi.

The species richness of woody fungi decreased at higher elevations in the DG in spite of the higher abundance of wood substrates there. Thus, metabolic constraints, rather than substrate limitation, best explains the lower diversity of woody fungi at high altitudes in this gradient. On the other hand, woody fungi were more diverse at low elevations in the DG, suggesting that this group tolerates the water stress of low elevation sites of the DG better than soft fungi, where temperature is high and rainfall is scarce.

Amongst all the study sites, species richness was highest at low elevations in the WG for both groups of fungi. The vegetation of these sites is amongst the tallest in Mexico (Rzedowski 1978). Therefore, wood substrates for lignicolous fungi are abundant there. For comparative purposes, the average basal area of the vegetation in tropical montane cloud forest was estimated to be between three to four times larger than that of temperate forests in the DG (cf. del Castillo and Blanco-Macías 2007; Zacarías-Eslava and del Castillo 2010). Rainfall is also abundant and the temperature is warm. Thus, the low elevations of the WG seem to offer the best combination of conditions for lignicolous fungi.

### **Species richness and climate**

The highly significant models obtained between species richness and precipitation and temperature provide support for the possible role of climate in the patterns of species richness in altitudinal gradients. The hump-shaped relationship detected indicates that neotropical mountain gradients offer a wide variety of climatic conditions and that the conditions at which species richness for lignicolous fungi is highest are at intermediate values between the climatic extremes found in the mountains. The significant interactions in our climate models involving the kind of carpophore with temperature and rainfall indicate that the relationships between species richness and climate are contingent on the different tolerances of the species to environmental stresses. Furthermore, our study shows that very different climatic conditions can be found at the same altitude, depending on the orientation of the mountain. These differences may explain the different altitudinal patterns in species richness found between the leeward and windward sides of the mountains observed, particularly when the two types of fungus studied were considered. Therefore, altitude should not be considered as a good predictor of species richness when climatic factors are the driven factors affecting species richness in mountain gradients.

Metabolism appears to be the best supported factor explaining species diversity in altitudinal gradients in lignicolous fungi. It remains to be explained why the most productive sites for a given group of organisms are the most diverse. Clearly, this is beyond the scope of this study and has been discussed extensively elsewhere (Whittaker et al. 2001; Scheiner and Willig 2005). However, a simple hypothesis can be advanced here based on the fact that our data is based exclusively on reproductive organisms. High productivity was associated with higher number of carpophores and, therefore, with more reproductive events, implying a high number of mitotic and meiotic events, and, consequently, more chances of mutations, the ultimate source of variation.

In conclusion, metabolic constraints mediated by energy and water probably drive the altitudinal patterns of species richness of lignicolous fungi in the neotropical mountains of southern Mexico. Area effects such as the MDE do not provide a satisfactory explanation for the patterns observed. Neotropical mountains, particularly their leeward and the windward sides, provide a wide variation of environmental conditions at short distances. Some of these may be stressful whereas others are optimal for certain groups of organisms. Thus, the study of such gradients in combination with organisms with contrasting tolerances to environmental variables may assist in disentangling the possible role of metabolism from area effects in the patterns of species richness observed in altitudinal gradients. The contrasting tolerances to temperature and water stress may influence the altitudinal patterns in species richness in soft and woody lignicolous fungi. Thus, the altitudinal patterns of species richness may differ between species of the same guild and between different sides of a mountain. These results, therefore, reject the existence of a single universal pattern of species richness with altitude, and point to the need of considering as many groups of species as possible before setting conservation priorities in mountain environments.



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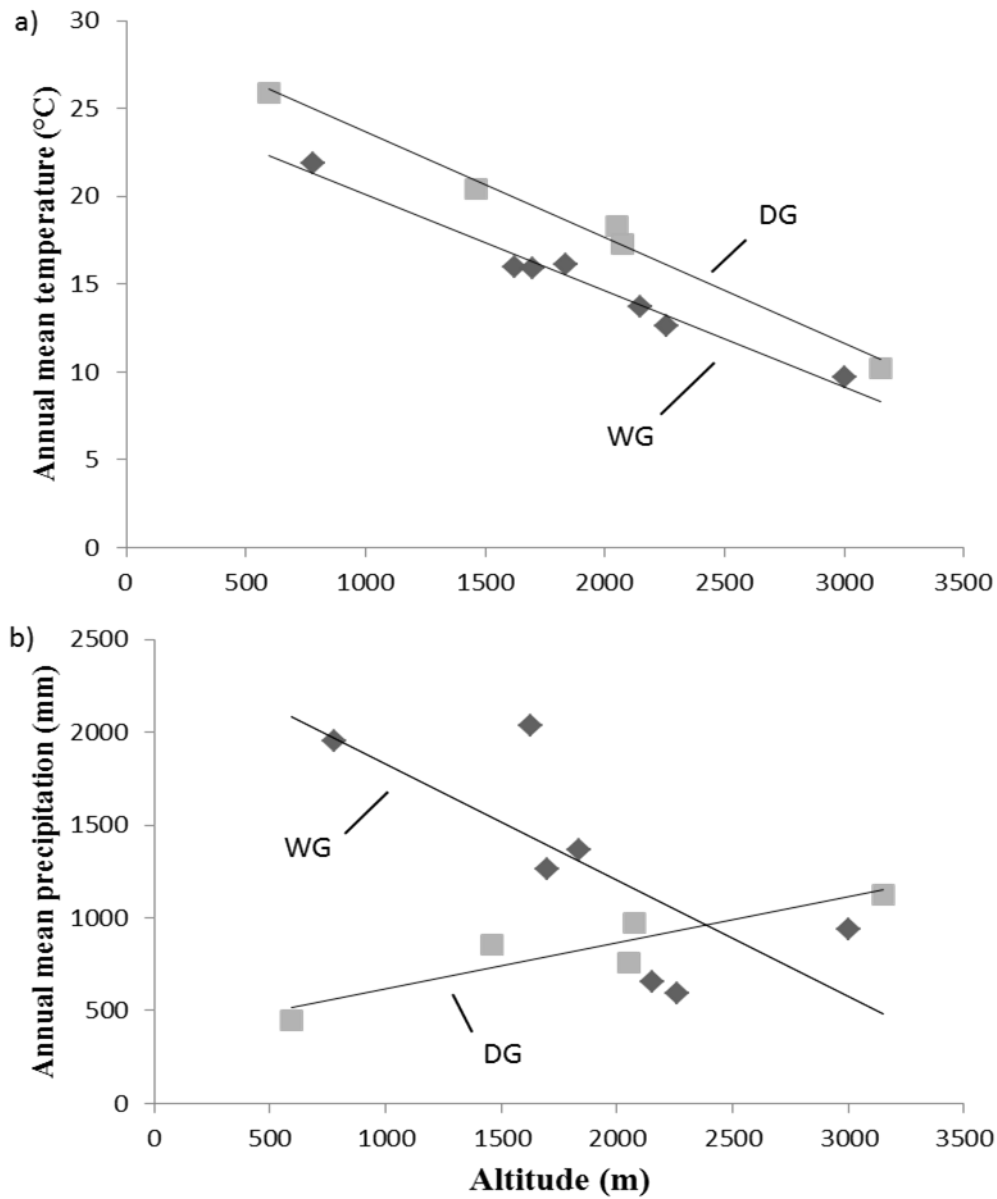
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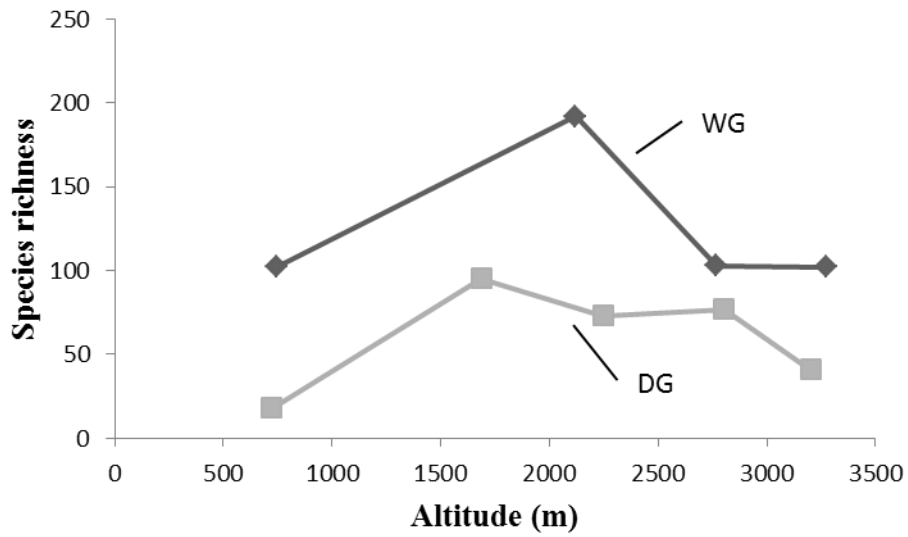
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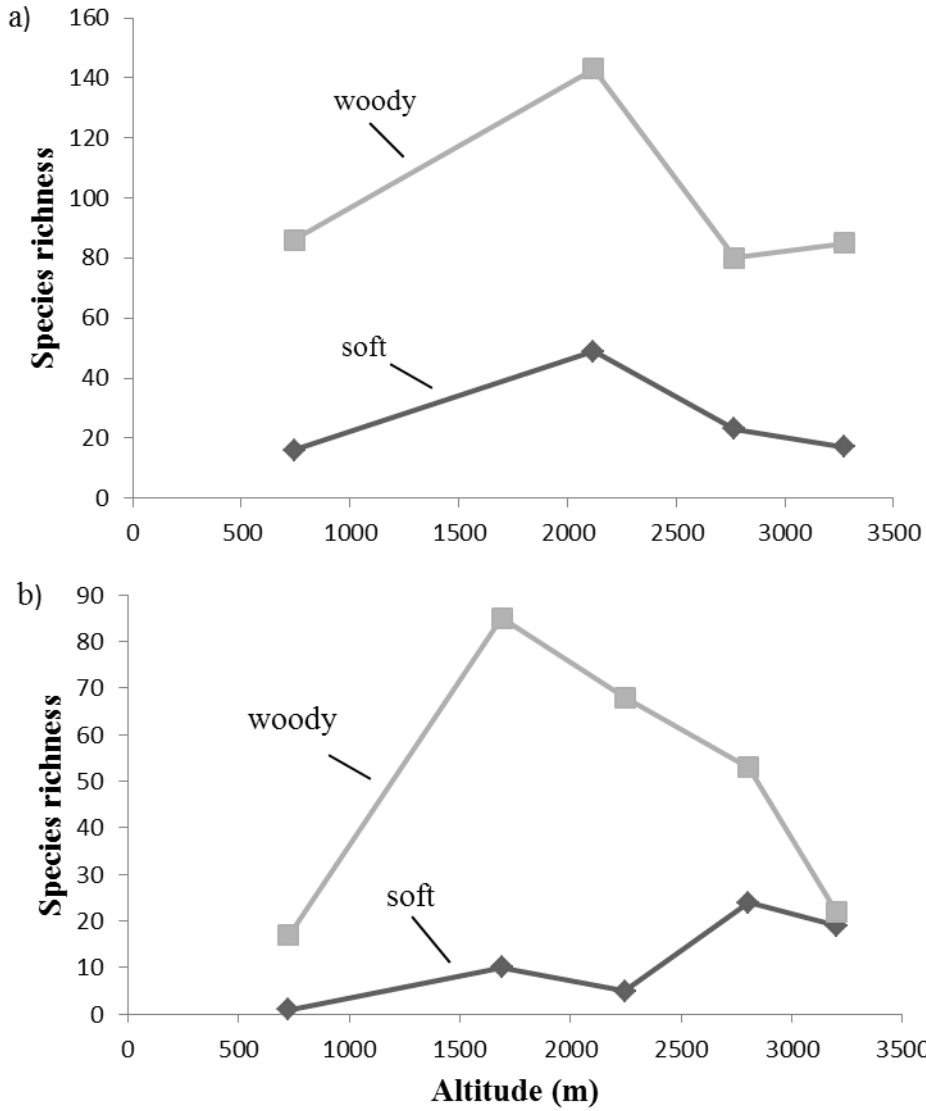
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**Fig. 1** Trends of annual rainfall and temperature along two altitudinal gradients in Southern Mexico: wet-windward (WG) and dry-leeward (DG)

