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# Effect of *Neotyphodium* endophyte infection on growth and leaf gas exchange of Arizona fescue under contrasting water availability regimes

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## Abstract

We assessed how *Neotyphodium* infection influenced the biomass production and growth of Arizona fescue (*Festuca arizonica* Vasey), a dominant understory grass in Ponderosa pine (*Pinus ponderosa*) forests of the southwest USA, by growing potted infected (E+) and uninfected (E−) plants under a high and a low water availability regime for 87 days. We measured growth analysis parameters, leaf net photosynthesis ( $P_n$ ), chlorophyll fluorescence parameters, conductance to water vapor ( $g_1$ ) and water potential ( $\Psi$ ), to provide explanations for differences in biomass production under these treatments. Under high water availability, E− plants produced more biomass and had greater relative growth rates (RGR; rate of biomass gain per biomass); higher RGR of E− plants was correlated with higher  $P_n$  as well as production of less dense, presumably thinner leaves, which provided more leaf area per leaf biomass, and greater LAR (leaf area ratio; leaf area per total plant biomass). Under low water availability, E+ plants produced more aboveground biomass and had greater RGR; higher RGR of E+ plants was correlated with higher net assimilation rates, as well as production of less dense, leaves and greater LAR. Infected plants tended to have lower midday  $P_n$  and  $g_1$  in both water availability regimes. Lower  $P_n$  in E+ plants appeared primarily due to stomatal, rather than biochemical, limitations to photosynthesis. When a more severe water stress was imposed in the low water availability treatment over the last 61 days of the experiment, E+ plants tended to have higher midday  $P_n$  and  $g_1$ . Infected plants also tended to have less negative leaf  $\Psi$  regardless of water availability regime. Lower  $g_1$  and transpirational losses of E+ plants probably conserved soil moisture, such that when a more severe water stress was subsequently imposed, higher soil moisture availability allowed E+ plants to maintain higher  $P_n$  and  $g_1$ . *Neotyphodium* infection appears beneficial to Arizona fescue performance under low water availability and detrimental under ample water availability.

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## 1. Introduction

Fungal endophytes have been defined as fungi that live for a significant part of their life cycle

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internally and asymptotically (without causing any apparent tissue damage) in plants (Saikkonen et al., 1998). They are ubiquitous in vascular plants, usually occurring in aboveground organs, but occasionally in roots, where they differ from mycorrhizae in that they lack external hyphae or mantles (Wilson, 1995; Saikkonen et al., 1998).

Endophytes of the genus *Neotyphodium* (Morgan-Jones and Gams) are obligate seed-borne fungi that commonly form intercellular infections in leaves, culms and inflorescences in many cool-season grasses in the subfamily Pooidaceae (Schardl et al., 1997). The influence of *Neotyphodium* spp. infection has been most extensively studied in *Festuca arundinacea* Schreb. (tall fescue), a selectively bred, agronomic grass from Eurasia that has been widely planted for pasture and turf in North America. This *Neotyphodium*-grass interaction is generally considered mutualistic (Clay, 1988, 1990), with infection generally enhancing host plant herbivore and pest resistance, and vegetative growth, reproduction, and drought tolerance (Clay, 1987; Arachevaleta et al., 1989; Cheplick, et al., 1989; Clay, 1990; Hill et al., 1991; West et al., 1993, 1995; Elmi and West, 1995; Hill et al., 1996). The suite of benefits conferred by *Neotyphodium* infections often result in high frequencies in pastures within a few years (Clay, 1988). As the endophyte is strictly seed borne, but infections can be lost from seeds (Siegel et al., 1984), high frequencies can only be maintained if the interaction is mutualistic (Clay, 1988; but see Faeth, 2002). However, exceptions to this generalization have been found in this *Neotyphodium*-grass system (White et al., 1992; Elbersen and West, 1996; Hill et al., 1996). In the case of another reasonably well studied *Neotyphodium*-infected pasture and turf grass, *Lolium perenne* L. (perennial ryegrass), the effects of infection on the host plant appear more variable (Cheplick et al., 1989; Clay, et al., 1993; Barker et al., 1997; Cheplick, et al., 2000). The endophyte does not appear to confer drought resistance (Cheplick et al., 2000). Increasingly evidence suggests that *Neotyphodium*-grass interactions depend on environmental conditions (Siegel, 1993; West, 1994; Marks and Clay, 1996; Saikkonen et al., 1998; Faeth and Fagan, 2002), as well as

plant genotype (Elbersen and West, 1996; Hill et al., 1996; Marks and Clay, 1996; Cheplick, 1997; Cheplick et al., 2000).

Far less is known about the influence of *Neotyphodium* infections on wild populations of native grasses, especially in terms of drought resistance (e.g. Faeth, 2002). *Festuca arizonica* Vasey (Arizona fescue) is a native perennial bunchgrass, that is widespread in semi-arid ponderosa pine (*Pinus ponderosa*)/grassland communities above 2000 m elevation in the southwest USA (Kearney and Peebles, 1960). *Neotyphodium* infection frequencies in wild populations of Arizona fescue are usually high. Schulthess and Faeth (1998) sampled five populations of Arizona fescue in north-central Arizona and found that, on average, 90% of plants were infected with *Neotyphodium*. Other surveys show the frequency of infected plants in Arizona fescue populations ranges from 50 to 100% (Schulthess and Faeth, 1998; Saikkonen et al., 1999). Despite high frequencies, however, the infection by asexual *Neotyphodium* does not appear to benefit the host, as predicted for asexual symbionts (Wilkinson and Schardl, 1997; Law, 1985; Ewald, 1994). For example, infected Arizona fescue is not more resistant to invertebrate (Lopez et al., 1995; Saikkonen et al., 1999; Tibbets and Faeth, 1999) or vertebrate herbivores (Saikkonen et al., 1999). Therefore, we tested the alternative hypothesis that *Neotyphodium* affects Arizona fescue growth differently depending on water availability. Water availability should be a particularly important factor for Arizona fescue because it inhabits semi-arid regions subjected to prolonged seasonal and yearly droughts.

In this study we assessed how *Neotyphodium* infection influenced the biomass production and growth of Arizona fescue under two contrasting water availability regimes. We measured traditional growth analysis parameters, in combination with leaf net photosynthesis, chlorophyll fluorescence parameters, conductance to water vapor and water potential, to provide explanations for differences in biomass production and relative growth rates. Based on previous findings with the congeneric tall fescue, we predicted that *Neotyphodium*-infected (E+) Arizona fescue should

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134 produce more biomass and have faster relative  
135 growth rates than uninfected (E–) plants, and this  
136 effect would be most pronounced when water was  
137 more limiting.

## 138 2. Materials and methods

### 139 2.1. Plant material

140 Several naturally growing Arizona fescue plants  
141 were collected from Merritt Draw (34°49'N,  
142 111°17'W; 2500 m elevation) in the Coconino  
143 National Forest of north-central Arizona in fall  
144 1999, potted and transported to Arizona State  
145 University. *Neotyphodium* infection status of  
146 plants was determined with a modified tissue print  
147 immunoblotting (Gwinn et al., 1991; Schulthess  
148 and Faeth, 1998). At least two species of *Neoty-*  
149 *phodium* have been described from Arizona fescue  
150 (An et al., 1992; White et al., 1993). Based on  
151 anatomical features and microsatellite DNA (Sul-  
152 livan and Faeth, 2001), the *Neotyphodium* in our  
153 plants most closely resembled *Neotyphodium star-*  
154 *rii* Morgan-Jones and Gams. One randomly  
155 chosen E+ and one E– plant were each split  
156 into 24 plants of two to four 4 tillers on 12  
157 November 1999 and replanted in individual square  
158 pots (14 cm wide × 13 cm tall) in native soil  
159 (Broliar stony clay loam). Plants were fertilized  
160 with Stern's Miracle Grow (Port Washington, NY,  
161 USA), and allowed to establish in a greenhouse,  
162 where the temperatures were maintained at 22 °C/  
163 18 °C (day/night), and supplemental light was  
164 provided for 18 h each day. Soils were watered  
165 to field capacity three times a week.

### 166 2.2. Treatments

167 When we began our experiment, on 29 January  
168 2000, pots were transferred to an unshaded area  
169 outdoors. Prior to beginning the treatments, eight  
170 randomly chosen E+ and E– plants were har-  
171 vested to assess initial biomass. Another eight  
172 randomly chosen E+ and E– plants were each  
173 randomly assigned to one of two water treatments:  
174 high water availability (HW; watered three times a  
175 week to field capacity; ≈ 300 ml), and low water

176 availability (LW; watered once a week to field  
177 capacity). We recognize that our experimental  
178 design does not control for plant or endophyte  
179 genotype, which may influence growth etc. (e.g.  
180 Meijer and Leuchtman, 2001; Cheplick et al.,  
181 2000). However our experiment is the first test, to  
182 our knowledge, of the effect of *Neotyphodium*  
183 influence on growth and detailed physiological  
184 parameters in a native grass. We monitored leaf  
185 gas-exchange,  $\Psi$ , and plant growth over 87 days.  
186 On the 26th day of the experiment (24 February  
187 2000), the LW treatment, for all plants, was  
188 modified from watering once a week to once every  
189 other week to impose more severe water stress.

### 2.3. Biomass production and growth 190

191 The effect of endophyte infection and water  
192 stress on biomass production and growth para-  
193 meters was determined over the 87-day period. At  
194 the end of the period, plants were divided into  
195 roots and aboveground parts, and soil was washed  
196 from roots by hand. Specific leaf mass (SLM) was  
197 determined on a subsample of each plant (contain-  
198 ing about 25% of the total leaves) using a leaf area  
199 meter (Decagon Devices, Pullman, WA, USA).  
200 Biomasses of E+ or E– plants at the initial  
201 harvest were randomly paired with respective E+  
202 or E– plants at the final harvest, and the relative  
203 growth rate (RGR; rate of biomass gain per  
204 biomass) and net assimilation rate (NAR; rate of  
205 biomass gain per leaf area) of each plant was  
206 estimated using the equations in Xiong et al.  
207 (2000), following Hunt (1990). (LAR; leaf area  
208 per total plant biomass), leaf mass ratio (LMR;  
209 leaf biomass per total plant biomass), and root:-  
210 shoot biomass ratio (R:S) were also calculated.