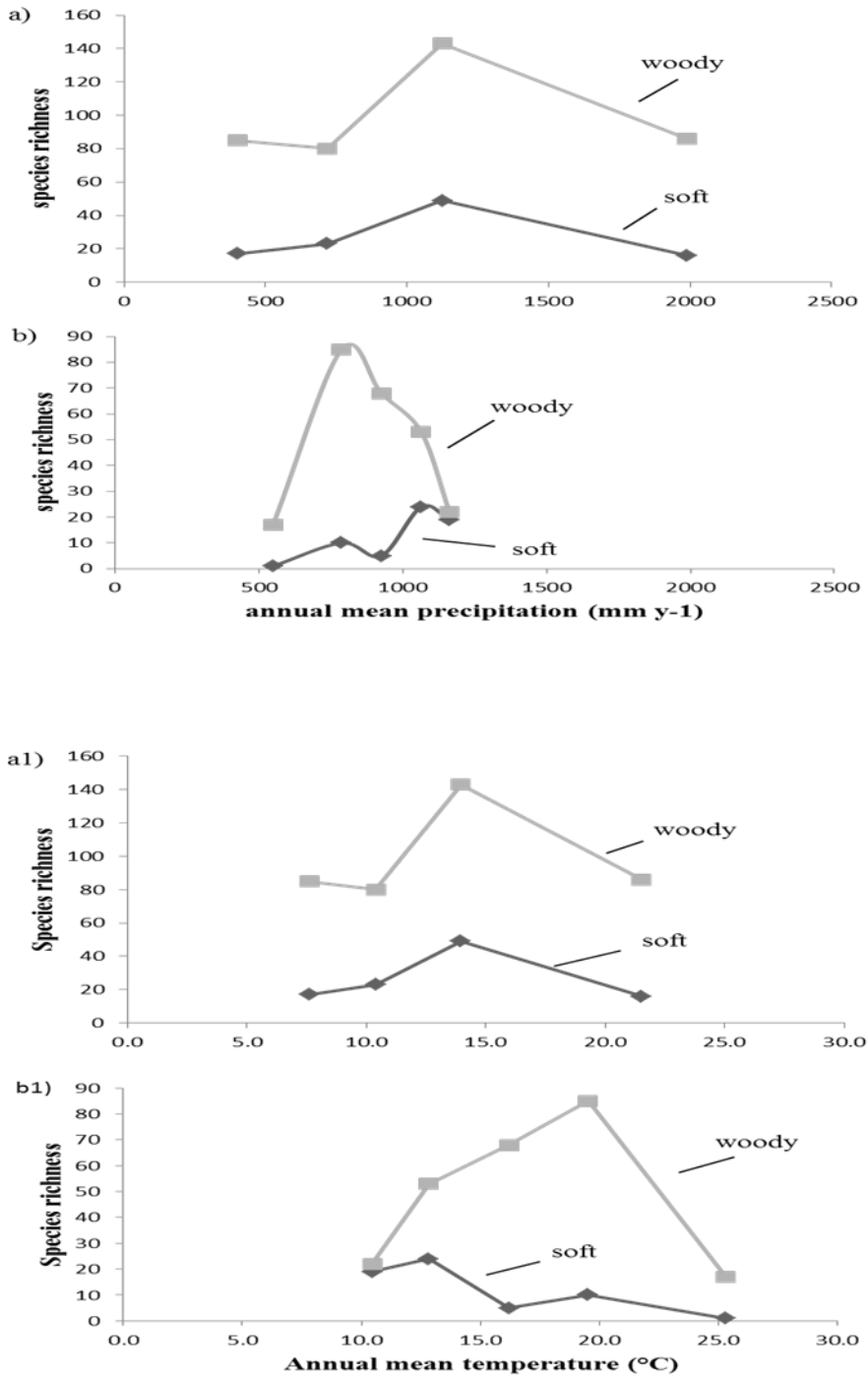


**Fig. 2** Species richness patterns of lignicolous fungi along a wet (WG) and a dry (DG) altitudinal gradient in Southern Mexico



**Fig. 3** Species richness patterns of woody and soft lignicolous fungi, along: a) a wet and b) a dry altitudinal gradients in Southern Mexico





**Fig. 4** Relationship between the species richness of woody and soft lignicolous fungi and annual mean rainfall and annual mean temperature in: a) a wet and b) dry altitudinal gradients in Southern Mexico

**Table 1** Results of the backward elimination procedure testing the effect of altitude on lignicolous fungi species richness, in which mountain range and carpophore consistence were also included. Only those terms that remained significant in the model are shown. (C= consistence; G= gradient)

Parameter	Estimate	Standard error	t-value
Intercept	7.47	0.4678	255.09***
C	2.08	0.2843	53.77***
G	1.36	0.2882	22.54**
Alt <sup>2</sup>	-1.50E-06	4.26E-07	12.40**
Alt <sup>2</sup> *C*G	5.48E-07	2.61E-07	4.42*

\*\*\*p < 0.0001, \*\*p < 0.001, \*p < 0.05

**Table 2** Results of the backward elimination procedures testing the effects of precipitation and temperature on lignicolous fungi species richness, in which mountain range and carpophore consistence were also included. Only those terms that remained significant in the model are shown (C=consistence; G=gradient)

Parameter	Estimate	Standard error	t-value
<b>Model including precipitation</b>			
Intercept	5.1070	1.3132	3.89**
C	4.1533	0.8635	4.81**
Precipitation	0.0036	0.0013	2.67*
<b>Model including temperature</b>			
Intercept	9.3114	1.2134	7.67***
G	2.4258	0.7835	3.10*
Temp*C	0.1794	0.0623	2.88*
Temp <sup>2</sup> *C*G	0.0685	0.0263	2.61*
Temp <sup>2</sup> *C*DG	0.0602	0.0161	3.75*

\*\*\*p < 0.0001, \*\*p < 0.001, \*p < 0.05

# **Altitudinal distribution patterns in Aphylophorales in Mexican Neotropic and their relationship with actual evapotranspiration.**

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## **Abstract**

Despite the high diversity of fungus and the role fungi play in organic matter degradation, the factors that influence species diversity in fungi are little known. The study of the patterns of species richness in altitudinal gradients can provide a preliminary insight. We explored the species richness patterns of Aphylophorales, a group of mostly wood-decay fungi in two altitudinal gradients in neotropical mountains of southern Mexico, each ranging from 700 to 3200 m, and explored the relationship between actual evapotranspiration (AET) and diversity. The diversity of Aphylophorales showed a hump-shaped relationship with altitude and AET, suggesting that climate is a major driver of species diversity. However, species richness was higher in the Puebla gradient than in the Oaxaca gradient even for the same values of altitude or AET. Thus, species diversity of Aphylophorales is likely to be driven by a combination of factors being climate one of the most important.

**Key words:** Actual Evapotranspiration, Altitudinal diversity patterns, Aphylophorales, Neotropical mountains, Mexico

## Introduction

Climate has been considered as a leading factor explaining the diversity of organisms, since the earlier days of ecology. Indeed, the decrease in species richness from tropical to extratropical areas is the ecology's longest recognized pattern, but many exceptions have been detected (Lomolino 2001; Willig *et al.* 2003). The large geographical scale of studies involving latitudinal gradients makes it difficult to disentangle the role of the possible factors that may contribute to explain the observed patterns in species diversity. Latitudinal studies, for instance, may involve several biogeographical areas, each with different geological history, usually inflicting profound effects on species diversity. Elevation gradients in mountains also inflict notable climatic variations, but at short distances. The mountain biota is likely to have gone through a similar geological and evolutionary history within one biogeographical region and the same seasonal pattern, if any (Körner 2000). Because of this, mountains are excellent natural labs to explore the factors that determine the distribution of the species (Körner 2007). The study of the distributional patterns of species along altitudinal gradients could be a first step in the process of understanding the relationship of species with environmental factors, in particular those associated with climate. Such kind of studies are also relevant owing the fact that climate change may favor the displacement of species to different altitudes or orientations in mountain areas, since the prevailing climatic conditions are likely to be located at different places in the mountains in the future (Zacarias-Eslava & del Castillo 2010; Saenz Romero *et al.* 2010). Combining the information of the actual distribution of species with local projections of climate change may help to design conservation strategies, including future reserves.

Diverse climatic factors are related with altitude. Of them, temperature appears to be one of the most relevant in the observed relationship between species diversity and altitude. Temperature

declines monotonically with altitude; and speciation, as all biological process, increases with increasing temperature (Brown *et al.* 2004; Jørgensen 2012). Temperature also influences water availability, which is a common limiting factor for many living beings, and, therefore, it is likely to affect diversity. Despite the widely accepted role of temperature on changes in species diversity in altitudinal gradients, water availability could be an important constraint to species diversity that blurred this relationship. If metabolism is a factor influencing diversity, then water availability should have a deep influence on diversity, as metabolic processes depend heavily on water. Because of the overwhelming role of water in the distribution of organisms, species diversity could be detected independent of temperature or even decrease as temperature increases (Bradford *et al.* 2007).