### 2.4. Leaf gas exchange, chlorophyll fluorescence and water potential 211

212 Rates of net photosynthesis ( $P_n$ ) and transpira-  
213 tion ( $E$ ) of one group of leaves on each plant were  
214 measured at midday (1100–1400 h) on 11 dates  
215 during the experiment. These measurements were  
216 made at midday because we suspected that water  
217 limitation treatment effects should be greatest at  
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219 this time. Measurements were made 1–2 days after  
 220 watering the HW treatment on a sunny day using a  
 221 closed infra-red gas analyzer (IRGA) system (LI-  
 222 6200, Li-COR, Lincoln, NE, USA). The three to  
 223 five longest, completely green leaves on a plant  
 224 were held parallel in the chamber for measure-  
 225 ments. The CO<sub>2</sub> concentration of air entering the  
 226 chamber ( $c_a$ ) ranged from 391 to 420 ppm over the  
 227 experiment, but was maintained within 25 ppm  
 228 over a given sampling date. Air temperature  
 229 during measurements ranged from 22–26 °C in  
 230 January and February to 28–30 °C in March and  
 231 April. Leaf temperature in the cuvette during  
 232 measurements ranged from 22–27 °C in January  
 233 and February to 27–31 °C in March and April.  
 234 Net photosynthesis, leaf conductance to water  
 235 vapor ( $g_l$ ), and the intercellular CO<sub>2</sub> concentra-  
 236 tion ( $c_i$ ) were calculated using the equation of von  
 237 Caemmerer and Farquhar (1981), and instanta-  
 238 neous water use efficiency (WUE) was calculated  
 239 as  $P_n/E$  in the chamber. Leaf water potential ( $\Psi$ )  
 240 was measured after each gas-exchange measure-  
 241 ment using a pressure chamber (Model 1003,  
 242 PMS, Corvallis, OR, USA) on one of the leaves  
 243 used in the gas-exchange measurements. The leaf  
 244 was cut 6 cm from its tip. We also measured the  
 245 gravimetric moisture content of soil in each pot  
 246 during the final plant harvest. A soil core (2.2-cm  
 247 diameter  $\times$  10-cm deep) was extracted from along  
 248 the edge of each pot, dried at 100 °C for 72 h, and  
 249 weighed.

250 To assess the relative importance of stomatal  
 251 and biochemical limitations to  $P_n$  under our  
 252 treatments, we measured the  $P_n$ - $c_i$  response curves  
 253 of four plants from each treatment during the  
 254 37th–41st days of the experiment. Response  
 255 curves were assessed on two randomly chosen  
 256 plants (one E+ and one E-) from the HW  
 257 treatment on 6 March and again on 8 March,  
 258 and on two randomly chosen plants (one E+ and  
 259 one E-) from the LW treatment on 9 March and  
 260 again on 10 March. Curves were generated by  
 261 measuring  $P_n$  of three to five leaves in a chamber  
 262 over a series of ambient CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations (45–  
 263 1600 ppm) using an open IRGA system (LI-6400,  
 264 Li-COR) and a CO<sub>2</sub>-injector system (6400-01, Li-  
 265 COR). Air temperature in the chamber was  
 266 maintained at 29 °C, and a metal-halide lamp

(1000 W, Crawfordsville, IN, USA) provided 1200  
 267  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  photosynthetically active radiation 268  
 269 (PAR; 400–700 nm) at the plant surface, as  
 270 measured with a quantum sensor (LI-190SA, Li-  
 271 COR). Leaf temperatures ranged from 29 to 271  
 272 30 °C during measurements. This temperature  
 273 was near optimal and this PAR was saturating  
 274 for photosynthesis based on preliminary tempera-  
 275 ture and light response curve results. The equation  
 276  $(P_a - P_n)/P_o$ , where  $P_o$  is the photosynthetic rate at  
 277 a  $c_i$  of 360 ppm and  $P_a$  is the rate at a  $c_a$  of 360  
 278 ppm, was used to estimate the relative stomatal  
 279 limitation ( $I_s$ ) to photosynthesis (Farquhar and  
 280 Sharkey, 1982). The apparent carboxylation effi-  
 281 ciency of ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase/  
 282 oxygenase (Rubisco) was estimated from the initial  
 283 slope of the linear portion of the  $P_n$ - $c_i$  response  
 284 using the program in Photosyn Assistant (Dundee  
 285 Scientific, Dundee, Scotland, UK).

286 To further assess biochemical limitations to  $P_n$ ,  
 287 we also measured chlorophyll *a* fluorescence  
 288 parameters using a pulse amplitude modulated  
 289 fluorometer (OS-500, OPTI-Sciences, Haverhill,  
 290 MA, USA). On three sunny days in March (1, 4  
 291 and 22 March), we measured midday effective or  
 292 light-adapted quantum yield of PSII (photosystem  
 293 II) electron transfer ( $\Phi_{\text{PSII}}$ ), along with the poten-  
 294 tial quantum yield or ratio of variable to maximal  
 295 fluorescence ( $F_v/F_m$ ), on eight plants in each  
 296 treatment. For measurements, the end of the  
 297 fiber-optic probe was held at a 40° angle about  
 298 0.5 cm from a group of fully expanded leaves that  
 299 were held parallel with a leaf clip. Weak modu-  
 300 lated light ( $0.2 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  PAR) and a  
 301 saturating pulse ( $11\,000 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  PAR)  
 302 were used to induce  $F'_o$  and  $F'_m$ , respectively. We  
 303 averaged four measurements from each plant to  
 304 estimate  $\Phi_{\text{PSII}}$ , which was calculated according to  
 305 Genty et al. (1989), and measured eight plants  
 306 within each treatment combination. Thereafter, we  
 307 shaded one group of leaves on each plant for 20  
 308 min, using the leaf clip, and measured  $F_v/F_m$ .