Some studies aiming at study the relationship between species diversity and climate have use variables that combine water availability and temperature as an explanatory variable, because of the close relationship between these two factors, among other reasons. One example is actual evapotranspiration (AET) defined as the sum of water loss from plant's transpiration and water evaporated from the soil. This attribute is easy to estimate from formulas that can be obtained from most meteorological data bases, and has been found to be a good predictor of the species diversity of many groups of organisms including birds and plants (Bhattarai *et al.* 2004; González-Espinosa *et al.* 2004; Vermeij 2005; Körner 2007). Therefore, exploring the relationship between species diversity and AET is also useful for comparative purposes.

It is not clear if there is a common pattern of species richness with altitude (Grytnes 2003). Most of the studies of altitudinal patterns of species diversity have been conducted on vascular plants, birds, and mammals (Kessler *et al.* 2001; Ramos de Sant'Ana *et al.* 2002; Bejarano-Bonilla *et al.* 2007; Jiménez-Castillo *et al.* 2007; McCain 2007). Many groups have been overlooked. Fungi are a

significant example, since they are among the most important organisms on earth because of their vital roles in organic matter degradation, wide distribution, and high diversity (Gilbert *et al.* 2002; Dai *et al.* 2004; Vellinga 2004, 2007). Clearly, it is risky to speak of general patterns of species diversity with altitude ignoring groups such as fungi which constitute a significant proportion of the biota

The altitudinal patterns of diversity of fungi are known only for limited groups of fungi and only in few regions of the world. Some examples are the studies of Myxomycetes in cloud forest in Ecuador and Mycorrhizal fungi in Palearctic environments (Ruotsalainen *et al.* 2002; Stephenson *et al.* 2004). Aphylophorales is an example of the groups of fungi that has been overlooked in this kind of studies. This order is one of the most abundant and diverse group of fungi on earth, and its role in wood decay is very important (Rodríguez-Armas *et al.* 2003; Gibertoni *et al.* 2007). As part of a project which aims to explore the altitudinal relationships between fungi diversity and altitude, in the present study, we analyze the altitudinal patterns of species diversity of Aphylophorales and its possible association with actual evapotranspiration. We conducted our study in two altitudinal gradients, from 600 to 3200 m elevation in two neotropical mountains of southern Mexico. Neotropical regions are considered as very rich in macrofungi diversity, but have been little explored (Lodge *et al.* 1995).

## MATERIAL AND METHODS

### Study area

Our study was conducted in two elevational gradients in southern Mexico: one in Sierra Norte de Puebla and the other in Sierra Norte de Oaxaca, heretofore Puebla and Oaxaca gradients respectively. Both gradients have similar geologic and edaphic characteristics and belong to the High Tropical Natural Biogeographic Region (Ortega-Gutiérrez & González-Arreola 1985; Álvarez & de Lachica 1991; Capra *et al.* 2006). The average slope of the two gradients is similar: 3 to 5%.

According to data bases from the nearest weather stations to our gradients ([www.smn.gob.mx](http://www.smn.gob.mx)), the average annual precipitation of the Puebla gradient, 1259 mm y<sup>-1</sup>, is higher than that of the Oaxaca gradient: only 832 mm y<sup>-1</sup>. Similarly, the average annual temperature of the Puebla gradient, 15.1 ° C, is lower than that of the Oaxaca gradient: 18.4 ° C. Actual evapotranspiration (AET) was calculated according with the Turc model (1954) as:  $AET = P / [0.9 + (P/L)^2]^{1/2}$ ; where  $L = 300 + 25 T + 0.05 T^3$ ,  $P$ = mean annual precipitation and  $T$ = mean annual temperature.

#### Sampling design and statistical analysis

Each altitudinal gradient, ranging from 600 to 3200 m, was divided in six 600 m altitudinal belts. A sampling locality was haphazardly chosen in each belt. In the Puebla gradient, the sampled localities were located at 744 m, 2120 m, 2769 m and 3275 m. The second elevation belt of this gradient could not be included in the analyses owing to the lack of native vegetation. For the Oaxaca gradient, the sampling altitudes were located at: 724 m, 1688 m, 2245 m, 2804 m and 3200 m elevation. To avoid microclimatic differences within the same altitude, the sampled sites were localized away from ravines and hilltops. The contrasting humidity of the two gradients is evident in their vegetation types, particularly in the low-elevation sites: tropical rainforest, tropical montane cloud forest, pine oak forest and coniferous forest in the Puebla gradient; and tropical dry forest, oak forest, pine-oak forests, and coniferous forests in the Oaxaca gradient, from low to high altitude. Each study site was sampled two times, during both the rainy (June to October, 2008) and the dry (November to May, 2008/2009) season. The data of the two seasons were combined in this study. In each study site we sampled a total area of 883 m<sup>2</sup> using 125 circular plots of 3 m in diameter separated at least 5 m from each other along five 125 m transects, spaced at least 7 m from each other and arranged parallel to the level curves.



For the taxonomy of Aphylophorales, we followed Donk (1964). The carpophores of all Aphylophorales in the sampling plots including those in low branches or stems of standing vegetation up to 2 m high in the plots were collected. The specimens were dried at 60° C during 24 h. Voucher specimens were deposited at the Escuela Nacional de Ciencias Biológicas, ENCB, Herbarium, of the Instituto Politécnico Nacional, Mexico. All the specimens were identified to the species level when possible; otherwise morph-species were considered. We use species richness, more precisely defined as species density, as an estimator of diversity. This estimator takes into account the influence of the area on species diversity, and is considered by far the most satisfactory (Whittaker *et al.* 2001). We conducted regression models to test the relationship between species richness and altitude, and species richness and AET, including both linear and quadratic effects, using mountain range, coded as 1 for Puebla and -1, for Oaxaca as a covariate. All statistical analyses were performed using the Proc REG of the SAS software (Cary, NC, USA, v. 9.1.3).

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

We collected a total of 231 specimens of Aphylophorales that belong to 150 species and morph-species in 7947 m<sup>2</sup> of sampled area during two consecutive seasons in 2008 (rainy) and 2008/2009 (dry). Our study reveals a high diversity of Aphylophorales fungi in southern mountains of Mexico comparing with other tropical regions. For example, for premontane wet forest in mountains in Ecuador, Suárez (2004 unpublished) report 132 specimens belonging to 50 species of Aphylophorales; while for Atlantic rain forest in Brazil 134 species of Aphylophorales were founded (Gibertoni *et al.* 2007). To our knowledge, the present study is the first to explore the relationship between species richness of Aphylophorales with altitude and with AET.

The Oaxaca gradient displayed little variation in AET values: range = 126 mm y<sup>-1</sup>; whereas the Puebla gradient was 6.3 times more variable, range= 801 mm y<sup>-1</sup>. In Puebla, AET declined with

elevation approximately in a linear fashion; whereas in Oaxaca, AET displayed a hump-shaped relationship, with a peak approximately at 2200 m (Fig. 1). The wide altitudinal range of these two gradients, spanning 2500 m, and their different climatic conditions allows us to study the diversity of Aphylophorales in a comprehensive variety of conditions. Moreover, by considering two gradients, we were able to expand the range of values of AET to 152 % relative to the range of the Oaxaca gradient, which displayed the smallest range of AET values. Therefore, this research shows the advantage of considering more than one altitudinal gradient in this kind of studies.

The diversity of Aphylophorales showed a hump-shaped relationship with altitude in both mountain gradients, as evidenced by the significant model ( $r^2 = 0.78$ ,  $P = 0.04$ ) with both the linear and quadratic components of altitude significant together with the gradient effect:

$$\text{div}(\text{alt}) = 93.0 + 17.5 g - 1.39 \times 10^{-1} \text{alt} - 2.29 \times 10^{-5} (\text{alt} - \text{altm})^2,$$

where *alt* and *altm* are altitude and the mean altitude, respectively, and

The model predicts that in both gradients, species richness peaks at approximately 1900 m altitude and that the Puebla gradient is on average 1.46 times more diverse in species of Aphylophorales than the Oaxaca gradient (Fig. 2).

Our general lineal model including the linear and quadratic effect of AET and gradient as explanatory variables of Aphylophorales diversity, and excluding the general intercept, was highly significant ( $r^2 = 0.94$ ,  $P = 0.0005$ ):

$$\text{div}(\text{AET}) = 25.9 g - 9.1 \times 10^{-2} \text{AET} - 2.8 \times 10^{-4} (\text{AET} - \text{AETm})^2,$$

where *AETm* is the mean *AET* and *g* is as above. The model shows that: (a) the pattern of species richness with AET is influenced by the mountain gradient, being the Puebla gradient richer in species of Aphylophorales than the Oaxaca gradient for similar values of AET; and (b) the

relationship between AET and species richness is hump-shaped, with a peak at  $\approx 790 \text{ mm y}^{-1}$ . The Puebla gradient offers a wider variety of AET values showing a hump-shaped distribution between

AET and species richness, with a peak at intermediate AET values found in this gradient (Fig. 3). The Oaxaca gradient apparently shows a linear trend with the peak in species diversity closer to the highest values of AET detected in this gradient. However, the clear quadratic component in the species richness-AET relationship could not be detected in Oaxaca because of the lack of high values of AET. These results, again, emphasizes the advantage of including more than one gradient in this kind of studies.

The highly significant model obtained between species richness and AET studied provide support to the possible role of climate on the patterns of species richness in altitudinal gradients. The hump-shaped relationship detected between AET and species richness suggests that mountain gradients in southern Mexico offer a wide variety of climatic conditions at short distances that may affect species diversity, and that the conditions at which species richness is highest can be either at intermediate values between the climatic extremes found in the mountain gradients or closer to one of the extremes. Thus, neotropical mountains provide both optimal and extreme environmental conditions to Aphylophorales species diversity. However, the differences observed in species richness between the two mountain gradients even at similar values of AET provide evidence of the role of other factors distinct to temperature and water availability as important drivers of species diversity in this group of fungi. Further studies should explore the possible role of such factors. One possibility could be the effects of the differences in wood substrates found between the studied gradients, given the contrasting vegetation types found in them. In general, Aphylophorales have been considered generalist in several studies many species of this order; however, some species show high host specificity (Gilbert *et al.* 2008).

Aphylophorales are well known to be colonized by diverse suite of species of fungicolous fungi (Gams *et al.* 2004). The effects of such fungi has not been fully characterized and in some cases are believed to cause little harm to the hosts. However, the role of such a diverse group of

fungicolous fungi targeting Aphyllophorales could not be ruled out as a possible factor affecting species diversity in this order of fungi. Further studies will be needed to explore this idea.

Evapotranspiration (ET) incorporates two of the most likely factors affecting diversity in mountain gradients: water and energy, and is a common surrogate to productivity. Therefore, our fitted model is in agreement with the hump-shaped relationship between productivity and species diversity commonly detected in studies of species diversity (Mittelbach *et al.* 2001). Moreover, our species richness peaks at values of ET similar to those found in other organisms, such as Himalayan ferns where species richness shows a peak in species richness between 800-1000 mm of potential evapotranspiration (Bhattarai *et al.* 2004).

AET is an indicator of the energy of the atmosphere to withdraw water from surfaces in contact with the air. Very high levels of AET probably impose higher water stress conditions for fungi. At the other end, the excess of water expected under low levels of AET may favor hypoxia and rotting, and probably attacks by fungicolous fungi. Further studies will be needed to test this hypothesis. In the meantime, metabolism appears to be a satisfactory hypothesis explaining partially species diversity in altitudinal gradients in Aphyllophorales fungi. Our results concur with those observed in other studies in woody plants performed at diverse spatial scales. Not all studies, however, have detected a hump-shaped relationship with AET. A limited range of AET values may render a monotonic relationship when the relationship is indeed hump-shaped (Robledo & Renison 2009).

In conclusion, this study shows that AET can help to predict the species diversity of Aphyllophorales in Neotropical mountains of southern Mexico, and provides indirect evidence supporting the role of energy and water as major drivers of this fungus group in altitudinal gradients. However, the wide differences in species richness between the two mountain gradients even at similar values of

AET indicate that climatic values associated with temperature and water availability are necessary but not sufficient to explain the high diversity of Aphyllorphorales in the Neotropics.

#### Acknowledgements

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Fig. 1. Trends of AET values along two altitudinal gradients in Southern Mexico: Sierra Norte de Puebla (rhombus) and Sierra Norte de Oaxaca (squares).  $R^2 = 0.99$  in both cases.

Fig. 2 Species richness patterns of Aphylophorales along two altitudinal gradients, Sierra Norte de Puebla ( $\diamond$ ) y Sierra Norte de Oaxaca ( $\square$ ), in Southern Mexico.

Fig. 3. Relationship between species richness of Aphylophorales and AET values in two altitudinal gradients, Sierra Norte de Puebla ( $\diamond$ ) y Sierra Norte de Oaxaca ( $\square$ ), in Southern Mexico.

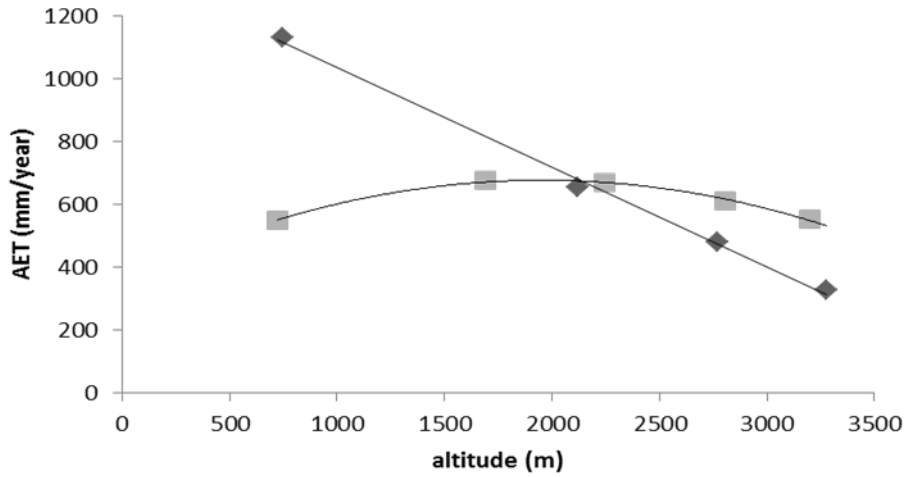


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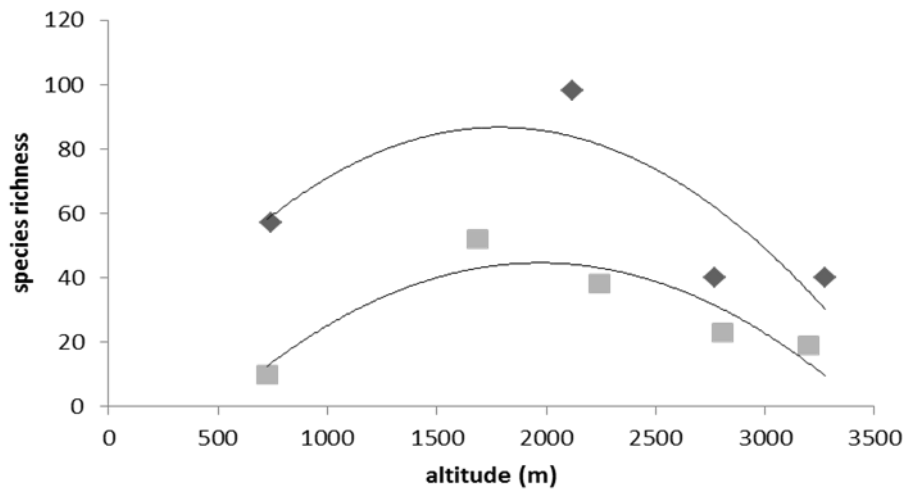


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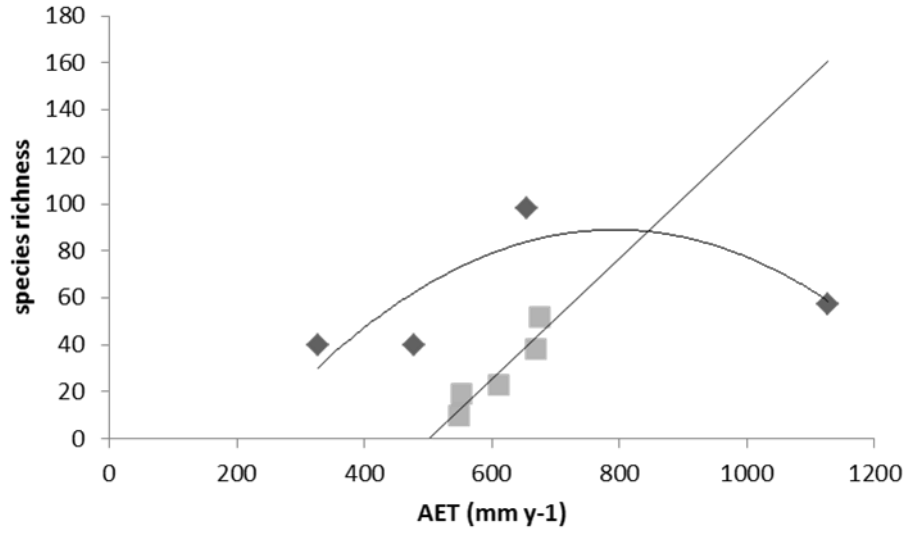


Fig. 3. Relationship between species richness of Aphyllophorales and AET values in two altitudinal gradients, Sierra Norte de Puebla (♦) y Sierra Norte de Oaxaca (□), in Southern Mexico.

**MACROMICETOS LIGNÍCOLAS DE LA SIERRA NORTE DE PUEBLA,  
PUEBLA, MÉXICO; CON NOTAS SOBRE SU DISTRIBUCIÓN ALTITUDINAL.**

**LIGNICOLOUS MACROFUNGI FROM SIERRA NORTE DE PUEBLA, PUEBLA,  
MÉXICO; WITH NOTES ABOUT ITS ALTITUDINAL DISTRIBUTION.**

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**RESUMEN**

Se presenta un listado preliminar de hongos lignícolas de la Sierra Norte de Puebla, Puebla, México. Para ello se realizaron 8 exploraciones entre 2009 y 2010; además de efectuar la revisión de todos los especímenes provenientes del área de estudio, depositados en la Colección de hongos del Herbario de la Escuela Nacional de Ciencias Biológicas, IPN. Se analiza también la distribución altitudinal y por tipo de vegetación de los especímenes encontrados. Un total de 178 especímenes distribuidos en 99 especies fueron encontrados para la zona; 39 son nuevos registros para la región y un espécimen que probablemente sea una nueva especie. Los resultados indican la importancia de continuar realizando inventarios fúngicos para establecer bases confiables para posteriores estudios ecológicos y poder proponer planes de conservación para los hongos lignícolas.

**Palabras clave:** Basidiomycota, Ascomycota, diversidad, altitud.

## ABSTRACT.

We present a preliminary checklist of lignicolous macrofungi from Sierra Norte de Puebla, Puebla, Mexico. For this purpose, we conducted eight field trips during 2009 and 2010, and reviewed all specimens from study area deposited in the mushroom collection of Herbarium of Escuela Nacional de Ciencias Biológicas, IPN. Also, we analyzed altitudinal and for kind of vegetation distribution. A total of 178 specimens distributed in 99 species were recorded for the zone; 39 are new records for the region, and a specimen is probably new specie. Results sign the importance of fungal inventories that could be base for future ecological studies and propose conservation plans for wood decay fungi.

**Key words:** Basidyomicota, Ascomycota, diversity, altitude

## INTRODUCCIÓN

El estado de Puebla se localiza en la región este de México, esta dividido políticamente en 217 municipios de los cuales 40 conforman la región Sierra Norte. Debido a su abrupto gradiente altitudinal y a la consecuente diversidad de condiciones ambientales, la Sierra Norte de Puebla presenta gran diversidad de tipos de vegetación, desde selvas medianas hasta bosques templados y fríos (Martínez et al., 2007).

En el aspecto micológico, la Sierra Norte de Puebla es casi *terra ignota*. Si bien existen numerosos trabajos que reportan especies de hongos para esta región del estado (Chacón & Guzmán, 1983; García Romero et al., 1970; Pérez-Silva, 1973, 1975, 1981; Guzmán &

Herrera, 1971; Guzmán et al., 1975; Bandala-Muñoz et al., 1988; Medel et al., 1999; Medel et al., 2010; Valenzuela et al., 2004; y Valenzuela et al., 2005), los trabajos específicos para la Sierra Norte son escasos. Martínez-Alfaro et al. (1983) realizaron un análisis etnomicológico general; y Vázquez-Mendoza y Valenzuela-Garza (2010) presentaron un listado de los macromicetos presentes en la región de interés. No se encontró ningún trabajo específico respecto a hongos lignícolas para el área de estudio.

Debido a que la Sierra Norte de Puebla se encuentra entre dos áreas de conocida riqueza fúngica: las regiones norte de los estados de Hidalgo y Veracruz (Villaruel-Ordaz y Cifuentes, 2007; Medel et al., 2008; Romero Bautista et al., 2010); se espera que la diversidad de macromicetos en ella sea también alta.