### 2.5. Statistical analyses

310 Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to  
 311 examine endophyte and water availability treat-  
 312 ment effects on biomass production and growth

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parameters, and least significant difference tests were used to compare among individual treatment means. Repeated-measures multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) tests were used to examine treatment and sampling date effects on  $P_n$ ,  $g_1$ ,  $c_i$ , WUE, and  $\Psi$  over the experiment (SYSTAT, 2000). All data sets satisfied the assumptions of ANOVA based on homogeneity of variances, normality of errors, and independence of errors.

### 3. Results

#### 3.1. Biomass production and growth

To account for differences in initial size of the plants, we assessed biomass production by calculating the percentage change in biomass over the 87-days treatment period, relative to that of plants at our initial harvest. Biomass at the initial harvest averaged 10.04 g ( $\pm 1.6924$  S.D.). Not surprisingly, water availability had a significant effect on total (above- and belowground) relative biomass production, with plants under LW producing less biomass (Fig. 1A). Although endophyte infection did not have a significant overall effect on total biomass, E+ plants produced less total biomass than E– plants under high water availability.

Treatment effects on aboveground biomass production followed similar trends, but were more pronounced than those on total biomass production. Water availability interacted with infection; E– plants produced more aboveground biomass than E+ plants under high water availability, whereas at LW E+ plants produced more aboveground biomass (Fig. 1C). In contrast, there were no significant effects on belowground biomass production (Fig. 1E) or on R:S ratio ( $P > 0.05$ ; data not shown). Trends in RGR (calculated using total biomass values) paralleled those of total biomass production, and results are not shown. Water availability affected RGR (ANOVA;  $P < 0.05$ ), with plants under LW having lower RGR (LSD,  $P < 0.05$ ). Although infection did not have an overall effect on RGR (ANOVA,  $P = 0.12$ ), E– plants had a greater RGR under high water availability (LSD,  $P < 0.05$ ; data not shown). Water availability interacted with infec-

tion on NAR, although at both water availabilities, E+ plants had a greater NAR than E– plants (Fig. 1B). Water availability also interacted with infection on LAR, with E– plants having greater LAR than E+ plants under high water availability, whereas under LW the E+ plants had greater LAR (Fig. 1D). We further assessed allocation to leaves by examining LMR; water availability did not affect LMR ( $P > 0.05$ ; data not shown). Water availability interacted with infection to affect SLM (Fig. 1F). Under high water availability, the E+ plants had greater SLM, whereas under LW, the E– plants had greater SLM.

#### 3.2. Leaf gas exchange, chlorophyll fluorescence and water potential

Infection affected midday  $P_n$ . Comparing means on individual sampling dates, E– plants had higher  $P_n$  on seven of 11 dates under high water availability, and on 6 of 11 dates under LW (Fig. 2A and B). The exception to this trend was the last two sampling dates, after a more severe LW treatment was imposed, then the E+ plants had higher  $P_n$  rates than E– plants under LW (Fig. 2B).

Consistent with trends of  $P_n$ , infection affected midday  $g_1$ . Non-infected plants had greater  $g_1$  than E+ plants on eight of 11 sampling dates under high water availability, and five of 11 dates under LW (Fig. 2C and D). As was the case with  $P_n$ , on the last two sampling dates, after a more severe LW treatment had been imposed, E+ plants had a higher  $g_1$  than E– plants (Fig. 2D).

Water availability interacted with infection for  $c_i$  (Fig. 2E and F). The most apparent trend was in the LW treatment, where E+ plants tended to have a higher  $c_i$  than E– plants, although these differences were significant on only four of 11 sampling dates.

Water use efficiency followed a trend similar to that of  $P_n$  and  $g_1$ . Uninfected plants tended to have a higher WUE than E+ plants, although these differences were significant on only a few sampling dates (Fig. 3A and B). Infected plants had a higher