El objetivo del presente estudio es establecer un inventario que sirva como línea basal para los hongos degradadores de madera existentes en la región Sierra Norte del estado de Puebla, a través de generar el listado de especies de estos organismos y presentar algunas notas respecto a su distribución.

## **MATERIAL Y MÉTODO**

Se efectuó la revisión del total de especímenes provenientes del área de estudio depositados en la Colección de hongos del Herbario de la Escuela Nacional de Ciencias Biológicas, IPN. Se corroboraron datos de identificación y/o localidad de los ejemplares. Algunas localidades no pudieron ser georeferenciadas por la ambigüedad de los datos.

Adicionalmente se realizaron ocho salidas de colecta a cuatro localidades en los municipios de Zapotitlán de Méndez, Zacapoaxtla, y Chignahuapan, entre 2009 y 2010. La caracterización morfológica de los ejemplares colectados fue acorde con las técnicas

indicadas por Cifuentes *et al.* (1986). Para la identificación de los especímenes se utilizaron los trabajos de Eriksson *et al.* (1978), Gilbertson y Ryvardeen (1986, 1987), León-Gómez y Pérez-Silva (1988), Marmolejo *et al.* (1981), Ryvardeen y Johansen (1980), y Parmasto (2001). Todos los ejemplares fueron depositados en el herbario antes mencionado.

Por otra parte se registraron datos de vegetación y altitud para los especímenes colectados. Se corroboraron los datos de altitud y vegetación mediante el uso de cartas topográficas para los especímenes de herbario. El intervalo de altitud fue de 500 a 3000 metros, dividido en franjas de 500 metros.

## RESULTADOS

Se analizaron un total de 178 especímenes de hongos lignícolas distribuidos en 99 especies; de éstas 11 pertenecen al Phylum Ascomycota, 87 a Basidiomycota y 1 a Myxomycota. Se reportan 39 nuevos registros para la región norte del estado de Puebla y una probable nueva especie del género *Hymenochaete*, la cual se encuentra en proceso de descripción. Los órdenes mejor representados fueron Polyporales con 37 especies, Hymenochaetales con 15 y Stereales con 8 especies. De igual forma, las familias más representadas fueron Polyporaceae con 33 especies, Hymenochaetaceae con 15 y Stereaceae con 7 especies. Los géneros con mayor número de especies fueron *Hymenochaete*, *Stereum*, *Trametes* y *Trichaptum*, todos con 6 especies cada uno.

El listado de especies de macromicetos lignícolas se presenta con arreglo alfabético. Los siguientes datos se dan para cada espécimen: fecha de colecta, coordenadas geográficas y altitud. El nombre de la localidad se presenta, sólo en los casos en que las coordenadas

geográficas no pudieron obtenerse. Los géneros y especies se reportan siguiendo la clasificación modificada de Kirk et al. (2008). Novedades en distribución de los organismos se indican por: \*= nuevo registro para la región; + = nueva especie.

### **Listado de macromicetos lignícolas presentes en la Sierra Norte de Puebla, México.**

#### **Ascomycota**

#### **Discomycetes,**

#### **Leotiales**

#### **Leotiaceae**

*Leotia lubrica* (Scop.) Pers.

Especímenes examinados: **M. Becerril Cg-3**: 07.11.2009; 19°41'58" N, 98°04'48"W, 2769 m.

#### **Pezizales**

#### **Pyrenomataceae**

\**Scutellinia scutellata* (L.) Lambotte

Especímenes examinados: **N. Martínez Z-33**: 28.11.2009, 19°49'54" N, 97°34'15" W, 2120 m.

*Tarzetta catinus* (Holmsk.) Korf & J.K. Rogers

Especímenes examinados: **S. Vázquez Cg-13**: 08.04.2009; 19°41'58" N, 98°04'48"W, 2769 m.



## **Sarcoscyphaceae**

\**Sarcoscypha aff occidentalis* (Schwein.) Sacc.

Especímenes examinados: **N. Martínez Z-3a**: 28.11.2009, 19°49'54" N, 97°34'15" W,  
2120 m.

\**Sarcoscypha coccinea* (Jacq.) Sacc.

Especímenes examinados: **N. Martínez Z-3**: 28.11.2009, 19°49'54" N, 97°34'15" W, 2120  
m. **S. Vázquez Zx-38**: 28.11.2009, 19°49'54" N, 97°34'15" W, 2120 m.

## **Pyrenomycetes**

### **Xylariales**

#### **Xylariaceae**

\**Daldinia concentrica* (Bolton) Ces. & De Not.

Especímenes examinados: **S. Vázquez Ap-3**: 06.11.2009, 19°54'21" N, 97°37'00" W,  
1469 m.

\**Hypoxylon aff fragiforme*

Especímenes examinados: **S. Vázquez Cg-22**: 08.04.2009; 19°41'58" N, 98°04'48" W,  
2769 m.

*Hypoxylon thouarsianum* (Leveille) Lloyd

Especímenes examinados: **G. Guzmán s.n.**: 06.08.1967, 20°12'16" N, 97°56'55" W, 800  
m.; **S. Vázquez Zx-78**: 13.03.2010, 19°49'54" N, 97°34'15" W, 2120 m.

*Poronia oedipus* (Montagne) Montagne

Especímenes examinados: **G. Guzman 2457**: 23.07.1960, 20°12'16" N, 97°59'09" W,  
1300 m.

*Xylaria cf. corniculata* Sacc.

Especímenes examinados: **N. Martínez Z-26**: 28.11.2009, 19°49'54" N, 97°34'15" W,  
2120 m.

*Xylaria fockei* (Mig.)Cooke

Especímenes examinados: **F. Ventura s.n.**: 31.07.1970, Puente Colorado, cerca de  
Teziutlan a Tlapacoya.

## **Basidiomycota**

### **Hymenomycetes**

#### **Agaricales**

##### **Agaricaceae**

*Cyathus berkeleyanus* (Tulasne) Lloyd

Especímenes examinados: **B. Olivares s.n.**: 04.09.1966, 20°12'16" N, 97°56'55" W, 800  
m.

*Cyathus canna* Lloyd

Especímenes examinados: **G. Guzmán 5401**: 04.09.1966, 20°12'16" N, 97°59'09" W,  
1300 m.

*Cyathus earlei* Lloyd

Especímenes examinados: **R. Cruz s.n.**: 29.07.1963, 20°13'11" N, 97°58'37" W, 900 m.

### **Inocybaceae**

\**Crepidotus mollis* (Schaeff.) Staude

Especímenes examinados: **S. Vázquez Zx-36**: 28.11.2009, 19°49'54" N, 97°34'15" W,  
2120 m.

### **Mycenaceae**

\**Xeromphalina tenuipes* (Schwein.) A.H. Sm.

Especímenes examinados: **N. Martínez Z-25**: 28.11.2009, 19°49'54" N, 97°34'15" W,  
2120 m.

### **Schizophyllaceae**

*Schizophyllum commune* Fr.

Especímenes examinados: **R. Torres s.n.**: 11.1979, 20°10'25" N, 98°03'32" W, 1520 m.;  
**J.G. García 21**: 15.07.1979, 20°12'16" N, 97°59'09" W, 1300 m.; **R. Valenzuela 1290**:  
21.03.1983, 20°12'16" N, 97°59'09" W, 1300 m.; **G. Rodríguez s.n.**: 21.03.1983,  
20°12'16" N, 97°59'09" W, 1300 m.; **S. Vázquez Za34**: 03.10.2009, 20°00'05" N,  
97°43'10" W, 744 m.; **S. Vázquez Za36**: 03.10.2009, 20°00'05" N, 97°43'10" W, 744 m.;  
**S. Vázquez Za83**: 13.03.2010, 20°00'05" N, 97°43'10" W, 744 m.; **S. Vázquez Cg-68**,  
07.11.2009; 19°41'58" N, 98°04'48" W, 2769 m.

## **Strophariaceae**

*Hypholoma fasciculare* (Huds.) P. Kumm

Especímenes examinados: **N. Martínez Z-1**: 28.11.2009, 19°49'54" N, 97°34'15" W, 2120 m.

## **Auriculariales**

### **Auriculariaceae**

\**Auricularia auricula-judae* (Bull.) Quél.

Especímenes examinados: **S. Vázquez Za2**: 03.10.2009, 20°00'05" N, 97°43'10" W, 744 m.; **S. Vázquez Zx-10**: 28.11.2009, 19°49'54" N, 97°34'15" W, 2120 m.; **S. Vázquez Cg-3**: 08.04.2009; 19°41'58" N, 98°04'48" W, 2769 m.

*Auricularia delicata* Fr.

Especímenes examinados: **Vázquez & Palacios 26**: 23.10.1993, 20°00'00" N, 97°43'37" W, 600 m.

*Auricularia fuscosuccinea* (Montagne) Farlow

Especímenes examinados: **Vázquez & Palacios 25**: 23.10.1993, 20°00'00" N, 97°43'37" W, 600 m.

\**Auricularia mesenterica* (Dicks.) Pers.

Especímenes examinados: **S. Vázquez Za32**: 03.10.2009, 20°00'05" N, 97°43'10" W, 744 m.; **S. Vázquez Zx-37**: 28.11.2009, 19°49'54" N, 97°34'15" W, 2120 m.

## **Fistulinales**

### **Fistulinaceae**

*Fistulina radicata* Schw.

Especímenes examinados: **P. Ramírez s.n.:** 10.07.1981, 20°00'44" N, 97°58'50" W, 2100 m.

## **Hymenochaetales**

### **Hymenochaetaceae**

*Coltricia folicola*(Berkeley et Curtis)Murrill

Especímenes examinados: **F. Ventura 1883:** 30.07.1970, Puente Colorado, cerca de Teziutlán a Tlapacoya.

*Coltricia montagnei* (Fr.)Murrill

Especímenes examinados: **G. Guzmán 2177:** sin fecha, 20°12'16" N, 97°59'09" W, 1300 m.; **A. Lerma s.n.:** 16.09.1979, 19°51'00" N, 97°20'46" W, 1900 m.

*Coltricia perennis* (Fr.)Murrill

Especímenes examinados: **H. Ríos s.n.:** 07.1967, 20°12'16" N, 97°59'09" W, 1300 m.; **R. Cruz s.n.:** 29.07.1963, 20°14'06" N, 97°58'01" W, 1400 m.; **Mille s.n.:** 06.08.1967, 20°12'16" N, 97°56'55" W, 800 m.

*Cyclomyces iodinus* (Montagne)Patouillard

Especímenes examinados: **Vázquez & Palacios 10:** 23.10.1993, 20°00'00" N, 97°43'37" W, 600 m.

\**Hydnochaete olivacea* (Schwein.) Banker

Especímenes examinados: **S. Vázquez Zx-82**: 13.03.2010, 19°49'54" N, 97°34'15" W,  
2120 m.

\**Hydnochaete tabacina* (Berk & M.A. Curtis ex Fr.) Ryvarden

Especímenes examinados: **S. Vázquez Zx-50**: 13.03.2010, 19°49'54" N, 97°34'15" W,  
2120 m.

\**Hymenochaete aff jobii* Parmasto

Especímenes examinados: **S. Vázquez Cg-24**: 08.04.2009, 19°41'58" N, 98°04'48" W,  
2769 m.

\**Hymenochaete aff rubiginosa* (Dicks.) Lév.

Especímenes examinados: **S. Vázquez Zx-74**: 13.03.2010, 19°49'54" N, 97°34'15" W,  
2120 m.

*Hymenochaete damicornis* (Link)Lév.

Especímenes examinados: **F. Ventura 1944**: 31.07.1970, Puente Colorado, cerca de  
Teziutlán a Tlapacoya; **F. Ventura 2217**: 28.08.1970, Puente Colorado, cerca de Teziutlán  
a Tlapacoya.

\**Hymenochaete rhabarbarina*(Berk.) Cooke

Especímenes examinados: **S. Vázquez Ap-37**: 31.03.2010, 19°54'21" N, 97°37'00" W,  
1469 m.; **S. Vázquez Zx-51**: 13.03.2010, 19°49'54" N, 97°34'15" W, 2120 m., **S.  
Vázquez Zx-73**: 13.03.2010, 19°49'54" N, 97°34'15" W, 2120 m.

*Hymenochaete rheicolor* (Mont.) Lév.

Especímenes examinados: **A.J. Sharp 3064**: 24.03.1945, 20°10'25" N, 98°03'32" W, 1520 m.

+\**Hymenochaete* sp. Z

Especímenes examinados: **S. Vázquez Zx-77**: 13.03. 2010, 19°49'54" N, 97°34'15" W, 2120 m.

\**Inocutis jamaicensis* Murrill

Especímenes examinados: **S. Vázquez Cg-36**: 07.11.2009, 19°41'58" N, 98°04'48" W, 2769 m.

*Fuscoportia callimorpha* (Lév.) Groppo, Loq.-Leite & Goés-Neto

Especímenes examinados: **S. Vázquez 67**: 30.03.1994, 19°59'38" N, 97°42'53" W, 650m.

\**Phellinus sarcites* (Fr.) Ryvarden

Especímenes examinados: **S. Vázquez Za29**: 03.10.2009, 20°00'05" N, 97°43'10" W, 744 m.; **S. Vázquez Za54**: 13.03.2010, 20°00'05" N, 97°43'10" W, 744 m.; **A.P. Crespo Za3**: 03.10.2009, 20°00'05" N, 97°43'10" W, 744 m.; **S. Vázquez Zx-11**: 28.11.2009, 19°49'54" N, 97°34'15" W, 2120 m.

## **Polyporales**

### **Ganodermataceae**

\**Ganoderma aff lucidum* (W. Curt.:Fr.) Karst

Especímenes examinados: **N. Martínez Z-50**: 28.11.2009, 19°49'54" N, 97°34'15" W,  
2120 m.

*Ganoderma curtisii* (Berkeley) Murrill

Especímenes examinados: **G. Guzmán 2179**: 23.08.1959, Presa de Huauchinango. **G. Guzmán 6040**: 06.08.1967, 20°12'11" N, 97°59'01" W, 1100 m.

### **Gloeophyllaceae**

\**Gloeophyllum mexicanum* (Mont.) Ryv.

Especímenes examinados: **S. Vázquez Cg-35**: 08.04.2009, 19°41'58" N, 98°04'48" W,  
2769 m.

*Gloeophyllum saepiarium* (Wulf.:Fr)Fr.

Especímenes examinados: **Archundia s.n.**: 15.09.1978, 19°51'00" N, 97°20'46" W, 1900  
m.

### **Polyporaceae**

*Antrodia albida* (Fr.) Donk

Especímenes examinados: **R. Valenzuela 1286**: 21.03.1983, 20°12'16" N, 97°59'09" W,  
1300 m.



*Climacocystis borealis* (Fr.)Kotlava & Pouzan

Especímenes examinados: **P. Ramírez 6-12**: 23.07.1981, 19°49'24" N, 97°59'31"W, 2400 m.

*Corioloopsis brunneoleuca* (Berkeley)Ryvarden

Especímenes examinados: **Vázquez & Palacios 28**: 23.10.1993, 20°00'00" N, 97°43'37" W, 600 m.

*Corioloopsis gallica* (Fr.) Ryvarden

Especímenes examinados: **G. Guzmán XP-2352**: 03.08.1960, entre Huauchinango y Nuevo Necaxa.

*Cryptoporus volvatus* (Pk.)Shear

Especímenes examinados: **G. Guzmán s.n.**: 23.08.1959, 20°10'25" N, 98°03'32" W, 1520 m.

*Hexagonia hydnoides* Sw.:Fr.

Especímenes examinados: **G. Guzmán s.n.**: 02.08.1959, 20°12'16" N, 97°59'09" W, 1300 m.; **R. Valenzuela 1285**: 21.03.1983, 20°12'16" N, 97°59'09" W, 1300 m.

*Hydnopolyporus fimbriatus* (Hook in Kunth) O.Fidalgo

Especímenes examinados: **G. Guzmán 2336**: 03.07.1960, 20°12'16" N, 97°56'55" W, 800 m.

*Laetiporus sulphureus* (Bull.:Fr.)Murrill

Especímenes examinados: **P. Velázquez 414**: 22.07.1973, 20°01'00" N, 97°31'25" W,  
1000 m.

*Lentinus crinitus* (L.) Fr.

Especímenes examinados: **G. Guzman s.n.**: 02.08.1959, 20°12'16" N, 97°56'55" W, 800  
m.; **J.L. Ursúa s.n.**: 28.06.1959, 20°12'25" N, 97°58'41" W, 1100 m., **A.Lerma s.n.**:  
16.09.1979, 19°51'00" N, 97°20'46" W, 1900 m.; **S. Vázquez Za39**: 03.10.2009,  
20°00'05" N, 97°43'10" W, 744 m.; **S. Vázquez Ap-41**: 31.03.2010, 19°54'21" N,  
97°37'00" W, 1469 m.

*Lentinus strigosus* Fr.

Especímenes examinados: **G. Guzmán s.n.**: 03.06.1960, 20°12'11" N, 97°59'01" W, 1100  
m.

*Lenzites betulina* (Fr.) Fr.

Especímenes examinados: **G. Rodríguez s.n.**: 21.06.1983, 20°12'16" N, 97°59'09" W,  
1300 m.; **S. Vázquez 84b**: 22.10.1994, 19°54'55" N, 97°37'12" W, 1100 m.

*Polyporus leprieurii* Mont.

Especímenes examinados: **F. Ventura s.n.**: 28.08.1970, Puente Colorado, cerca de  
Teziutlán a Tlapacoya.

\**Postia aff caesia* (Schrad.) P. Karst.

Especímenes examinados: **S. Vázquez Zx-32**: 28.11.2009, 19°49'54" N, 97°34'15" W, 2120 m., **A.P. Crespo Zc-7**: 28.11.2009, 19°49'54" N, 97°34'15" W, 2120 m., **N. Martínez Z-5**: 28.11.2009, 19°49'54" N, 97°34'15" W, 2120 m., **N. Martínez Z-27**: 28.11.2009, 19°49'54" N, 97°34'15" W, 2120 m.

*\*Pereniporia scutellata*

Especímenes examinados: **A.P. Crespo Zc-6**: 28.11.2009, 19°49'54" N, 97°34'15" W, 2120 m.

*Phaeolus schweinitzii* (Fr.) Pat.

Especímenes examinados: **H. Ríos s.n.**: 06.08.1967, 20°12'16" N, 97°59'09" W, 1300 m.; **H. Frías s.n.**: 06.08.1967, 20°12'11" N, 97°59'01" W, 1100 m.

*Pleurotus smithii* Guzmán

Especímenes examinados: **A. Lerma s.n.**: 16.09.1979, 19°51'00" N, 97°20'46" W, 1900 m.

*Polyporus arcularius* Batsch.:Fr.

Especímenes examinados: **R. Valenzuela s.n.**: 21.03.1983, 20°12'16" N, 97°59'09" W, 1300 m.; **G. Guzmán 2183**: 23.08.1954, 20°12'11" N, 97°59'01" W, 1100 m.; **G. Guzmán XP-1998**: 28.06.1959, 20°12'25" N, 97°58'41" W, 1100 m.; **F. Ventura 2218**: 28.06.1970, Puente Colorado, cerca de Teziutlán a Tlapacoya. **F. Ventura 456**: 30.01.1970, 19°51'27" N, 97°20'46" W, 1600 m.

*\*Polyporus aff. arcularius*

Especímenes examinados: **S. Vázquez Za61**: 13.03.2009, 20°00'05" N, 97°43'10" W, 744 m.

*Polyporus tenuiculus* (Beauv.)Fr.

Especímenes examinados: **L. López s.n.**: 07.1966, 20°12'16" N, 97°59'09" W, 1300 m.;  
**Vázquez & Palacios 27**: 23.10.1993, 20°00'00" N, 97°43'37" W, 600 m.

*\*Polyporus tricoloma* Mont.

Especímenes examinados: **S. Vázquez Za16**: 03.10.2009, 20°00'05" N, 97°43'10" W, 744 m.; **S. Vázquez Ap-31**: 31.03.2010, 19°54'21" N, 97°37'00" W, 1469m.

*Rigidoporus microporus* (Fr.)Overheem

Especímenes examinados: **Vázquez & Palacios 11**: 23.10.1993, 20°00'00" N, 97°43'37" W, 600 m.; **Vázquez & Palacios 32**: 24.10.1993, 19°59'49" N, 97°42'24" W, 650 m. **S. Vázquez 98**: 23.10.1994, 20°00'09" N, 97°42'20" W, 650 m.

*Trametes elegans* (Spreng.:Fr.)Fr.

Especímenes examinados: **R. Torres 188**: 23.12.1979, 20°03'27" N, 97°30'14" W, 600 m.; **A.Lerma s.n.**: 16.09.1979, 19°51'00" N, 97°20'46" W, 1900 m.; **S. Vázquez 98-8**: 10.04.1998, 20°00'06" N, 97°42'51" W, 600 m.

*Trametes hirsuta* (Wulf.:Fr.)Pilat.