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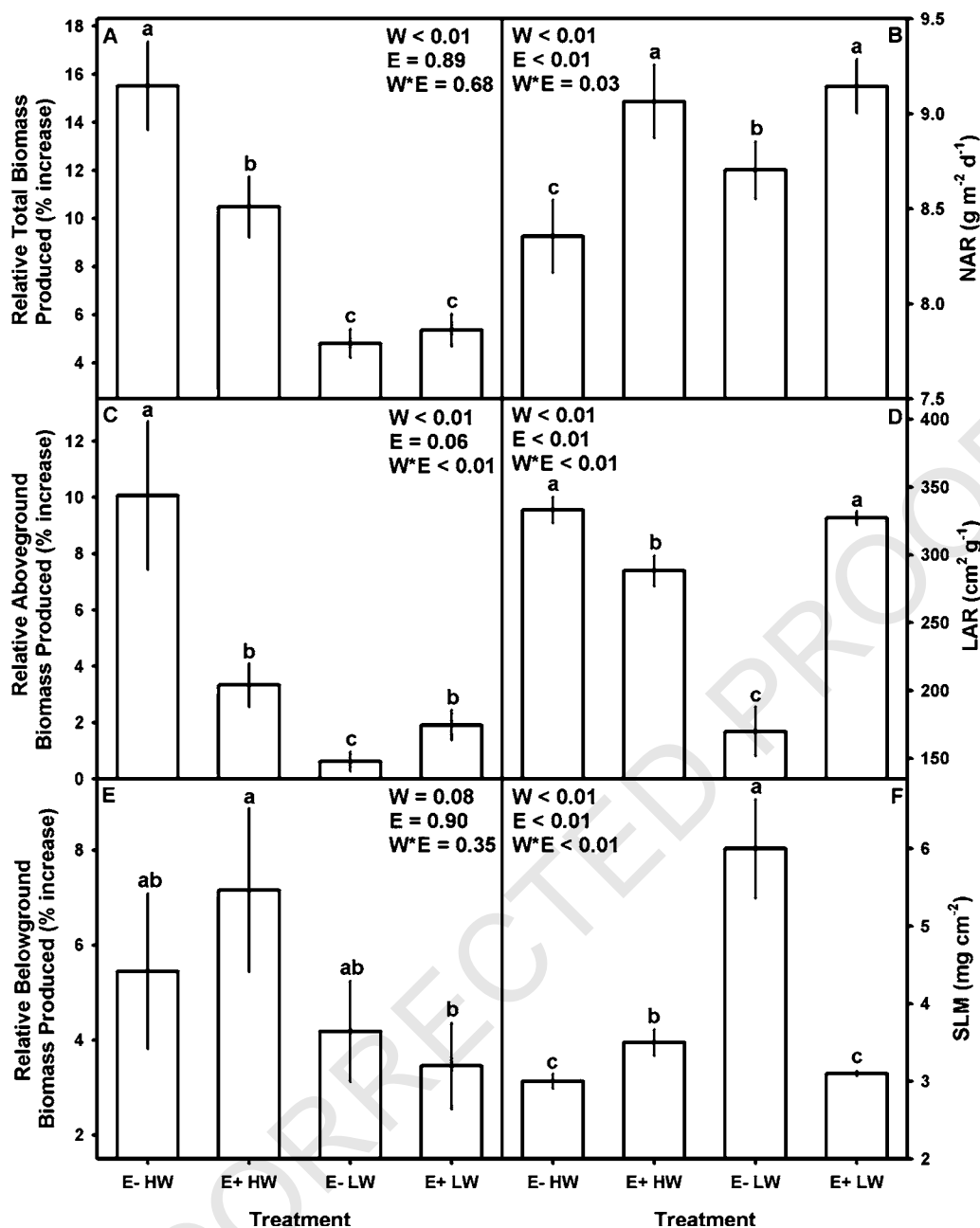


Fig. 1. Relative total (A), aboveground (C), and belowground (E) biomass, (NAR; B), (LAR; D), and (SLM; F) of uninfected (E–) and infected (E+) Arizona fescue grown at high (HW) or LW. The  $P$ -values for water availability (W), infection (E), and water availability  $\times$  infection effects, based on two-way ANOVA, are shown in the upper right or left of each panel. Values are means ( $\pm$ S.E.) of eight replicates. Different letters indicate means are significantly different ( $P < 0.05$ ).

401 WUE than E– plants in the LW treatment on one  
 402 of the two sample dates, after the low water  
 403 treatment had been made more severe (Fig. 3B).

404 Water availability and infection affected leaf  $\Psi$   
 405 (Fig. 3C and D). As expected, leaf  $\Psi$  tended to be  
 406 more negative under the LW treatment, especially

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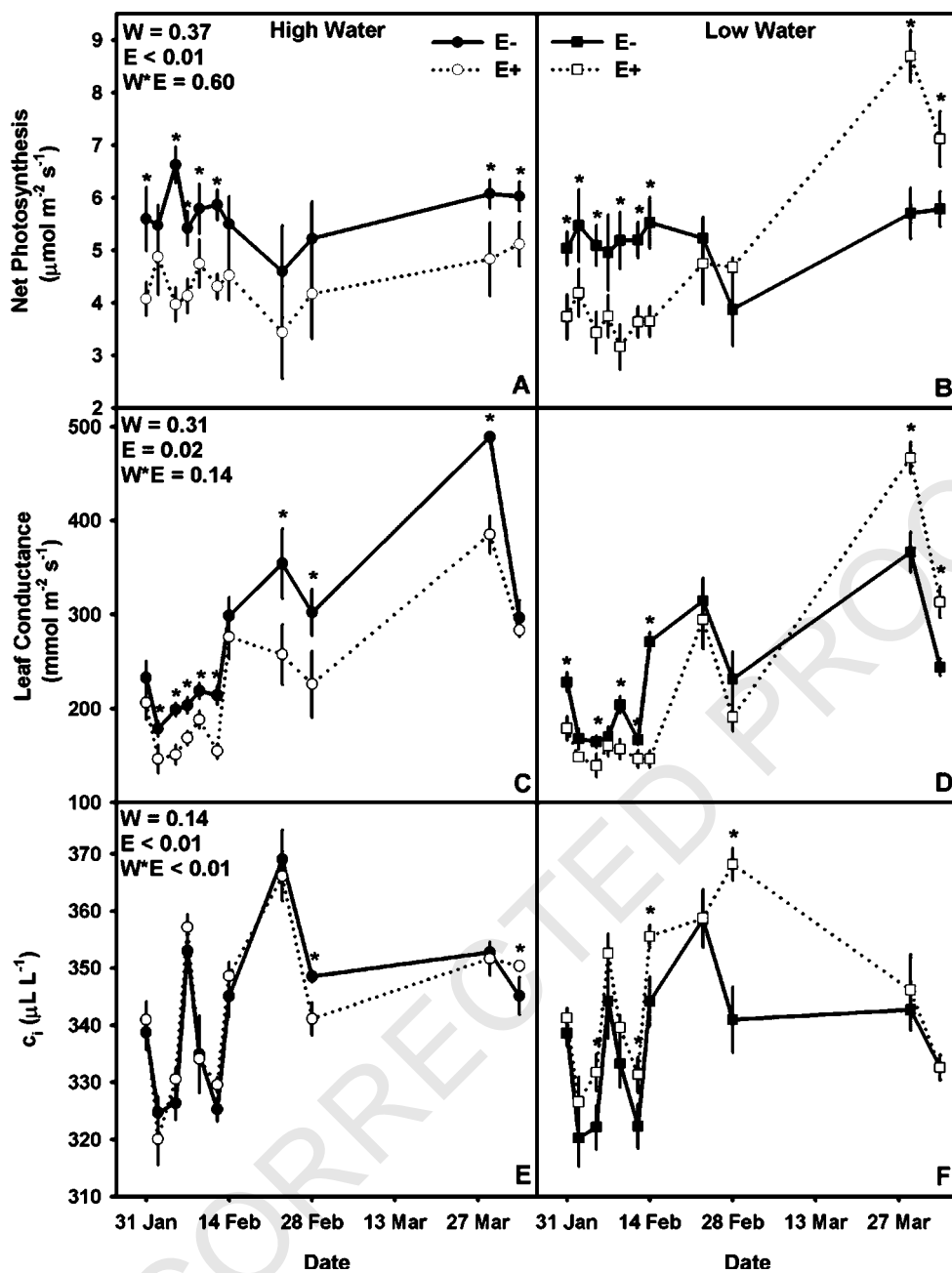