Especímenes examinados: **G. Rodríguez 1478**: 21.03.1983, 20°12'16" N, 97°59'09" W, 1300 m.

*Trametes maxima* (Montagne) David & Rajchenberg

Especímenes examinados: **F. Brizuela 363**: 25.07.1968, 19°51'55" N, 97°26'56" W, 1800 m.;

*Trametes pavonia* (Hook) Ryvarden

Especímenes examinados: **Vázquez & Palacios 13**: 23.10.1993, 20°00'00" N, 97°43'37" W, 600 m.; **Vázquez & Palacios 33**, 23.10.1993, 19°59'57" N, 97°42'20" W, 650m.

*Trametes versicolor* (L.:Fr.) Pilat

Especímenes examinados: **A.M. Pascoe 1**: 18.12.1965, 20°12'16" N, 97°59'09" W, 1300 m.; **F. Brizuela s.n.**: 25.07.1968, 19°51'55" N, 97°26'56" W, 1800 m.; **S. Vázquez Za1**: 03.10.2009, 20°00'05" N, 97°43'10" W, 744 m.; **N. Martínez Ap-6**: 31.03.2010, 19°54'21" N, 97°37'00" W, 1469 m.; **A.P. Crespo Zc-21**: 13.03.2010, 19°49'54" N, 97°34'15" W, 2120 m., **S. Vázquez Zx-96**: 13.03.2010, 19°49'54" N, 97°34'15" W, 2120 m.; **S. Vázquez Cg-27**: 08.04.2009, 19°41'58" N, 98°04'48" W, 2769 m. **S. Vázquez Cg-66**: 07.11.2009, 19°41'58" N, 98°04'48" W, 2769 m.

*Trametes villosa* (Fr.) Kreisel

Especímenes examinados: **Mille 173**: 06.08.1967, 20°12'16" N, 97°56'55" W, 800 m.; **S. Vázquez Za37**: 03.10.2009, 20°00'05" N, 97°43'10" W, 744 m.; **S. Vázquez Za49**: 13.03.2010, 20°00'05" N, 97°43'10" W, 744 m.

\**Trichaptum abietinum* (Dicks.) Ryvarden

Especímenes examinados: **S. Vázquez Zx-90**: 13.03.2010, 19°49'54" N, 97°34'15" W, 2120 m. **S. Vázquez Cg-43**: 07.11.2009, 19°41'58" N, 98°04'48" W, 2769 m.

\**Trichaptum aff polycystidiatum* (Pilát) Y.C. Dai

Especímenes examinados: **S. Vázquez Zx-13**: 28.11.2009, 19°49'54" N, 97°34'15" W, 2120 m.

*Trichaptum biformis* (Fr. In Kl.) Ryvarden

Especímenes examinados: **A. López s.n.**: 04.09.1966, 20°12'16" N, 97°59'09" W, 1300 m., **G. Guzmán 5398**: 04.09.1966, 20°12'16" N, 97°59'09" W, 1300 m.

\**Trichaptum fuscoviolaceum* (Ehrenb.) Ryvarden

Especímenes examinados: **A.P. Crespo Zc-8**: 28.11.2009, 19°49'54" N, 97°34'15" W, 2120 m.

\**Trichaptum imbricatum* Y.C. Dai & B.K. Cui

Especímenes examinados: **S. Vázquez Zx-13a**: 28.11.2009, 19°49'54" N, 97°34'15" W, 2120 m.

*Trichaptum sector* (Ehrenb.:Fr.) Kreisel

Especímenes examinados: **F. Ventura 451**: 24.01.1970, Puente Colorado, cerca de Teziutlán a Tlapacoya. **F. Ventura 8780**: 06.08.1973, 19°51'08" N, 97°20'08" W, 1500 m.

## Russulales

*Auriscalpium vulgare* S.F.Gray

Especímenes examinados: **Archundia 660**: 12.11.1978, 19°51'00" N, 97°20'46" W, 1900 m.; **S. Vázquez Cg-2**: 08.04.2009, 19°41'58" N, 98°04'48"W, 2769 m.

## Stereales

### Meruliaceae

\**Merulius tomentosus* Burt

Especímenes examinados: **S. Vázquez Ap-33**: 31.03.2010, 19°54'21" N, 97°37'00" W, 1469 m.

### Stereaceae

*Cymatoderma caperatum* (Berk. Et Mont.) Reid

Especímenes examinados: **G. Salinas 13**: 04.09.1966, 20°12'16" N, 97°59'09" W, 1300 m.

\**Stereum aff gausapatum*

Especímenes examinados: **S. Vázquez Cg-4**: 08.04.2009, 19°41'58" N, 98°04'48"W, 2769 m.

\**Stereum aff hirsutum*

Especímenes examinados: **S. Vázquez Zx-99**: 13.03.2010, 19°49'54" N, 97°34'15" W, 2120 m.

*Stereum complicatum* (Fries)Fries

Especímenes examinados: **P. Domínguez 49**: 06.08.1967, 20°12'16" N, 97°59'09" W, 1300 m.; **R. Cruz s.n.**: 29.07.1963, 20°14'06" N, 97°58'01" W, 1400 m.; **G. Guzmán 6034**: 06.08.1967, 20°12'16" N, 97°56'55" W, 800 m.; **G. Guzmán 6038**: 06.08.1967, 20°12'11" N, 97°59'01" W, 1100 m.; **S. Vázquez Ap-2**: 06.11.2009, 19°54'21" N, 97°37'00" W, 1469 m., **S. Vázquez Ap-38**: 31.03.2010, 19°54'21" N, 97°37'00" W, 1469 m., **N. Martínez Ap-1**: 31.03.2010, 19°54'21" N, 97°37'00" W, 1469 m. **S. Vázquez Zx-34**: 28.11.2009, 19°49'54" N, 97°34'15" W, 2120 m. **A.P. Crespo Zc-4**: 28.11.2009, 19°49'54" N, 97°34'15" W, 2120 m., **N. Martínez Z-4**: 28.11.2009, 19°49'54" N, 97°34'15" W, 2120 m. **S. Vázquez Zx-49**: 13.03.2010, 19°49'54" N, 97°34'15" W, 2120 m., **S. Vázquez Zx-85**: 13.03.2010, 19°49'54" N, 97°34'15" W, 2120 m. **S. Vázquez Cg-34**: 08.04.2009, 19°41'58" N, 98°04'48" W, 2769 m.

*Stereum gausapatum* (Fries) Fries

Especímenes examinados: **M.S. Fernández 157**: 09.1967, 20°12'16" N, 97°59'09" W, 1300 m.

*Stereum hirsutum* (Wild:Fr.)S.F.Gray

Especímenes examinados: **R. Cruz s.n.**: 29.07.1963, 20°14'06" N, 97°58'01" W, 1400 m.; **S. Vázquez Cg-25**: 08.04.2009, 19°41'58" N, 98°04'48" W, 2769 m.

\**Stereum rosea*

Especímenes examinados: **S. Vázquez Cg-5**: 08.04.2009, 19°41'58" N, 98°04'48" W, 2769 m.



## Thelephorales

### Phanerochaetaceae

\**Terana coerulea* (Lam.) Kuntze

Especímenes examinados: **S. Vázquez Ap-5**: 06.11.2009, 19°54'21" N, 97°37'00" W, 1469 m.; **S. Vázquez Zx-70**: 13.03.2010, 19°49'54" N, 97°34'15" W, 2120 m.

\**Byssomerulius corium* (Pers.) Ginns

Especímenes examinados: **N. Martínez Z-14**: 28.11.2009, 19°49'54" N, 97°34'15" W, 2120 m., **S. Vázquez Zx-53**: 13.03.2010, 19°49'54" N, 97°34'15" W, 2120 m., **S. Vázquez Zx-61**: 13.03.2010, 19°49'54" N, 97°34'15" W, 2120 m., **A.P. Crespo Zc18**: 13.03.2010, 19°49'54" N, 97°34'15" W, 2120 m.

\**Phanerochaetaceae aff sulphurina*

Especímenes examinados: **S. Vázquez Cg-29**: 08.04.2009, 19°41'58" N, 98°04'48" W, 2769 m.

\**Phanerochaete cremea* (Bres.) Parmasto

Especímenes examinados: **S. Vázquez Zx-16**: 28.11.2009, 19°49'54" N, 97°34'15" W, 2120 m. **A.P. Crespo Zc-3**: 28.11.2009, 19°49'54" N, 97°34'15" W, 2120 m., **N. Martínez Z-28**: 28.11.2009, 19°49'54" N, 97°34'15" W, 2120 m.

## Tricholomatales

### Cyphellaceae

*Campanophyllum proboscideum* (Fr.) Cifuentes & R.H. Peterson comb. nov.

Especímenes examinados: **S. Vázquez Za50**: 13.03.2009, 20°00'05" N, 97°43'10" W, 744 m.

## **Mycenaceae**

*Mycena leaina* (Berk)Sacc.

Especímenes examinados: **G. Guzmán s.n.**: sin fecha, cerca de Huauchinango

## **Tricholomataceae**

\**Clitocybe geotropa* (Bull.) Quéf.

Especímenes examinados: **S. Vázquez Za-53**: 13.03.2009, 20°00'05" N, 97°43'10" W, 744 m.

*Clitocybe gibba* (Pers.) P. Kumm

Especímenes examinados: **P. Ramírez 4-7**: 25.06.1981, San José Atzintlimaya, 17 km S Chignahuapan

## **Phragmobasidiomycetes**

### **Tremellales**

#### **Tremellaceae**

\**Tremella aff mesenterica*

Especímenes examinados: **S. Vázquez Cg-48**: 07.11.2009, 19°41'58" N, 98°04'48" W, 2769 m.

*Tremella lutescens*Fr.

Especímenes examinados: **R. Castañeda s.n.:** sin fecha, 20°14'19" N, 98°12'43" W, 2096 m.

\**Tremella mesenterica* Schaeff.

Especímenes examinados: **N. Martínez Z-24:** 28.11.2009, 19°49'54" N, 97°34'15" W, 2120 m. **S. Vázquez Zx-3:** 28.11. 2009, 19°49'54" N, 97°34'15" W, 2120 m. **S. Vázquez Cg-1:** 08.04.2009, 19°41'58" N, 98°04'48" W, 2769 m.

## **Myxomycota**

### **Myxomycetes**

#### **Liceales**

\**Lycogala epidendrum* (J.C. Buxb. ex L.) Fr.

Especímenes examinados: **S. Vázquez Za3:** 03.10. 2009, 20°00'05" N, 97°43'10" W, 744 m.; **S. Vázquez Zx-15:** 28.11.2009, 19°49'54" N, 97°34'15" W, 2120 m.

La distribución altitudinal de los hongos muestra dos puntos máximos de riqueza específica, lo que parece indicar un patrón cuadrático de la misma (Figura 1).