Fig. 2. Net photosynthesis, leaf conductance to water vapor, and intercellular CO<sub>2</sub> concentration (c<sub>i</sub>) of uninfected (E-) and infected (E+) Arizona fescue grown at high (HW; left panels A, C, E, respectively) or low water availability (LW; right panels B, D, F, respectively). On 24 February the HS treatment was modified from watering once a week to once every other week in order to impose more severe water stress. The *P*-values for water availability (S), infection (E), and water availability x infection effects, based on two-way ANOVA, are shown in the upper left of the left panels. Values are means (±S.E.) of eight replicates. Asterisks indicate means are significantly different (*P* < 0.05).

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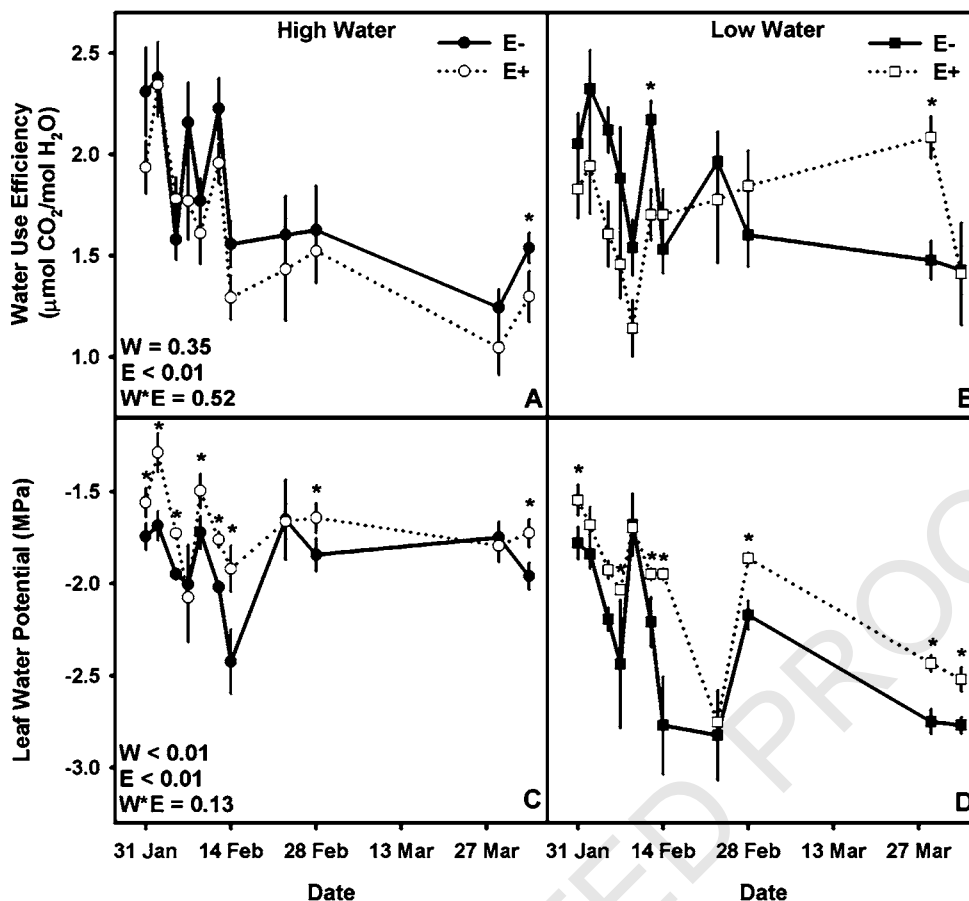


Fig. 3. Water use efficiency and leaf water potential of uninfected (E<sup>-</sup>) and infected (E<sup>+</sup>) Arizona fescue grown at high water availability (HW; left panels A, C, respectively) or low water availability (LW; right panels B, D, respectively). On 24 February the HS treatment was modified from watering once a week to once every other week in order to impose more severe water stress. The *P*-values for water availability (W), infection (E), and water availability × infection effects, based on two-way ANOVA, are shown in the lower left of the left panels. Values are means ( $\pm$ S.E.) of eight replicates. Asterisks indicate means are significantly different ( $P < 0.05$ ).