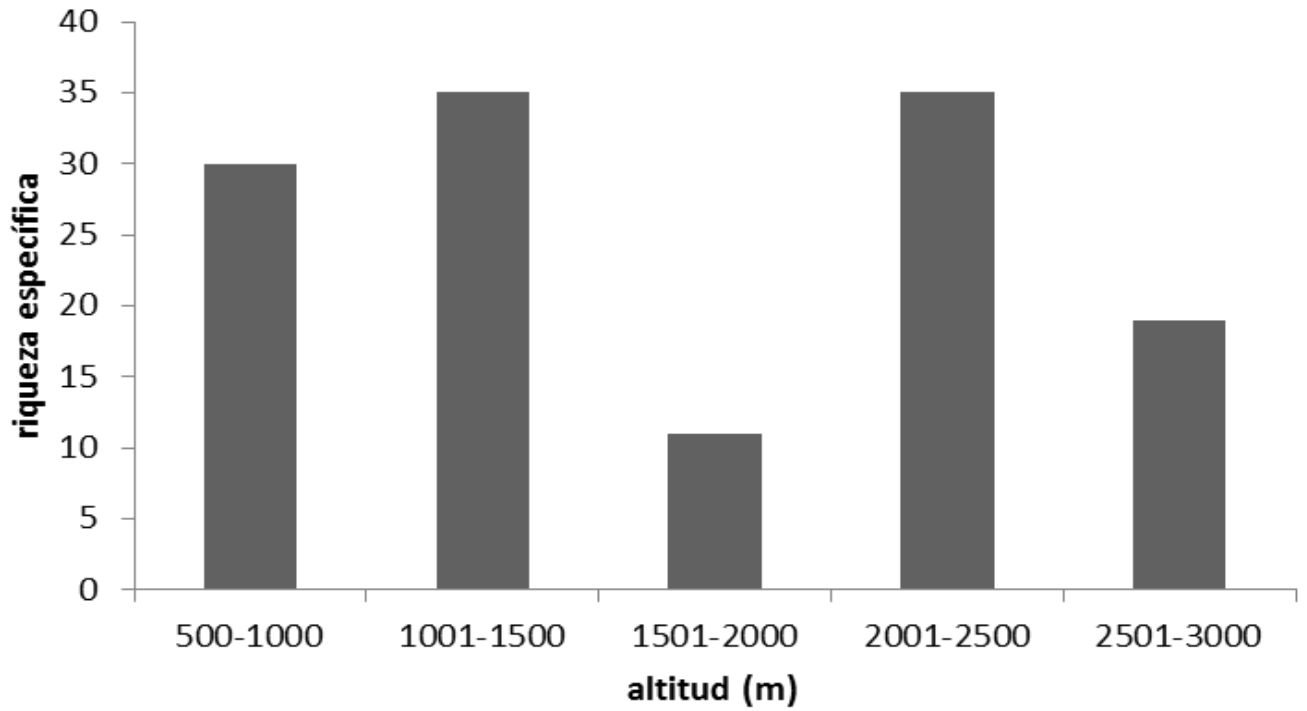


Figura 1. Distribución altitudinal para las especies de hongos lignícolas en la Sierra Norte de Puebla.

Por otra parte, el análisis de distribución por tipo de vegetación muestra un mayor número de especies en los bosques templados, seguido por los bosques tropicales caducifolios (Figura 2).

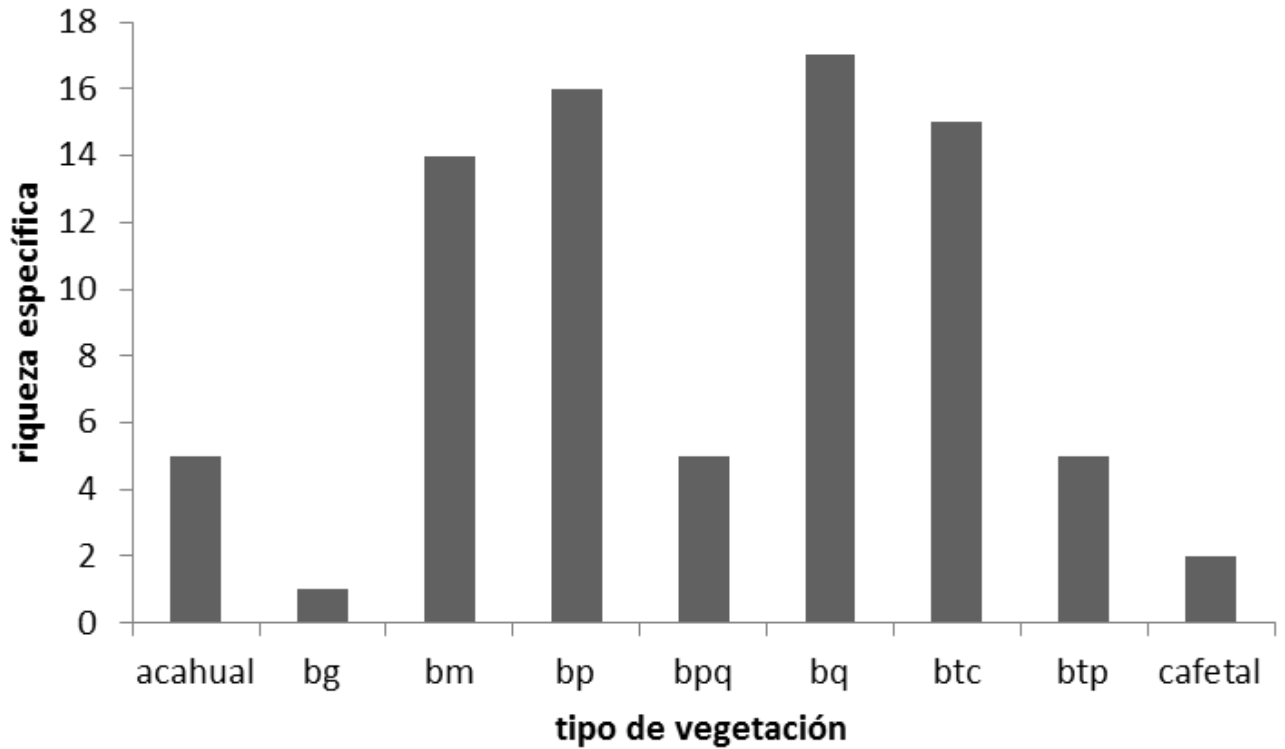


Figura 2. Distribución por tipo de vegetación de los hongos lignícolas en Sierra Norte de Puebla. bg: bosque de galería, bm: bosque mesófilo, bp: bosque de pino, bpq: bosque de pino encino, bq: bosque de encino, btc: bosque tropical caducifolio, btp: bosque tropical perennifolio.

## DISCUSIÓN

La Sierra Norte de Puebla presenta una alta diversidad fúngica, similar a la reportada para las áreas vecinas de los estados de Hidalgo y Veracruz (Romero et al., 2010; Vázquez-Mendoza y Valenzuela-Garza, 2010). Los órdenes mejor representados fueron similares a los reportados para otras regiones del país, tanto en familias como número de especies (Salinas-Salgado et al., 2012). El reporte de una nueva especie y los 39 nuevos registros para la región, señalan la importancia de incrementar las exploraciones micológicas para

complementar los inventarios fúngicos, en especial si se considera que estos reportes provienen de los especímenes colectados en campo.

El análisis altitudinal parece mostrar un patrón cuadrático, aunque es necesario incrementar el esfuerzo de colecta en especial en la franja entre 1500 y 2000 msnm, para establecer el patrón real. La tendencia mostrada, es contraria a lo reportado para otros grupos de organismos donde se observan patrones monotónicos negativos (Navarro, 1992; Jacquemyn et al., 2005). Lo anterior señala diferencias entre la distribución altitudinal de los hongos lignícolas con respecto a otros taxa. Al no considerarse estas diferencias en los distintos planes de conservación, se estarían dejando fuera de ellos a grupos tan importantes y altamente diversos como son los hongos lignícolas.

La distribución por tipo de vegetación muestra una mayor riqueza específica en bosques templados, concordante con lo reportado por Vázquez-Mendoza y Valenzuela-Garza (2010) para macromicetos en general para la misma región de Puebla. La distribución parece estar influida por las condiciones tanto bióticas como climáticas de estos bosques. Sin embargo, será necesario implementar protocolos de colecta a futuro que consideren estos factores (diversidad de hospederos, factores climáticos) y así tener una mejor visión de los patrones de distribución de los organismos, que nos ayuden a establecer medidas adecuadas de conservación de los mismos.

## CONCLUSIÓN

En conclusión, es necesario aumentar el número de trabajos sobre investigación básica (inventarios, distribución, etc.) para los hongos lignícolas en el estado de Puebla. El desconocimiento de estos aspectos para los recursos presentes en una región, en este caso

hongos degradadores de madera, dificulta la propuesta y aplicación de planes de aprovechamiento y conservación. Se hace imperante desarrollar estudios ecológicos que permitan tratar de entender los patrones de distribución de las especies, en especial si se busca establecer programas de conservación a largo plazo.

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## CONCLUSIONES

La riqueza específica de macromicetos presentan una distribución altitudinal dependiente de factores climáticos: temperatura y precipitación.

Se demuestra la influencia de cada gradiente sobre la distribución altitudinal de los macromicetos.

El patrón de distribución mostrado por los macromicetos con respecto a la altitud muestra un punto máximo de riqueza específica en altitudes intermedias del gradiente.

Este patrón es similar al propuesto por el modelo de joroba, probablemente debido la influencia de los factores climáticos.

Factores que conjuntan el efecto de temperatura y precipitación, específicamente la evapotranspiración actual (AET), muestran ser buenos predictores de la distribución altitudinal de la riqueza específica de los macromicetos en general y de los Aphylophorales en particular.

Es necesario seguir desarrollando estudios respecto a la distribución altitudinal de los hongos que nos permitan tratar de llegar a establecer patrones ecológicos generales para los diversos grupos de hongos.

A pesar de la falta de material de referencia, la identificación de los especímenes nos permite señalar 39 nuevos registros para la región norte de Puebla, así como 3 probables nuevas especies: 2 encontradas en Puebla (un Hymenochaete y un Xylarial); y una en Oaxaca que incluso sea un nuevo género.

En este sentido los estudios realizados permitieron incrementar el conocimiento de la diversidad fúngica en las áreas de estudio, especialmente en el norte del estado de Puebla, determinándose el uso etnomedicinal de algunas especies; o el descubrimiento de nuevos hospederos en regiones áridas para especies comunes de hongos que abren la posibilidad de nuevos aprovechamientos.

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