407 when more severe water stress was imposed later in  
 408 the experiment. Infected plants had less negative  
 409 leaf  $\Psi$  than E<sup>-</sup> plants on eight of 11 sampling  
 410 dates under high water availability, and seven of  
 411 11 dates under LW (Fig. 3C and D). Under high  
 412 water availability, soil moisture content at the final  
 413 harvest tended to be higher in pots of E<sup>+</sup>  
 414 (mean = 24.4%) than E<sup>-</sup> plants (mean = 17.9%;  
 415  $P < 0.10$ ; data not shown). Under LW, soil  
 416 moisture content tended to be higher in pots of  
 417 E<sup>+</sup> (mean = 9.4%) than E<sup>-</sup> plants (mean = 7.1%;  
 418  $P = 0.10$ ). The high water availability treatments  
 419 had higher soil moisture content than LW treat-  
 420 ments.

We investigated whether differences in  $P_n$  be- 421  
 422 tween treatments might be attributable to differ-  
 423 ences in stomatal and biochemical limitations by  
 424 assessing  $P_n - c_i$  responses. Water availability and  
 425 infection affected stomatal limitations to  $P_n$  (Fig.  
 426 4A). Stomatal limitation was greater in E<sup>+</sup> plants  
 427 in both water availability treatments, and was  
 428 greater at LW. Under high water availability the  
 429 E<sup>-</sup> plants had higher carboxylation efficiencies  
 430 than the E<sup>+</sup> plants, while under LW, efficiencies  
 431 of E<sup>+</sup> and E<sup>-</sup> plants were not different (Fig. 4B).  
 432 Midday  $F_v/F_m$  was not affected by treatment on  
 433 any sampling date (data not shown). The  $\Phi_{PSII}$   
 434 was significantly lower in plants under LW on one



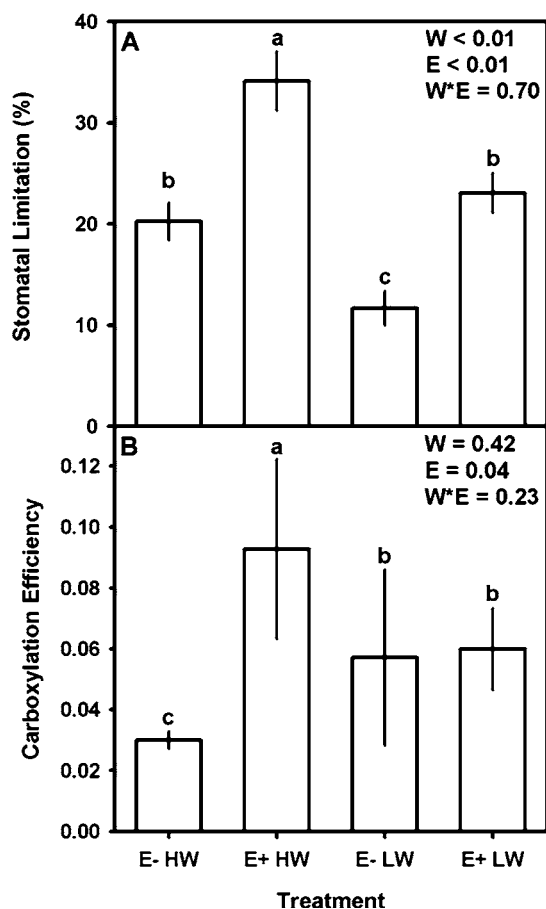


Fig. 4. Stomatal limitation to photosynthesis (A) and carboxylation efficiency of Rubisco (B) in uninfected (E-) and infected (E+) Arizona fescue grown at high (HW) or low water availability (LW), sampled in early March. The  $P$ -values for water availability (W), infection (E), and water availability  $\times$  infection effects, based on two-way ANOVA, are shown in the upper right of each panel. Values are means ( $\pm$ S.E.) of four replicates. Different letters indicate means are significantly different ( $P < 0.05$ ).

435 sampling date (4 March; LSD,  $P < 0.05$ ; data not  
 436 shown).

#### 437 4. Discussion

438 *Neotyphodium* infected Arizona fescue plants  
 439 produced more aboveground biomass than E-  
 440 plants, but only under LW. Similarly, E+ tall  
 441 fescue plants typically produce more biomass than

E- plants under limiting water availability (West 442  
 et al., 1988; Arachevaleta et al., 1989; West et al., 443  
 1993). Under high water availability, however, E- 444  
 plants produced more total biomass than E+ 445  
 plants. In contrast, E+ tall fescue typically 446  
 produce similar amounts of biomass, or more 447  
 biomass, than E- plants (Arachevaleta et al., 448  
 1989; Assuero et al., 2000). Hence, the effects of 449  
*Neotyphodium* infection on Arizona fescue growth 450  
 tends to differ from that on tall fescue, at least 451  
 under adequate water availability conditions. 452

We investigated which growth parameters best 453  
 explained greater aboveground biomass production 454  
 and RGR in Arizona fescue. Higher RGR is 455  
 often associated with (1) assimilating more bio- 456  
 mass (NAR) or carbon per unit leaf area (the latter 457  
 could be reflected in higher  $P_n$ ), and/or (2) 458  
 producing more leaf area per unit of total plant 459  
 biomass (i.e. higher LAR) (Hunt, 1990; Lambers 460  
 et al., 1998). Greater LAR could be accomplished 461  
 by allocating relatively more biomass to leaves 462  
 (LMR), or producing less dense leaves that would 463  
 increase leaf area per unit leaf mass (i.e. lower 464  
 SLM). 465

Greater aboveground biomass production by 466  
 E+ plants under LW appears attributable to 467  
 greater NAR, as well as the production of less 468  
 dense, leaves that provided more surface area and 469  
 therefore greater light harvesting capability per 470  
 unit of investment leaf mass. In contrast, under 471  
 high water availability, E- plants produced 472  
 greater aboveground biomass than E+ plants. In 473  
 this case, the greater growth of E- plants 474  
 appeared to involve higher  $P_n$  rates per unit leaf 475  
 area, as well as producing less dense leaves, which 476  
 provided more surface area. 477

With the exception of the severe water stress 478  
 imposed later in the experiment, E+ plants had 479  
 consistently lower  $P_n$ , as well as  $g_1$ . (Fig. 2). The 480  
 greater  $l_s$  found in E+ plants under each treatment 481  
 (Fig. 4A) suggests that the lower  $g_1$  of E+ plants 482  
 was at least partly responsible for lower  $P_n$  in these 483  
 plants. Furthermore, the lack of infection effects 484  
 on chlorophyll fluorescence parameters suggests 485  
 that infection had little effect on biochemical 486  
 limitations to  $P_n$ . *Neotyphodium*-infected tall fes- 487  
 cue plants sometimes have lower  $g_1$  than uninfected 488  
 plants (Elmi and West, 1995). It is unclear why 489

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490 infection leads to lower  $g_1$  in Arizona and tall  
 491 fescue; infection may lead to anatomical or  
 492 morphological changes such as lower stomatal  
 493 densities or more prevalent leaf folding (Arache-  
 494 valeta et al., 1989; but see West et al., 1993; West,  
 495 1994). Infection may also alter physiological  
 496 mechanisms, via hormonal signals such as abscisic  
 497 acid (Joost et al., 1993) that promote guard cell  
 498 closure.

499 After we imposed a more severe water limitation  
 500 in late February, E+ plants, however, had higher  
 501  $P_n$  and  $g_1$ . Similarly, E+ tall fescue plants often  
 502 have higher  $g_1$  than E– plants under water  
 503 limitations (Elbersen et al., 1994; Elbersen and  
 504 West, 1996). We suspect that the higher gas-  
 505 exchange rates we observed in E+ plants after  
 506 severe water stress resulted from greater soil  
 507 moisture availability in pots containing E+ plants.  
 508 Leaf  $\Psi$  of E+ plants were consistently higher than  
 509 those of E– plants (Fig. 3D), and lower  $g_1$  and  
 510 transpiration rates of E+ plants during the first  
 511 month of the experiment may have conserved soil  
 512 moisture, under severe water limitation. At the  
 513 final harvest, soil in pots of E+ plants tended to  
 514 have higher moisture content within each water  
 515 availability treatment compared with E– plants.  
 516 It appears that infection may lead to lower  $g_1$  and  
 517 transpiration rates in Arizona fescue under high or  
 518 moderate water availability, and that this may  
 519 conserve soil moisture, so that if a severe water  
 520 limitation subsequently occurs, the conserved soil  
 521 water allows maintenance of higher  $P_n$  and  $g_1$ , as  
 522 well as WUE. Our results suggest that *Neotypho-*  
 523 *dium* can have antagonistic as well as mutualistic  
 524 effects on the performance of Arizona fescue,  
 525 depending in part on water availability. Our  
 526 findings support the idea that fungal endophyte–  
 527 plant interactions vary in direction depending on  
 528 environmental conditions (Siegel, 1993; West,  
 529 1994; Saikkonen et al., 1998; Faeth and Fagan,  
 530 2002). Our findings also provide one explanation  
 531 as to how E+ and E– plants are maintained in  
 532 wild populations of Arizona fescue. A typical  
 533 growing season for semi-arid ponderosa pine/  
 534 Arizona fescue communities in north-central Ar-  
 535 izona begins in early May with relatively high soil  
 536 moisture availability (~40%) due to snow melt,  
 537 followed by an extreme dry-down period extend-

538 ing into late June, and then a partial recharge  
 539 period from July through August due to summer  
 540 rains. This is followed by another dry-down period  
 541 in the fall until winter rains begin in December. In  
 542 these communities, soil moisture content in the  
 543 upper 10-cm around the edge of Arizona fescue  
 544 canopies typically drops to 5–25% during June  
 545 (Morse, unpublished data), and then rises to 60–  
 546 100% during the summer thunderstorm period  
 547 during July and August. Hence, the soil moisture  
 548 content in the pots of our LW treatment (9.4 and  
 549 7.1% for E+ and E– plants, respectively), and  
 550 our high water availability treatment (24.4 and  
 551 17.9% for E+ and E– plants, respectively), are  
 552 comparable to those found in natural Arizona  
 553 fescue populations during the dry June period and  
 554 the wetter July–August period, respectively. Dur-  
 555 ing the dry periods, E+ plants may be favored  
 556 because of their ability to maintain higher  $P_n$ ,  $g_1$ ,  
 557 growth rates and biomass production in the face of  
 558 severe water limitations, whereas E– plants would  
 559 be favored during the subsequent wet season,  
 560 because of their higher  $P_n$ ,  $g_1$ , growth rates and  
 561 biomass production under high available soil  
 562 moisture. During the 10–20 year life span of an  
 563 Arizona fescue plant, several exceptionally wet and  
 564 dry years also occur (based on 50 year precipita-  
 565 tion averages). Thus, E+ and E– plants also  
 566 experience long-term changes in water availability  
 567 that may promote their recovery and coexistence.

## 5. Uncited references

West and Gwinn, 1993; Bacon, 1993.

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